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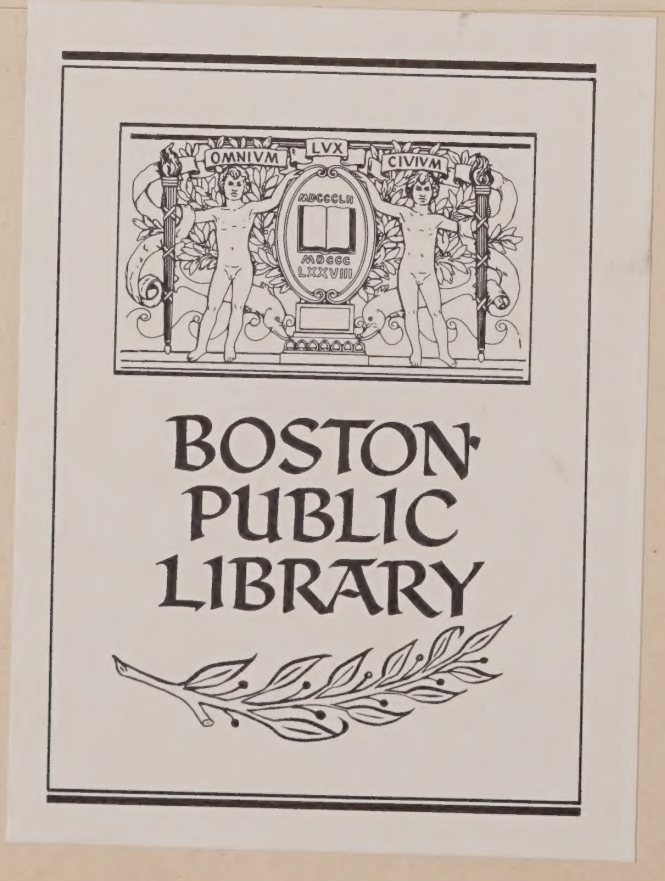

The Nation

A WEEKLY JOURNAL

DEVOTED TO

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, & ART

VOLUME XXXV

FROM JULY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1882

NEW YORK
THE EVENING POST PUBLISHING COMPANY
1882

Periodical
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The Nation.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 6, 1882.

The Week.

GUITEAU was executed at the appointed time, apparently without verifying any of the predictions made about his behavior at the last moment. He neither wholly preserved his firmness nor wholly lost it. He has undoubtedly displayed a good deal of nerve throughout, but not more than hundreds of other great criminals. He has not displayed, either in the jail or on the scaffold, any marked symptom of insanity, except by occasionally producing and urging "the inspiration theory" of his crime, and his confidence in this might easily have been feigned. That he was a remarkable criminal there is no doubt; but more than this he apparently was not. He has for the last twelve months, however, been a most unwholesome and scandalous spectacle, and it must long be a cause of shame and regret that the sentence could not have been executed nine months ago.

The case has brought out two phenomena of the day very strikingly. One is the passion for notoriety, which seems to be fast becoming the disease of the modern world, and seems likely to become one of its great social forces, such as religious fanaticism was in the Middle Ages. It is not until such an event as President Garfield's assassination occurs that we get a realizing sense of the burning desire to escape from the ordinary obscurity of their lives by which tens of thousands of persons are consumed, and the lengths they are prepared to go, if need be, in absurdity, to become known or talked about. If they cannot accomplish this by any act of their own, they are only too glad to accomplish it by connecting themselves in some manner, however queer or grotesque, with some notorious person. If they cannot be as much talked about as Guiteau, they are made happy by being able to retail Guiteau's talk. If they cannot have, like him, the fame of being hanged, without the suffering and the shame, they are content to furnish a patent gallows, or make the rope, or suggest a new device in knots, or in any manner whatever be publicly mixed up with an affair about which everybody is talking, and to have the air of knowing something more about it, be it ever so little, than other people. Of course this passion is fostered by the publicity afforded by the newspapers, which, indeed, are to love of notoriety what the sun is to plants. That it will increase is very certain, and that its power as a cause of crime as well as of folly will be recognized more fully as the years go on is, we think, equally certain.

The other phenomenon the Guiteau case has brought strongly into prominence is the danger to which the labors of "experts" in drawing fine distinctions about insanity are exposing the legal responsibility of all that class of the community which is most likely to commit crime. To hear them talk about such a case, one would suppose that all criminal trials should be conducted by doctors, and that all crime should raise a presumption of the criminal's insanity, and that nothing should be sufficient to upset this presumption except proof that he has been a man of very regular life, of very clear judgment, of high integrity, of great modesty and unselfishness, of strong family affections, and of great pluck and persistence. If he is dissolute, he is insane; if his opinions are foolish or weak, he is insane; if he is sharp and unscrupulous, he is insane; if he is conceited and selfish, unkind to his wife and children, fickle of purpose, and unsuccessful in his calling, he is insane. If, in short, he belongs to the class which in all ages has committed nine hundred and ninety-nine thousandths of the acts which put the existence of society in peril and make courts and police necessary, he is insane, and we must either let him go free, or shut him up in some such way as not to alarm or shock the tribe to which he belongs. According to the experts, in fact, the penal justice of society should exist only for the occasional lapses of the class to which it owes nearly everything of value in it—the steady, sober-minded, upright, industrious, and successful.

There was unusually, perhaps unprecedentedly, little celebration of the Fourth of July in the way of public speaking. For this the decline of the oration is not altogether responsible. The past year has been too much filled with the Garfield tragedy and its consequences to leave much disposition for jubilation on the part of either speakers or audiences. The only two addresses for the occasion which the newspapers in this part of the country have thought worth reporting are, a memorial discourse on Garfield, at Williams College, by Dr. Hopkins, and one of Senator Miller's, at Woodstock, Conn., in which he made the spoils system his principal text. Civil-service reform has now, in fact, secured almost as high a position among the themes for sermons, lay and clerical, on political anniversaries, as slavery had secured before the outbreak of the Rebellion. It is, in other words, recognized as one of the first things to be taken up on those days which Americans alone of all people in the world seem to set apart for meditation on the future of their country—for this is really the use to which most of the great national fête days are now put by the thoughtful part of the population. Nothing like the American speculation about the coming possibilities is to be found elsewhere, since there is nowhere else that deep and growing sense of the momentousness—in one sense or another—of to-morrow. All the old countries have settled down into a not wholly uncomfortable belief that things will be one hundred years hence very much what they are to-day, with the addition of a few millions at most to the population. But we are constantly preparing in imagination for tens of millions coming from we know not where, and seeking we know not what; and for great cities of which the site has not yet been selected; and for forms of thought of which the biggest libraries contain hardly the faintest foreshadowing.

The first of July having passed without any approach to a settlement of the difficulties between the railroad companies and the striking freight-handlers, there is ground for supposing that these difficulties had no relation to the advance of freight rates announced to take effect at that date. The railway officials declared at the outset that they were contending for a principle. They said that they would not yield to a combination of employees who knocked off work without notice, and without having even stated their grievances or asked for an advance of wages. Here undoubtedly the freight-handlers put themselves in the wrong. Their duty and their interest would have been equally consulted by first making a request for an advance and giving some days' notice of their intention to insist upon it. Such a request, fortified as it might have been by evidence showing that the rate of wages paid was inadequate as gauged by the cost of living, would have carried a great deal of weight. Public sympathy has been with the strikers notwithstanding their unjustifiable manner of making their wants known. This sympathy would have been shown much more decidedly if the initial steps in the proceeding had been more civil and considerate. The question would then have been one of a fair day's wages for a fair day's work. It is now something different from that, so the railroad men tell us, and the facts certainly give them the opportunity to say so. Probably the judicial proceedings instituted last week, and which will come up for hearing to-morrow, will throw some further light upon this phase of the case, and help to the forming of a more impartial judgment than has been possible heretofore.

The bill passed by the House on Saturday authorizing the issue of $200,000,000 of bonds bearing interest at 2 per cent. per annum, exchangeable for the existing 3½ per cents, and possessing no other advantage than that they shall not be called in while any of the 3½ per cents are outstanding, seems to be taken seriously by the newspaper correspondents at Washington, as well as by the Congressmen who urged its passage. Of course, no harm can come from the enactment of such a measure, unless it shall have the effect to interpose some obstacle to the passage of the Bank Charter Extension Bill, which contains a provision for the issue of 3 per cent. bonds on substantially the same terms as the proposed 2 per cents. English 3 per cent. consols, though having an indefinitely long period to run are below par at the present time. The chance of floating at par a 2 per cent. loan, redeemable three or four years hence, in this country would seem, therefore, to be very slight, unless coupled with a provision to repeal the tax of 1 per cent. on national-bank note circula-

tion. There would be no economy in such a swop, taking into account the expense of making it—that is, the printing and handling of the bonds. Moreover, it is not probable that Congress could be induced to repeal the tax on circulation, which, indeed, ought not to be repealed. The two per cent. refunding bill, if it becomes a law, is likely to remain a dead letter.

Mr. Hewitt's exposure of the Naval Appropriation Bill on Thursday is not pleasant reading for any American who remembers what the Navy has been in the past, and reflects upon the causes which have led to its ruin. On June 8 Mr. Robeson, in the course of a speech on the Navy, fervently exclaimed, "Thank God, every ship that now bears the flag of America and carries its guns was built by me, or was substantially repaired under my direction, and I am responsible for it." Mr. Hewitt accordingly went through this navy, the responsibility for which Mr. Robeson claims, ship by ship, giving the details of their cost, performance, and present value compared with vessels of the same size and class in the navies of other great powers. The facts as given by him show a shocking condition of affairs. Six vessels built by Mr. Robeson are alleged to have cost four times what similar merchant vessels at the time of their construction were actually built for, and, notwithstanding this, twenty-six per cent. of their first cost had to be spent for repairs in the first six years of their service. The highest average speed of these six vessels is ten and three-quarter knots, which is between two and three knots less than the speed of similar ships in foreign navies, while the consumption of coal per horse-power is three-quarters of a pound more. This is the way in which Mr. Robeson built vessels. To show how he repaired them, Mr. Hewitt took up the history of the *Tennessee*, the *Kearsarge*, and the *Pensacola*. The *Tennessee* was repaired to the extent of $1,740,000 in money, besides an old engine (cost $764,000), which was given to Mr. John Roach in part payment. The new engines have been repaired to the extent of $126,000. Ten knots, however, is all that can be got out of her. The *Kearsarge* was "substantially repaired" by Mr. Robeson to the extent of $667,000, or double her first cost, and since he stopped, repairs to the extent of $242,000 more have been found to be necessary. Still, her speed is only that of a slow freight steamer, while her engines consume three times the coal they ought. In repairing the *Pensacola* Mr. Robeson spent $1,238,800, and since he left the Department $316,800 have been paid out in addition. She is 900 tons smaller than the *Trenton*, and her speed is only nine knots.

To this array of facts Mr. Robeson hardly made an attempt to reply. He had the audacity, indeed, to assert that "if we had had the *Monadnock* finished last summer, she could have been floated into the harbor of Callao; she could have been on the coast of Peru, and a sister Republic need not have been dismembered for the purpose of filling the pockets of English dealers and contractors"; and caused some amusement by the announcement: "What I have been in character and principle I am, and what I am I expect to continue to be." He relies, evidently, on the lateness of the session, and the fact that it is difficult to separate the appropriations which he asks for from the general clauses of the Naval Bill, to carry them all through together, and thus secure the completion of the monitors, which he has so much at heart, and with regard to which, as Mr. Hewitt pointed out on Thursday, "every new board or expert directed to examine them finds grave defects in the various designs, that must be corrected at the expense of the Government and for the benefit of the contractors." The apparent blindness of the Republicans to the fact that they cannot pass such a bill, and shirk the responsibility which it entails, is very curious. Mr. Robeson and his performances with the Navy furnish the Democrats with what, considered by itself, is a very powerful argument. What can be expected, they say, of a party which not only rewards a Secretary of the Navy like Mr. Robeson by sending him to Congress, but actually puts him, after his maladministration has practically ruined the Navy, in charge of all the naval legislation? The party explanation that it is owing to Keifer, or owing to Cameron, does not help matters, for the causes which put Mr. Robeson where he is are themselves part of the burden to be shouldered. It would be hard to point out a clearer case in politics for immediate "unloading" before it is too late.

The trouble in the Star-route trial about the petitions on the strength of which expedition was ordered by Brady has been settled, and they are to go in as part of the Government's case. This must be because the Government proposes, after putting them in, to show that they were got up by Brady and his confederates in order that expedition might be ordered, for corrupt purposes, on the strength of them. In this view they are undoubtedly part of the Government's case, and how Judge Wylie got any other idea it is difficult to understand. He seems to have imagined that the prosecution, in putting in these papers, was making out a defence. Such conduct on the part of lawyers of the standing of Mr. Bliss could only be explained on the theory of collusion, which our esteemed contemporary, the *Sun*, suggests is the true theory of the proceedings from the first. But the trouble with this is, that the prosecution seems to be doing exactly what it should have been expected to do.

Some correspondence has passed between the counsel of the Civil-Service Reform League and the Attorney-General on the subject of Mr. Hubbell's blackmailing circular. Messrs. Wheeler and Whitridge call Mr. Brewster's attention to the fact that the Revised Statutes prohibit such contributions as Mr. Hubbell demands, when made by officers or employees to "any other officer" of the Government, and say that the term "officer" must include members of Congress, as is shown not only by common usage, but by the employment of the same term in the Test-Oath Act and the act of 1874 "repealing the increase of salaries of members of Congress and other officers." They also call the Attorney-General's attention to Mr. Hubbell's statement, which they refer to as "significant," and which they might fairly have called astounding, that the Committee is "authorized to state" that contributions "will not be objected to in any official quarter." Such an assurance, they point out, "appended to an invitation to commit a misdemeanor," would under any circumstances be indefensible, but, coming from members of Congress, "is a reflection upon the integrity of the Administration." They request the Attorney-General to bring Mr. Hubbell's raid to an end, by instructing the District Attorneys throughout the country to indict all offenders against the statute. The Attorney-General, in reply, promises to look into the matter and take such action as the circumstances may in his judgment require. No very profound examination, however, is requisite. His duty is a plain one. There is the statute, and it must be enforced. The defence that it is unconstitutional, because it prevents voluntary payments, is a matter for the courts to pass upon, and one with which he has nothing to do. As a matter of fact he knows, as everybody does, that the payments are not voluntary.

The Maine Republicans are the only ones who have recently shirked all mention of civil-service reform in their platform—a pitch of audacity to which, in fact, neither party has now for many years often risen. As if to show that the omission was intentional and deliberate, one of the Senators from the State, Mr. Frye, has been eulogizing Mr. William E. Chandler as a statesman, and another, Mr. Hale, has been defending the blackmailing assessment circular, which, indeed, he signed himself. Taken altogether, this amounts to a real political debauch. The Maine Democrats were not so bold or so depraved, for they denounced the spoils system in the customary terms, and now come the Vermont Democrats and follow their example. They "denounce" the political assessments, Republican hypocrisy, the Star-route conspirators, moneyed power, and monopolies, and "favor" a tariff for revenue, a reform in the civil service, strict economy, the fostering of all sorts of interests, a gold and silver currency, "or its equivalent." In fact, any one who dissented from any of the sentiments of the platform would *ipso facto* confess himself a bad man. This, indeed, may now be said of the platforms on both sides. For three or four years back, it has been almost impossible for an honest and intelligent man to gainsay anything they contain, except the charges they bring against the opposite party. If they were inscribed on brass tablets, like the public documents of Greece and Rome, and were brought to light two or three thousand years hence by the excavators of some new civilization, what an exalted idea they would give of the political morality of the American people. There is only one drawback in the mention they all make of civil-service reform, and that is, they do not describe the precise means by which they would secure the purity and efficiency they so much desire. Perhaps this will come by and by.

The "dungeon" question came up again in the House on June 28 in the shape of two resolutions reported from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, one calling for diplomatic correspondence on the subject, and for information as to whether any United States officer had made a proposition to American citizens in British dungeons to accept their release on conditions; and the other requesting the President to demand the release of the American citizens who still remain in such dungeons, and, if need be, to effect it by such means as he should deem proper, or in other words, authorizing him to declare war. The most curious feature about these periodic recurrences of the dungeon trouble is that the names of the American citizens imprisoned therein are never given. For months these remarkable men have been kept out of sight of an enraged and sympathetic public, doubtless to gratify their natural shrinking from notoriety. Mr. W. E. Robinson of course took part in the discussion, but was suppressed by the previous question, and announced that he would move for Mr. Lowell's impeachment in order to get a full hearing, but, we believe, has since reconsidered this and will let Lowell run for the present. The remarks he did make were as usual far more interesting to "experts" than to the politician. In fact, to our minds, Dr. Beard ought to find Mr. Robinson a much more instructive case than Guiteau.

The Peruvian-guano trouble has entered on a new phase. Messrs. Dreyfus, of Paris—who were really the famous Crédit Industriel—protest by advertisement against the proposed sale of 1,000,000 tons of guano by the Chilian Government, on the ground that they (the Messrs. Dreyfus) bought 2,000,000 tons of guano from the Peruvian Government in 1869, with the right to take them out of any deposits they pleased, which they have not yet done. They accordingly protest all round and to the Chilian Government through the French Minister. The French Minister is undoubtedly the proper medium for their protest, and not the American Minister; and if there is to be a fight over this guano, the proper parties to it are France and Chili, and not the United States, Great Britain, and Chili, as some diplomatists, whom we shall not name, would have preferred.

The Conference at Constantinople seems somehow to make little progress toward a decision. The Porte will not have anything to do with the deliberations, and it is unlikely, therefore, that it will be charged with the duty of suppressing Arabi Bey. The only thing certain in the whole matter is that England is getting ready to act alone. Thus far France does not seem to object to her doing so, and, in fact, nobody does. The immense importance to her of the Suez Canal is acknowledged on all hands as a reason why she should not stand idle, whatever others may say or do. Arabi could, in fact, block the Canal in a single night, thus cutting off England from military communication with India by the short route, and greatly impeding her commerce, for three-fourths of the vessels which pass through it carry the British flag. We shall, therefore, probably speedily witness British intervention, to be followed or not by the approval of the Conference, and supported or not by a French contingent.

The French Ministry are apparently afraid of the responsibility, and are disposed to take the ground that it is no business of theirs whether Arabi or Tewfik gets the upper hand. In other words, they know that England must move for the protection of the Canal, whatever France may do, and they rely on the moderation and peaceableness of the Gladstone Ministry to prevent the occupation from becoming permanent. But behind all this there is undoubtedly the timidity inspired by the condition of the army as revealed by the Tunisian expedition. This nipped the reviving martial enthusiasm of the French in the very bud. The truth is, that the new military organization appears to be, for the purposes of small expeditions, a complete failure. In the last war the army was found unfit for operations on a great scale. It was then reorganized on a plan in which nothing but great operations was thought of, so that when the expedition against Tunis was set on foot, there was no small unit to be found for it, and whole corps had to be pulled to pieces to furnish an army of 30,000 men, horse, foot, and artillery. Since then there has been complete dismay in military circles, and no stomach for fighting anywhere. But then it must be said, too, that the Ministry are afraid of the Chambers, for the very good reason that they do not know what the mind of the majority is or is likely to be about anything.

The Davitt land-nationalization scheme has been repudiated with a good deal of emphasis by the leading Parnellites. Healy, in particular, who is in many ways the ablest of them, and who but for his violence would be the most influential, has been interviewed by the *Herald* correspondent, and states very forcibly and tersely the leading objections to it from the Irish point of view—such as its failure to better the condition of the peasantry in Egypt and India, the probability that it would lay the farmers at the mercy of politicians and fill them with anxiety about the amount of their rent, in the form of taxes, at every election, and its total unsuitability to the now prevailing Irish ideas about land. It is difficult, indeed, everything considered, to account for its getting into Davitt's head, except by the supposition that his hatred of the landlords is with him a mastering passion, and that any scheme which promises their total disappearance finds an easy lodgment in his brain.

The trouble in the House of Commons, which has resulted in the withdrawal of the majority of the Parnellites, is one in which the Government has undoubtedly at last put itself at least as much in the wrong as the Irish. The Irish were filibustering in the Committee of the Whole, and had divided themselves into relays for keeping up the work at night. Dr. Lyon Playfair, the Chairman of the Committee, determined to stop the obstruction by suspending the relay as soon as it came on the ground, and for this purpose procured a list of its members, and then committed the extraordinary blunder of suspending everybody whose name was on the list, without ascertaining whether he had been actually present and guilty of obstruction or not. Four were thus suspended who were not guilty of obstruction at all, but were at home in bed when the penalty was inflicted. Mr. O'Donnell was one of these, and, the next day, when he ascertained the fact, he came into the House, and denounced the Chairman in unmeasured language. Mr. Parnell, though present, was also guiltless of any actual obstruction, and was suspended simply as a member of the obstructing force. It was at first supposed that Dr. Lyon Playfair had received his instructions from the Ministry, and that the whole affair had been got up by Sir William Harcourt, who had on Saturday morning plainly played the part of a provoker of Irish turbulence. But Dr. Playfair denies this, and says it was all done on his own responsibility. The result was, however, that some sixteen Irish members, who really represent a larger proportion of the Irish people than all the rest of the House put together, were summarily got rid of by this high-handed process, and in their absence the remaining clauses of the bill were rushed through the Committee. O'Donnell's case was then dealt with, and, as he refused to retract or apologize, he was suspended for fourteen days.

If the sole object of the Ministry were to pass the bill, it might be possible to excuse such a high-handed measure as the infliction of penalties on members of the House by categories, and not by individuals, though the like of it has never been heard of in civil justice before, to say nothing of parliamentary procedure. It is only in the army that individuals are sometimes made to atone for the offences of the body to which they belong. But the object of the Ministry is not simply to pass the bill. Its object is to secure the punishment of crime and to diffuse popular respect for the law in Ireland. Nothing better calculated to prevent these things, and to deprive the law of all moral weight, could well have been devised than these proceedings. This unfortunate effect has been emphasized by the withdrawal of the Parnellites in a body, followed by loud cheers from the rest of the House. It is easy to foresee what the effect of these cheers in Ireland will be. Unless all signs fail the present Parliament cannot last very long, and at the next general election it is all but certain that seventy Parnellites instead of twenty-three will be sent to the House of Commons from Ireland. In short, Mr. Gladstone has got his bill passed, but it is a bill in the promotion of which we greatly fear he was catering for the support of his Whig followers, rather than following his own best judgment, and has armed himself with a weapon which will not restore order in Ireland, and will react with fatal effect on his Ministry. The telegraphic account of the form in which the bill has finally passed the Committee is very, and inexcusably, obscure. Its most importan feature was the substitution of trial by three judges for trial by jury, and it is over this that the fiercest fight was made. It seems—though it is not perfectly clear—that this has been abandoned, and that all trials under the act are to take place before a special or struck jury.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 28, to TUESDAY, July 4, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

GUITEAU, the assassin of President Garfield, was hanged in the corridor of the United States Jail, at Washington, on Friday. Every opportunity, under the laws, for his reprieve or pardon had been tried and exhausted by his counsel, Mr. Charles Reed. On Thursday Mr. Reed had an interview with his client, and informed him that he had no reason for hope. Guiteau coolly accepted the situation, and wrote a will, giving the disposal of his body after death, and the copyright of his book, 'The Truth and the Removal,' to the Rev. Dr. William W. Hicks, his spiritual adviser. He also directed that if a monument were ever erected over his grave, it should bear the inscription, "Here lies the body of Charles Guiteau, patriot and Christian. His soul is in glory." The criminal's last night was passed restlessly. Friday morning he spent in arranging the details for the last scenes of the tragedy. He wrote some verses and a prayer to be read on the scaffold, and conversed with Dr. Hicks on religious subjects. As the morning advanced he succumbed to nervous excitement, and wept for a time. When, however, the death warrant was read at noon, he listened to it without visible emotion. About 250 spectators were drawn up on both sides of the long corridor, at the end of which stood the scaffold. After a prayer for mercy by Dr. Hicks, Guiteau unfalteringly read a passage from the New Testament (Matt. x. 28-41), and, as a last dying prayer, a solemn avowal of the Divine origin of his crime, coupled with spiteful maledictions against the press, the President, the Government, and the nation. This was followed by his repeating some verses, intended to indicate his feelings at the moment of leaving the world, written to imitate the prattle of a child. He wept while he read. Dr. Hicks pronounced a benediction; the noose and black cap were adjusted; Guiteau shouted, "Glory, glory, glory!" and dropped a bit of white paper as a signal to the executioner; the trap fell at 12:40, and in fifteen minutes he was dead, from strangulation. An autopsy was performed by competent physicians in the afternoon. The brain and vital organs were found in a healthy condition, but the membrane which envelopes the brain was found to be diseased.

John W. Guiteau, the assassin's brother, was present at the execution. Mrs. Scoville, his sister, was not admitted, but she sent flowers for his coffin.

On Saturday afternoon, at four o'clock, the body was buried in a grave dug in the northeast corridor of the jail. Six convicts bore the coffin thither. Dr. Hicks and John W. Guiteau were present, with several jail officials.

The House of Representatives spent several days last week in discussing the Naval Appropriation Bill. Mr. Robeson's plan to complete the monitors was strongly opposed by Mr. Hewitt. In the Senate a bill has been introduced providing for the appropriation of $10,000,000 for building new cruisers. An amendment, which practically abolishes the rank of commodore after July 1, 1883, was passed on Saturday. The number of lieutenants on the active list is to be limited to 200.

In a discussion on a resolution in regard to the American "suspects" question, Representative Robinson, of New York, on Wednesday, made a violent speech, in which he gave notice that he would move at an early date to impeach the Minister of the United States at London. On the following day he changed his mind, and concluded to leave the question to the care of the Foreign Affairs Committee.

Representative Hawk, a Republican, representing the Fifth Illinois district in Congress, died in Washington on Thursday, after an illness of ten days. Both branches of Congress adjourned, out of respect to his memory, on Friday.

President Arthur has vetoed the Deuster Steamship Bill for regulating the carriage of passengers at sea. The reason he assigned was that the practical result of the law would be to subject all the ocean steamers to great losses, and to restrict immigration. The President signified his willingness to give his prompt assent to a bill on the same subject correctly constructed.

The President has nominated, as the Geneva Award Commission, ex-Senator Harlan, of Iowa, Judge Wells, a member of the former Commission, and Asa French, of Massachusetts.

In Army circles, especially among the younger officers, there is great dissatisfaction with the new law retiring officers at sixty-four years of age. A movement is on foot to introduce a bill next winter to lower the limit to sixty-two years.

A Naval board has reported to Secretary Chandler, recommending that Congress appropriate $25,000 for the removal of the bodies of Lieutenant De Long and his ten comrades, of the *Jeannette*, from their resting place by the banks of the Lena, to this country.

Pension Commissioner Dudley believes that the new force which Congress has provided will enable him to settle up pending arrears cases within one year, and to dispose of the entire accumulation of applications of all kinds within three years.

The public debt was decreased, during the month of June, $12,560,696 70.

On behalf of the Civil-Service Reform Association, Messrs. Wheeler & Whitridge, of this city, their attorneys, have written a letter to the Attorney-General of the United States, calling his attention to the fact that the Revised Statutes prohibit any such contributions as are asked for in Congressman Jay A. Hubbell's recent "political-assessment" circular addressed to the employees of the Government. The letter also points out Mr. Hubbell's significant statement that such contributions "will not be objected to in any official quarter," and refers to it as "a reflection upon the integrity of the Administration." The Attorney-General is requested by the letter to give instructions to the District-Attorneys throughout the country to indict all offenders against the statute. The Attorney-General has promised to look into the matter, and take such action as his judgment may approve.

In the Star-route trials at Washington during the past week, evidence has been presented by the prosecution, in regard to a number of routes, of an uninteresting nature, dealing specially with the details of contracts. Petitions for expedition, whether their genuineness is to be attacked or not, will be admitted by the court as evidence.

The Illinois Republican State Convention met on Wednesday and nominated General J. C. Smith for State Treasurer. A resolution in favor of a prohibitory amendment to the Constitution was voted down by a vote of 623 to 133.

R. E. Pattison, of Philadelphia, was nominated for Governor by the Democratic State Convention of Pennsylvania, which met in Harrisburgh on Wednesday and Thursday. Chauncey F. Black was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor, and Mortimer V. Elliott, of Tioga County, for Congressman-at-large. The platform contains a protest against the spoils system of politics and the boss-rule of party. The ticket is considered a strong one, and likely to succeed unless some energetic measures are taken to unite the Republican party.

The Vermont Democrats have nominated George E. Eaton, of Danville, for Governor. The Michigan Prohibitionists have nominated Daniel P. Sagendorph for Governor. Their platform demands the ballot for women in addition to its prohibition "plank."

A prohibition amendment to the Iowa Constitution was approved at a special election on June 27, by a majority of more than 26,000.

The bondholders' proposition to settle the State debt of Louisiana has passed both branches of the Legislature with slight amendment, and is now before the Governor for his approval.

Governor Cornell has vetoed the bill to provide for the construction, maintenance, and operation of street-railroads in cities, villages, and towns. This is the bill known as the Surface Railroad Bill. He has also vetoed the Field Civil Code and the Sharpe Receivership Bill.

Crop reports from all parts of the West continue favorable, with the exception of those referring to the corn prospects. The violent storms, heavy rains, and chinch bugs threaten to cut down the yield.

A great storm of wind and rain passed over Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa on Friday, doing great damage to property.

The blockade in the freight traffic of this city, owing to the strike of freight-handlers, has continued. New men have been engaged by the railroad companies, but they have been incompetent to manage the work. It is possible that the old hands will soon be reëngaged at the rates which they demand.

Of the five thousand miners in the Clearfield, Pa., coal region, not more than 250 are now at work. They refuse to resume operations until an advance of thirty per cent. is made in their wages.

The express train which left Long Branch at 8:05 o'clock on Thursday morning, while crossing the bridge of the Jersey Central Railroad, over Parker's Creek, an arm of the Shrewsbury River, near Little Silver station, left the track, by reason of the spreading of the rails, and four passenger coaches and the smoking-car went over into the water. The cars were filled with passengers, mostly cottagers at Long Branch, Elberon, and Asbury Park. There were many prominent citizens on the train. General Grant was in the smoking-car. He was in the water, breast high, but was drawn out through the car window, only slightly bruised on one leg, and still calmly smoking his cigar. S. L. Bradley, a contractor and builder of this city, was killed outright, and George W. Demarest, a wealthy produce merchant, C. M. Woodruff, President of the Newark Fire Insurance Company, and James E. Mallory, a real-estate broker, died soon after the accident. Eight persons were seriously and about fifty slightly wounded. Among the seriously injured was W. R. Garrison, son of Commodore Garrison. He died on Saturday, at the age of forty-seven. Early in life he became connected with various railroad and steamship enterprises. He was identified with the elevated-railway system of this city, and was President, at one time, of the Metropolitan and Manhattan.

Henry C. Cole, a Cincinnati lawyer of some ability, killed his wife and daughter on Wednesday, and then committed suicide. He belonged to a wealthy and highly respected family. Financial troubles caused the deed. His daughter was twenty years of age, and very intelligent.

The trial of the Malleys and Blanche Douglass for the murder of Jennie Cramer was concluded at New Haven on Friday by the jury, after an hour's deliberation, bringing in a verdict of not guilty as to all the persons indicted. The charge of the judge was considered favorable to the accused.

The annual Commencement exercises took place last week at Harvard, Yale, Amherst, Union, Lafayette, Dartmouth, and Hamilton Colleges. At Harvard College Mr. Carl Schurz delivered the Phi Beta Kappa oration, his subject being "Education in the Republic." At Union College the anti-Potter faction of the faculty met the Board of Trustees on Wednesday, and a resolution was passed adjourning until July 10, when the faculty are

to bring specific charges against the President, which will be thoroughly investigated. At Yale College Chief-Justice Morrison R. Waite was elected a member of the Corporation. At Dartmouth Senator Bayard, of Delaware, delivered an oration on the life and services of Daniel Webster.

The annual boat-race between the eights of Harvard and Yale Colleges took place at New London, Conn., on Thursday, and was won by Harvard. The race was very close and exciting. At the end of three and a half miles the boats were about even, and at the finish Harvard was only about one-half a boat-length ahead. The official time was: Harvard, 20:47½; Yale, 20:52¼.

Harvard and Columbia College boat crews disagreed in regard to the time of rowing the race at New London, Conn., on Monday. No compromise could be effected, and Harvard left without rowing. Columbia pulled over the course alone on Monday afternoon.

The Columbia College Freshman crew defeated the Freshman crew of Harvard College in a two-mile race, on the Harlem River, Saturday afternoon, by three lengths. The time of the winning crew was 10:56. The crews consisted of eight oarsmen and a coxswain.

The University of Pennsylvania won the race in the Inter-Collegiate Regatta on Lake George, Tuesday afternoon. The other colleges taking part were Wesleyan, Cornell, Princeton, and Bowdoin.

Yale College won the College Championship at base-ball by its final game with Amherst on Thursday. Princeton has the second place.

Miss Annie Louise Cary was married on Thursday, in Portland, Me., to Mr. C. M. Raymond, of New York.

FOREIGN.

The bill for the repression of crime in Ireland was still further considered by the House of Commons, in committee, during the week. On Wednesday afternoon clause 15 was adopted. Clause 16, as to the power of the Lord Lieutenant relative to the compensation to be paid in certain cases of murder and maiming, was passed on Thursday. The discussion of the seventeenth clause, which defines the expression "district," and prescribes the methods of apportionment and collection of constabulary and compensation charges therein, was begun on Friday evening. The Parnellites then resorted to their old methods of obstruction. An all-night session ensued. Mr. Parnell said that no opposition could be more reasonably conducted against such an atrocious measure. At 9:30 o'clock on Saturday morning, Dr. Lyon Playfair, Chairman of the Committee, said there had been deliberately planned obstruction to the business of the House. Sixteen Home Rulers were then suspended and quitted the House, Mr. O'Donnell declaring that Dr. Playfair's naming him was infamous, because he had been absent from the House all night. Other suspended members claimed that they had not spoken. Clause 17 was finally adopted about 2 o'clock P.M. on Saturday. Clauses 18 and 20 were then adopted, clause 19 being dropped to be replaced by an amended article. About 6 o'clock on Saturday evening, the Parnellites again began their dilatory motions. The Chairman named eight of them, and their suspension was moved by Mr. Gladstone, and carried. After the expulsion of this second group, all the remaining clauses of the bill were adopted, including the clause which continues the bill in force for three years. The House then adjourned.

In the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, the Speaker said the Irish members could only raise the question of the suspensions on Saturday by an ordinary motion, and not as a question of privilege. He approved the action of Dr. Playfair in reporting Mr. O'Donnell. That gentleman refused to make any explanation as to his conduct, and Mr. Gladstone moved his suspension for a fortnight. Mr. O'Donnell then denied that he had used the word "infamous," but admitted that otherwise he had spoken as alleged. He tried to prove that he had not obstructed the business of the House. After a long discussion, and the rejection of an amendment to drop the affair, Mr. Gladstone's motion was carried by a vote of 181 to 33.

Urgency was voted for the Repression Bill on Monday by 259 to 31.

Mr. Blake, the agent of Lord Clanricarde, and Mr. Keene, his steward, were shot and killed when riding on a car near Loughrea, Ireland, on Thursday. No arrests have yet been made.

There are rumors of a plot that has been discovered to assassinate Cardinal McCabe.

A meeting of Conservatives was held in London on Thursday, at which the Egyptian policy of the Government was discussed. Lord Salisbury made a speech in which he pointed out that the Government had suffered their demands to be disregarded, and he declared that, unless they removed Arabi Pasha, their whole position in the East would be jeopardized.

This has been a week of preparation and negotiation in Egyptian affairs. While the Conference was slowly carrying on its secret sessions at Constantinople, in vain endeavoring to gain the Porte as a party to its deliberations, England was preparing actively to guard her interests. Preparations have been made at Woolwich by which 40,000 men can be embarked on the instant. The Paris *Journal des Débats* concedes Great Britain's right to act alone, as the Suez Canal question is one of vital importance to her. It is said that Bismarck is on the side of England as regards the Suez Canal.

Arabi Pasha addressed his troops at the Arsenal in Alexandria on Thursday. He said that invasion had often been threatened by Europe, but had come to nothing. Their eyes were opened now, and it was not of England alone they were going to be afraid. The tone of the Army at the meeting was not very reassuring, however.

Arabi Pasha is alarmed at the general emigration of the Europeans, and proposes to confiscate their property.

Dervish Pasha has issued a proclamation at Alexandria calling upon the people to obey the Khedive and fraternize with the Europeans. On Saturday the Porte signified its intention to be guided by the views of the Conference respecting Egypt. Turkish troops will probably be sent to establish the *status quo*, under the direction of the Powers.

Ragheb Pasha and the other Egyptian Ministers declare that they will oppose armed intervention by Turkey. One of the Ulemas has declared that such a war would be lawful. A majority of the military officers, however, have informed Arabi Pasha that they are opposed to fighting. There is a disagreement between Dervish Pasha and Arabi.

It is said that the French Cabinet has decided that France is not in honor bound to support the Khedive, if the people are persistently hostile to him and the great Powers are ready to support a candidate to be agreed upon between Arabi Pasha and the Porte.

The Bombay Government has received instructions to be prepared for the shipping of the contemplated military expedition to Egypt. The Calcutta newspapers consider that a campaign in Egypt would be hailed with the liveliest satisfaction by native Indian troops.

The Russian police have discovered the names of all persons through whom the Nihilists were in the habit of receiving funds. Among them are many prominent persons. The police have full particulars of the members of the Central Managing Committee, and also a list of members who have joined the revolutionary party since 1872. There are about 680 names on the list.

General Colbuss and M. Soboleff, both Russians, are to be appointed Ministers of War and of the Interior, of Bulgaria, respectively. The whole Bulgarian Cabinet will probably be reconstructed.

A resolution was adopted, at a meeting of a number of leading German manufacturers at Cologne, on Saturday, declaring that the bimetallic agitation is most injuriously affecting the economic interests of the country, and that the Government should express its determination to carry out a gold currency without undue haste.

The total period of service in the German Army has been reduced from fourteen to twelve years. The law will go into effect next autumn.

M. de Lesseps, the French engineer, presented a report to the shareholders, in Paris on Thursday, in which he asserted that the completion of the Panama Canal within the time he first assigned is now certain. He announced that the work already done has proved that the obstacles to the construction of the canal will not be so serious as was anticipated. The shareholders were asked to authorize the issue of obligations to the amount of £250,000 for the purchase of the Panama Railroad. They approved the report and authorized the issue of bonds.

The Spanish Chamber of Deputies has approved bills abolishing differential dues on foreign vessels in the ports of Cuba and Porto Rico, and reforming commercial relations between Spain and her colonies. The Senate, by a vote of 116 to 59, has adopted the bill reducing the customs tariff.

The treaty between the United States and Corea has been ratified through the exertions of Commodore Shufeldt, of the United States Navy. This country will have a Minister, a Consul-General, and several consuls in Corea. The treaty, after acknowledging the political independence of Corea, provides that American offenders against the law in Corea shall be tried by an American Consular Court. In matters of law between a Corean and American the case shall be tried by the court of the nation to which the defendant belongs. Corean merchants and ships visiting the United States shall pay duties, etc., on the scale of the United States customs tariff, Corea being treated like the most favored nation. The Corean Government will exact import duties not exceeding eleven per cent. on the necessaries of life and thirty per cent. on luxuries. Coreans are given permission to live and trade in the United States, but American merchants are not permitted to travel in the interior of Corea to sell any kind of foreign goods. Foreign opium is not to be imported by either nation into a port of the other. The Corean monarch can prohibit the export of rice when a famine is apprehended. Scholars of either country are to be allowed to study in the other.

The Chilian President's message to Congress has been well received in that country. It is thought to indicate a wish on his part that the occupation of Peru shall cease as soon as any government can be formed more stable than Montero's. There is a strong probability that the whole of North Peru will soon be given up by the Chilians, and a possibility that they will abandon Lima.

The Canadian revenue returns for the eleven months of the fiscal year just ended show an increase over the total receipts for the previous fiscal year, and the complete returns for 1882 will probably show a total of $32,000,000, an increase of nearly $4,000,000. On the other hand, the expenditures have been as great for the first eleven months of the fiscal year of 1882 as for the previous fiscal year.

W. H. Gilder, of the lost Arctic steamer *Rodgers*, has arrived at Irkutsk. He was delayed in his journey by the breaking up of the Russian rivers, and was obliged to kill his horse for food.

Floods in the Frazer River district of British Columbia have damaged property and crops to the amount of $400,000.

THE EXECUTION.

It is to be hoped that the very revolting scene at the scaffold on Friday will do something toward bringing about a reform in the matter of the license accorded to condemned criminals in the moments immediately preceding their execution. The sensational atmosphere with which a noted murderer is surrounded as soon as he is arrested, is bad enough. The jailer and the chaplain and the wardens and his lawyer, and sometimes his father and mother and wife and sisters and brothers, seem to join in trying to "make capital," to use a slang phrase, out of his situation. To be connected with anybody so much talked of, to know more about him than others, and be able to tell people things about him which they wish to hear, seem to constitute temptations to folly and indecency which a lamentably large portion of the community is wholly unable to resist. In Guiteau's case we have had more of it than in any other, but we have a sickening amount of it in that of every murderer of note. The prisoner is at once made a show of, and every one who can claim the slightest connection with him tries to share in the business of exhibiting him, and making him as attractive a novelty as possible. There is hardly a sheriff or jailer in the country who seems to think that he has any duty before or during the trial except to prevent his escape, or that the custody of him imposes any obligation to society and the law in the matter of decency and propriety. We are constantly denouncing, in the pulpit and in the press, the flashy, cheap literature of crime which is offered to our boys, and especially poor boys. The main objection to this literature is that it surrounds robbers and cutthroats with a halo of romance, or, in other words, makes heroes of them, converts them into persons whom the public seems to admire and be curious about, and by imitating whom a young man can achieve fame, or, what seems to a great many people the same thing, escape from the obscurity in which the great bulk of mankind are condemned to live. There is, however, hardly a prominent murderer in the United States who is not, from the moment he passes into the custody of the officers of the law, made, or allowed, to exercise the same corrupting influence on the juvenile imagination. The moral and social degradation of the man is covered over, and indeed one may say draped, by making him an object of deep interest, who receives numerous visitors and large numbers of presents, has an extensive correspondence, like a great merchant or statesman, and is pestered for his autograph as if he were one of the world's benefactors, who had in field or forum raised men's ideas of the possibilities of their race.

Prisoners before trial ought undoubtedly, under our legal theory of their condition, to be treated with all possible consideration. They ought not to be subjected to more inconvenience or discomfort than necessarily accompanies confinement in a jail; but no civilized community should allow its prisons to be converted into show places, in which persons accused of grave crimes can posture as popular heroes. Accusation of crime, of course, brings notoriety with it, but our prison regulations should be such that the prisoner should not be able to increase it by his communications with the outer world. The way Guiteau was allowed to "carry on" in jail and in the court-room during his trial, feeding the passion which had led him into his offence—the jailers, the police, the judges, the ministers, the law officers of the Government all conniving at it—was a great disgrace to our administration of criminal justice. We do not here refer to his brawling in court, which was doubtless part of his game, and difficult if not impossible to prevent; but such gratifications of his vanity as his passing hours in the court-room, under the judge's eye, writing autographs, which were actually distributed by a policeman, were scandalous in the extreme.

We were in hopes that the public disgust excited by his trial would have spared us the repetition of the same kind of scandal at his execution. But here again we have fallen victims to the spectacular theory of criminal justice held by jailers and chaplains. To many sheriffs and wardens the execution of a murderer seems to be simply the climax of a melodrama. The daily exhibitions of the prisoner, or the daily reports to the press about his sayings and doings, his feeding and drinking, his appetite, his clothes, his sneezing and snorting, his prayers and speculations, are apparently only intended to lead up to the grand final tableau on the gallows, in which the warden and the sheriff and the chaplain play as conspicuous a part as the criminal, but a much more comfortable one. Invitations for the ghastly show are issued with more gusto and care, and more sense of favor conferred, than for a banquet to the hero of a hundred fights; and the furious demand for them of course heightens the officer's sense of the social glory of the occasion. We have seen an invitation addressed by a Colorado sheriff to a gentleman and his wife, requesting "the pleasure of their company at the execution of" Bill Sykes. The general result is that a great part of the good of having executions "private" is lost. In fact, our private executions are not private. The jail is usually as full of spectators as it can hold, and they are spectators from curiosity, and not, what they ought to be, simply witnesses of the final execution of the law. Instead of numbering a dozen or two, they number hundreds. Instead of being part of the administration of justice, they are an audience torn by the same passion which filled the amphitheatre at Rome. Such an execution as took place at Washington on Friday is undoubtedly a great improvement on the old plan, still adhered to in many parts of the South and West, of hanging a criminal in the middle of a field before a large and tumultuous mob; but it is not the kind of execution which a great nation should permit at the seat of government in a modern jail.

The license given prisoners as to their talk on the scaffold is also rather a piece of the show than a piece of humanity. The thoughts of a poor wretch in this condition, after months of confinement and anxiety, and when face to face with what he most fears on earth, about either life or death or judgment, are of course worthless. They are nearly always incoherent maundering which it is an offence against humanity to allow him to utter in the presence of a curious crowd. The one thing he has a right to utter, and should be permitted to utter, is a confession or denial of his guilt. The exhibition of Friday, in which Guiteau was suffered to conduct a sort of religious service, consisting of the reading of a chapter from the Bible, a blasphemous and ruffianly and incoherent prayer, and a ridiculous poem, was disgraceful, not simply to our administration of justice, but to our civilization. Neither the Reverend Mr. Hicks nor the Warden can excuse his share in the transaction by pleading that he was taken by surprise. They knew what the criminal was going to do. His prayer was written out, and the clergyman actually held the paper and the Bible for him to read. A more deliberate indecency and profanation has not been committed in our day, and it is greatly to be regretted that those who were responsible for such a shameful scene cannot be punished for it as they deserve. If the Reverend Mr. Hicks is accountable to any ecclesiastical tribunal, it certainly ought to discipline him.

THE PROPOSED REMEDY FOR THE STRIKES.

The Attorney-General on Friday obtained from Judge Donohue an order, returnable next Friday, requiring the Central and Erie Railroads to show cause why a peremptory mandamus should not issue compelling them to exercise their franchise and handle and transport freight. The facts on which the order is based are that there has been for days a large accumulation of freight in the city, which is ready for the railroads, but which the railroads do not take. It will be at once seen that the application for a mandamus is of great importance to every railroad in the country, and to the entire business community. Strikes like that of the freight-handlers have occurred before, though not on so large a scale, and are likely to occur again with perhaps increasing frequency, as the habit of combination against employers grows.

Of the legal responsibility of the railroads to the shippers for any delay caused by the strike itself, there is not, under the decisions of the courts in this State, the slightest shadow of a doubt; and no one is probably better aware of it than the managers of the Erie Railroad, which several years since became involved in a strike closely resembling, except in magnitude, that now going on. In that instance the trouble was caused by a combination of engineers; nine-tenths of the engineers on the railroad stopped work, and of course brought its operations to a standstill. A shipper named Blackstock sued the company in the Superior Court for damages caused by the delay; the company attempted to defend the suit on the ground that the delay was produced by a cause absolutely beyond their control; that no exertion of any sort by them could have prevented it, and that, consequently, they ought not to be held liable. The Superior Court, however, which at that time was one of the ablest in the country, after a very elaborate examination of the law and facts, reached the conclusion that

the facts constituted no excuse. The late Judge Woodruff, who wrote the opinion, while admitting that the case might be one of great hardship to the railroad, held that its duty to do its work as a common carrier was imperative; that in doing this it took all the risks arising from the employment of servants and agents, and that among these was that of a strike among them; that the neglect or failure of the engineers to run the trains was in law the neglect and failure of the railroad; that the old common-law principle that nothing would excuse a carrier but "acts of God" (*i. e.*, extraordinary convulsions of nature) and the public enemy, was still the law of this State, and that our system of jurisprudence gave no ground for the suggestion that the *force majeure* of modern European law, the old *vis major* of the Civilians, would relieve the carrier of his liability The soundness of this decision, so far as we know, has never been questioned, and the matter has been generally regarded among lawyers as definitively settled ever since the Blackstock case.

But it is equally well settled all over the country, and nowhere better than by the decisions of the Court of Appeals of this State, that the carrier may limit the stringent liability imposed upon him by the law by means of modifications of the bill of lading or invoice, which constitutes the actual contract upon which all goods are transported by railroads. These decisions have, in fact, gone so far as to hold that the carrier may exempt himself by this contract from the consequences of his own (including his employees') negligence. Considering what a bill of lading is, it must be admitted that the mercantile community have good reason to criticise this sort of exemption. Though in law a contract between the shipper and the company, it is, in fact, little more than a receipt for the goods, and a promise to deliver them to the consignee, accompanied by a notice of certain terms and restrictions imposed by the company upon its own liability. It is obvious that such contracts should be watched by the courts with extreme vigilance, as the shipper in nine cases out of ten has to take the bill which the company offers. Anybody who is not accustomed to shipping goods may get a vivid idea, in a small way, of the position in which the shipper finds himself by considering his position, on arriving in New York or any other large city, with regard to baggage. He is practically compelled, if he wishes it to be carried to his home, to give it to an express company (also a common carrier), under the terms and stipulations of an express receipt (also a bill of lading) full of limitations and restrictions, from which he has no means of dissenting. A customer dealing with a railroad under such circumstances would never voluntarily accept a bill of lading exempting the road from the consequences of its own negligence. He only does it from dread of the danger of delay and loss if he does not take whatever bill the company gives him. It is much to be regretted, therefore, that the Court of Appeals of this State should have ever carried the license of exemptions in bills of lading to the point of permitting such a restriction. It has, however, been done, and the present determined attitude of the railroads is no doubt in part due to the fact that the law of bills of lading is so much in their favor.

Relying on these decisions, the Erie and Central Railroads have made the attempt to rid themselves of all liabilities caused by the freight-handlers' strike, by putting a "paster" on their bills of lading in the following form: "This company receives this property only upon express condition that it shall not be liable for delays, loss, or damage thereto, caused by or resulting from strikes, acts of violence, threats, or intimidations." Now, obviously, if this restriction were once recognized as valid by the courts, it would relieve the companies entirely of the effect of the principle laid down in the Blackstock case, and rid them of all responsibility for the effects of any such combination of employees as is now going on. It would enable them to shift upon the mercantile community all the losses arising from any dispute between themselves and the servants for whom, by the acceptance of their charter, they make themselves responsible. Whether the courts would uphold it is doubtful, but the question of its validity could not be determined except after long and expensive litigation, and meanwhile shippers would practically be compelled to waive their rights in order to get their goods transported at all.

It is in great measure to get the community out of this awkward dilemma that the application for a mandamus has been decided upon. It is the first time, we believe, in the history of railroads, at least in this State, that such an application has been made to compel a carrier to receive and forward freight. The general jurisdiction of the courts to compel corporations to perform their charter duties has long been recognized, though hitherto the application has been generally made for objects connected with the location or construction of the road rather than with its operation. In Connecticut, however, the Hartford and New Haven Railroad was compelled by a mandamus of the Supreme Court to transport passengers, and the principle as to freight and passengers is of course the same. The great advantage of the remedy by mandamus is that it is a summary process, and that the order of the court is enforceable by contempt proceedings. The great extent to which the exemption of carriers from their common-law liabilities as insurers of goods has been carried by the courts of this State makes the application of the Attorney-General one of unusual interest, both in its mercantile and legal aspects. The companies may of course undertake to meet the application by insisting that they are ready to receive and transport freight upon bills of lading containing restrictions as to strikes; but no court has ever held that such restrictions can be imposed upon the shipper against his will; and, if he refused the bill, the Supreme Court would practically have to decide in mandamus proceedings whether it would compel the companies to take freight without any restrictions of any kind. The theory of law being that the bill is a voluntary contract, and the restrictions all matters of agreement, it is hard to see how, admitting the right to mandamus, the court would have any alternative but to compel the company to transport as a common carrier, with all the liabilities of an insurer. It cannot make a bill of lading of its own, or determine what are reasonable restrictions to be inserted in it, if the shipper insists that he will submit to none at all. In view of all this, it is highly probable that the railroads will find the right of mandamus a remedy which will do much to restore the shipper to the position of advantage of which the decisions of our courts as to bills of lading have in great measure deprived him.

THE CHEERFULNESS OF THE MONO-METALLISTS.

The negotiations for the establishment of universal bi-metallism have ended in a somewhat mysterious manner, for we believe the Conference was adjourned to the 10th or 12th of April last, and neither met on that day nor was adjourned to any other. In fact, in the absence of a meeting, nobody had any authority to adjourn it. There is no committee or other permanent organization to look after procedure. Consequently, if nobody came to the Conference on the appointed day, it, *ipso facto*, disappeared. And this, we think, is what happened. There was on the appointed day nobody to confer, and, therefore, there was no Conference, and no further adjournment. The movement for an international agreement is, therefore, not simply suspended: it has, for the present at least, ceased to exist. Some of its promoters maintain, however, we suppose on the principle that the darkest hour is just before the dawn, that the bi-metallic cause never looked more hopeful than at this very moment. What they base this assertion on, however, they do not reveal, except by pointing to some new convert to their theory among prominent business men in some monometallic country.

An occasional conversion of a merchant or banker fond of writing about finance—and the converts nearly always belong to this class—will never carry the day for them. Nothing will carry the day for them, and impose on staid and conservative countries like England a financial revolution so serious as a change in the standard, except actual experience of the difficulties and dangers, which the bi-metallists are constantly predicting, of a reliance on one metal. We shall not see a triumph, or even an approach to a triumph, of the bi-metallic gospel until these predictions are transformed into facts. Foremost among these predictions is that of a general scarcity of gold, involving a fierce struggle for it between the various European countries, with accompanying contraction and fall in prices. If this could now be witnessed somewhere, it would do more for the bi-metallists than any number of pamphlets, or conferences, or conversions. The great difficulty with which they have to contend at this moment is that it cannot be witnessed anywhere, and that the signs of its near approach are no more marked than they were three years ago. In fact, in some countries, whatever alarm there was on the subject is diminishing. For instance, M. Leroy-Beaulieu, in the *Économiste Français* of June 17, after making a little fun of the bi-metallic prophecy that if silver were no

universally remonetized by international agreement, "Humanity, and, above all, the nations of Western Europe, would be short of money," points out that while the Bank of France held only 564,000,000 francs in gold at the end of 1880, it held at the end of 1881 655,000,000, and on the 8th of June, 1882, 944,000,000. In other words, its reserve of gold has been steadily growing for a year and a half, while the bi-metallists were busiest in firing their alarm-guns. Moreover, along with this, the Bank's stock of silver has been diminishing. It was 1,222,000,000 at the end of 1880; it was only 1,157,000,000 on the 8th of June last.

It is true that this rise in the French reserve of gold has been accompanied by a decline in the English reserve, within the same period, of about six million dollars. In other words, the gold which the United States has carried off from Europe in payment for the magnificent crops of 1880, and has been during the past year in part returning, has been going mainly to France through London. But there is nothing very alarming for England in this. That the European supply from American sources will fall off seriously during the coming year, even if our crops are good and theirs bad, M. Leroy-Beaulieu does not think likely, because the American gold product will contribute to the currency, after a fair allowance for industrial purposes, about $28,000,000 annually; and then there is, in addition to this, the Australian and New Zealand product, to say nothing of that of the Ural and Indian mines. Whether these estimates are over-sanguine or not, it is quite clear that the European monometallists are not seriously alarmed, are gaining courage steadily, and see less reason now than they saw two years ago for trying the bi-metallic experiment. Until they are seriously frightened the experiment has no chance of being tried.

LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS — FOREFATHERS' DAY.

At the annual meeting of the Pilgrim Society, held at Plymouth, Mass., on the 29th of May, the question of the anniversary of the landing was brought up for discussion, and it was voted,

"That while we recognize the historical fact that the passengers on the shallop of the *Mayflower* landed on Plymouth Rock on the 11th of December, 1620, and that the 21st of the new style corresponds to the day of the landing, yet, in view of the fact that the 22d has been hallowed by an observance during a period of over one hundred years, and consecrated by the words of Winslow, Webster, Everett, Adams, Seward, and other eminent orators of our land, it is hereby resolved that hereafter the 22d of December be observed by the Pilgrim Society as the Anniversary of the Landing."

Just when the "anniversary of the landing" at Plymouth was first observed, in a social way, by the first settlers and their descendants, is not likely ever to be made certain. That our "pious ancestors" met together from time to time and "talked it over," is probable enough; but in that unhappy age, when men lived without newspapers, the bright things they said were not preserved for our guidance. We find authority for saying that in 1720 "the famous anniversary of our forefathers' landing on the rock . . . was remembered by their descendants"; and Mr. Winchell ('Historical Sketch of the First Baptist Church in Boston') states that Rev. Elisha Callendar is known to have "published a century sermon, in the year 1720, commemorative of the landing of our forefathers at Plymouth, which has furnished many important items for recent historians." The first public celebration of the day at Plymouth was held on the 22d of December, 1769, and thenceforward the day has been kept in memory there by ceremonies in which the best orators of the country have taken part. The event to be commemorated was the landing of the Leyden Pilgrims—men, women, and children—on Plymouth Rock. It was the landing from the *Mayflower*. And tradition unhesitatingly fixes the date of the landing as December 22, 1620—a day, to repeat the words of the Pilgrim Society, "which has been hallowed by an observance during a period of over one hundred years"; and ever as the anniversary comes round, the "sons of the Pilgrims" in New England, and in places near and distant, are drawn together for rehearsal of the scenes of the sufferings and triumphs of their ancestors.

About thirty years ago, however, the Pilgrim Society of Plymouth appointed a committee "to consider the expediency of celebrating in future the landing of the Pilgrims on the 21st day of December, instead of the 22d," and the committee, "having duly considered the subject," submitted as part of their report: "That the happy Monday on which our fathers came, for the first time, on shore at Plymouth from the shallop . . . is the very day that all of us desire to honor as the birthday of Christian freedom and true civilization in New England." The rest of the report, which fills ten octavo pages, is an argument to prove that that "happy Monday," the 11th of December, old style, is the 21st of December, new style. As if any one had ever doubted the fact! But, having changed the day, it was necessary to find an incident befitting the change, and amid the smoke and confusion of the "change of style" the shallop was brought in to take the place of the *Mayflower*.

Now, with all proper respect for the "shallop," we can find nothing remarkable in the landing of the 11th of December. It was an affair of small significance, and of no significance whatever except as it had connection with the subsequent event of the landing from the *Mayflower*. The boat was manned by the ship's seamen and directed by the ship's officers, and the "lusty seaman which steered" saved it from being cast away. On this, the third exploring expedition of the shallop, the immigrant "adventurers" outnumbered the ship's men by only two or three, and Robert Coppin, one of the officers, was no stranger to Plymouth harbor, having visited it on a previous voyage. The boat set out from Cape harbor on the 6th, and on the evening of the 8th landed on an island in Plymouth harbor—an island which has been named Clark's, in honor, so says tradition, of one of the *Mayflower's* mates who "first stepped on shore there." The party remained on that island three nights and two days, and until the 11th, when they "sounded the harbor," "marched into the land" a short distance, and then returned to the ship in Cape Cod harbor. And this is the whole of *that* landing, Mr. Drake ('Nooks and Corners of the New England Coast,' p. 290) says "there are no precise reasons for saying that the exploring party landed anywhere within the limits of the present town of Plymouth, nor any tradition of its making the rock a stepping point"; and Mr. S. H. Gay (*Atlantic Monthly*, November, 1881) finds that "one will hardly escape the conclusion that the harbor they sounded was the harbor all about them surrounding Clark's Island; that the land they 'marched into' was the nearest main land right opposite, straight across the harbor—now Duxbury and Kingston." But whether at Duxbury or at Plymouth, this landing from the shallop on the 11th is of little consequence, because, as we hold, the real Landing of the Pilgrims was quite a different matter. On December 16 the *Mayflower* arrived in the "desired harbor," and it is from the disembarkation that took place some days afterward that Forefathers' Day received its hallowed name. Whether that disembarkation was made in one day, or occupied several days, is not so material. It is the *idea* of a general landing of men, women, and children that has made any one day remarkable; and the stream of literature sets in one plain direction—to the "consecration" of the landing of the pilgrims from the *Mayflower* on the 22d of December, 1620. The fine expressions of the eloquent speakers who have from year to year essayed to illuminate Forefathers' Day, are in no way applicable to the landing from the shallop on the 11th of December. These orators either entirely overlooked the landing of the "happy Monday," or else treated it as an affair of small moment. A pilgrim oration without the *Mayflower*, without the men, women, and children landing on the "ice-clad rock of Plymouth," would as well serve for Independence Day as for Forefathers' Day.

In a sermon by the Rev. Chandler Robbins, preached at Plymouth, December 22, 1793, "being the anniversary of the landing of our ancestors at that place in 1620," we find a clear statement of the historical events which form the groundwork of Forefathers' Day. Mr. Robbins was the minister of a church in Plymouth, his settlement having taken place ten years before the Old Colony Club held its first celebration of the anniversary of the landing. He was versed in general and local history, and appears to have been the projector of the public anniversary addresses at Plymouth. In this sermon Mr. Robbins relates the adventures of the party in the shallop—the landings on Clark's Island and on the main, and the return to the ship at the Cape—and then he continues: "Upon which the ship sails for this harbor, where our worthy and PIOUS ANCESTORS, in this month of December, and on this day of the month, *as our history dates it*, just 173 years ago, here, on this very spot which we now inhabit, began their settlement." As the sermon was "published at the request of those who heard it," we may infer that the speaker and his hearers were of one mind on the historical statements. As showing Mr. Robbins's view of the day and the event that were "observed," his sermon is conclusive. It was the 22d of December, old style, and his words, "as our history dates it," make it unquestionable that there had been no change of date for anniversary purposes conformable to the new style. And it was the landing from the ship, not the landing from the shallop, that pointed his panegyric.

The Hon. Peleg Sprague commenced his address before the Pilgrim Society, December 22, 1835, with these words: "Two hundred and fifteen years ago, this day, a small company of distressed emigrants, consisting of one hundred and one men, women, and children landed on this ice-clad, desolate, and savage shore." Mr. Sprague was born and reared in Duxbury, and must be supposed to have been familiar with all the traditions of the landing; yet he made no reference to the shallop, nor to any landing on the 11th of December. The Rev. Gardiner Spring, in his "Tribute to New England," a sermon delivered before the New England Society of New York, on the 22d of December, 1820, has not a single word for the shallop, but says that the Pilgrims "about the middle of December arrived opposite the town of Plymouth, and on the 22d of the same month landed on the memorable rock so famed in the history of the Pilgrims of New

England." And Dr. Leonard Bacon ('Historical Discourses,' p. 10) says: "On the 22d of December, 1620, one hundred of the Leyden pilgrims, including men, women, and little children, landed from the *Mayflower* on the rock of Plymouth." In Mr. Joseph Croswell's "historical drama," printed in 1802, and entitled "A New World Planted, or the adventures of the Forefathers of New England, who landed in Plymouth, December 22, 1620," the opening scene "represents Plymouth shore, the ship at anchor within the beach, the boat at the rock on which the passengers land."

In 1830 Mr. Francis Baylies published 'An Historical Memoir of the Colony of New Plymouth,' a work, as the author tells us in his preface, "which is the first attempt to embody a connected history of the most ancient colony of New England." Mr. Baylies was born within the limits of Plymouth colony, and was well acquainted with its written and traditional history. His account of the ever-memorable landing of the Pilgrims fixes in print the general—we might with propriety say the universal—sentiment of that event. He makes suitable mention of the shallop expedition—the landing on the shores of Plymouth Harbor, December 8–11; the return to the Cape; the arrival of the *Mayflower* in Plymouth Harbor December 16; the careful examination of the country on the 18th, 19th, and 20th, with the purpose of selecting a place for settlement, and then goes on to say:

"On the 22d the company left the vessel and landed on a rock near the shore, which now bears a consecrated character, to which pilgrimages are made, and to which the posterity of the pilgrims delight to throng, to call up the sublime associations with which its history is connected, and to view the spot which received their forefathers. The honor of having first placed the foot on this immortal rock has been pertinaciously claimed for John Alden and Mary Chilton."

Mr. Savage, writing of John Alden ('Genealogical Dictionary,' vol. i., p. 23), says: "Idly would tradition magnify his merit as the first to jump upon the rock at Plymouth Landing, when he was not of the party in the shallop that discovered the harbor, but continued on board ship at Cape Cod." And, says the same writer (p. 379), Mary Chilton "has by vain tradition been made the first to step on Plymouth Rock, as that honor is also assigned to John Alden, when we know it is not due to either." Now, as the tradition never connected John Alden nor Mary Chilton with the party in the shallop on the 11th of December, but does connect them with the landing from the *Mayflower* on the 22d of December, Mr. Savage, when saying "we know" the honor of first stepping on the rock "is not due to either," is altogether too positive. "We know" nothing at all about it. The tradition is a very old one, and a very important one, adding convincing evidence that the "landing on Plymouth Rock" on the day now known as Forefathers' Day was not made by the exploring party of the shallop on the 11th of December, and that it was made some days later by the whole body of pilgrims from the *Mayflower*.

In the works from which we have quoted, the dates touching the grand event are all put down in the old style of reckoning, just as they had from the first been observed by careful historians. We might multiply our quotations by the score, and to the like purport, for in history, oration, sermon, song, drama, painting, and print it is always the landing from the *Mayflower*, and never the landing from the shallop—always the 22d, and never the 11th of December, that is made to carry the name of Forefathers' Day. The Pilgrim Society returns to its old-time date because that day has been "consecrated by the words of Winslow, Webster, Everett, Adams, Seward, and other eminent orators of the land"; and it might have given another reason—to wit, "because it is the *true Forefathers' Day.*" It is quite improbable that the *Mayflower* can ever be eclipsed by the "shallop."

THE UNIVERSITY RACE.

New London, Conn., June 30, 1882.

It was a fortunate thing for the spectators of this year's University boat-race that the starting hour was fixed at 10:30 A. M. By this arrangement the chances of a postponement were greatly diminished. Experience has taught the college oarsmen that when the state of the tide will permit it, the morning hours are a far better time for the race than those of the afternoon. The Thames, which affords at New London an uninterrupted stretch of over four miles, is exposed at this point to southerly breezes that are likely to freshen the water too much during the afternoon to admit of driving shells over it at a racing pace. To-day the morning breeze from the north, blowing down the course with the tide, gave only a delightful freshness to the air, and hardly disturbed the even surface of the river. No better day could have been selected, and no race could have been better provided for in those preliminaries which are so essential to the comfort of spectators and crews alike. To be sure, New London has advantages which no other course yet tried by the universities can offer. But natural advantages count for little unless the managers of a boat-race know their business, and are determined to carry out their programme upon schedule time, and without those wearisome delays and vexatious postponements which made the college regatta during the Saratoga epoch something to be remembered as a pilgrimage of dreariness and dust.

With the introduction of eight-oared boats another sensible custom of the English universities was adopted—that, namely, of allowing each college to select the referee on alternate years, with the general understanding that each should nominate, if possible, the same person when its turn came round. Accordingly Prof. Wheeler, of Yale, and Prof. Agassiz, of Harvard, have alternately acted as referees since 1876, and the result has been that the college crews have had the satisfaction of knowing that the final conduct of the race lay in the hands of an experienced gentleman, to whose ultimate decision any question in dispute might with perfect confidence be submitted. The great importance and advantage of such an understanding was well illustrated to-day. In settling the final arrangements at the meeting of the "coaches" of the two crews last night, a serious question arose as to the manner in which the two boats should be lined at starting. The Yale shell, owing to the adoption of the new Davis rigging, is built some eight or ten feet longer than that of Harvard, the latter being of the ordinary length. This difference lay in the open space in which the seats and stretchers are placed: in the Yale craft the seats were not equidistant, but so arranged that each couple was detached, and the eight men virtually rowed in four pairs—a distribution which the new style of rigging requires. It was urged by Harvard that if the customary rule were enfored of "starting by the stern and finishing by the bow"—that is, sending the crews off with their rudder-posts even, and declaring the race in favor of the crew whose bow first crossed the winning line—the New Haven men would be given a lead at the very start of just so many feet as the length of their boat exceeded that of Harvard's. The point—which would have furnished material for a week's acrimonious discussion under a régime that was full of such unsatisfactory questions as "the diagonal-line dispute" of 1873 and "the foul dispute" of 1874—was submitted without much debate to Professor Wheeler, who announced as the crews took their stations his decision to start them in the usual way with even sterns, but to *finish* by the stern, too; a conclusion which was as fair an expedient as any suggested, and which left Harvard with only the moral disadvantage of feeling that at least two men in the Yale boat were so seated as to be ahead of Harvard's bow at the start.

It was no fault of either crew that the race was not begun promptly at half-past ten. The Yale men left their boat-house in good season and pulled over to the starting point. Harvard followed in ten minutes, delaying for the coming of the observation train, which had not yet backed up to the start. When the train came in sight the Cambridge men put off from their float, and, drawing up to the line, the two eights lay waiting for the word. Ten of the sixteen men who rowed to-day pulled in the race of 1881—five "veterans" in each boat. Twice had the Yale five, in 1880 and 1881, seen the crimson handkerchiefs behind them when they crossed the winning line. A year of growth and practice had done more for Harvard than for Yale. Although the New Haven men looked heavier and stronger than their rivals, there was no such striking contrast as appeared in their favor a year ago. The referee's boat was somewhat unwieldy in shallow water, and had to steam up above the point so as to turn. As her nose swung round and she drifted down stream, Prof. Wheeler appeared at the bow, rifle in hand. But whether he sent the crews off by a shot or by the word, no one seems to know. At all events, no sound reached the press boat; but a splash in the water, a confused twinkling of oar-blades, and a shout from the excursion train showed us that the race had begun.

So far as we could see, the crews took the water together. Yale dashed off at forty-nine or fifty strokes to the minute. Their "swing" was so short that the men seemed only to bob forward and back with astonishing rapidity. Their stroke was much more irregular, in appearance at least, than that with which they rowed last year; and even then, at a rate of three or four strokes to the minute more than Harvard, they paid little attention to uniformity of swing. But this year they used their backs even less and their arms much more, while they gave, after a long slide, the same powerful kick to their stretchers which carried them to victory in 1881. It is by no means certain that this year's stroke is so uneven as it looks, for it must be remembered that the odd way in which the men are grouped in pairs has much to do with destroying the appearance of uniformity in their movements. One thing was noticeably good in their "form"—they caught the water in perfect unison, and used their legs with tremendous power. Curtis, the Harvard stroke, set his men the (for them) very fast pace of 41 to the minute, as "caught" by two watches at my side; and by so doing showed his generalship, for Yale, instead of opening the commanding lead which even Harvard's most confident backers admitted she was likely to take at the start, failed to gain more of an advantage than a bare half or three-quarters of a length. After the first minute Harvard dropped to 37, with Yale slightly drawing away at 44. The "styles" of the two crews showed an even more radical difference than the contrast of a year ago, with the additional divergence on Yale's side, for the Harvard men pulled the familiar Bancroft stroke—a perfected adaptation of the method brought over from England by Cook, of Yale, in 1873. They showed

the easy recover, the quick shoot of the arms and the strong, even "catch" that marked their rowing in 1881, but with this great improvement, that they used their slides with more effect, and by not swinging back so far as formerly avoided the exhausting strain at the beginning of the recover, and did not bury the nose of their boat—two faults which marred their rowing in the previous race.

At the half-mile Yale's rapid stroke had put her nearly one of her own long lengths ahead, though she was not able to show clear water between the boats, for Harvard clung to her with astonishing tenacity. During the remainder of the first mile the steady stroke of the men from Cambridge began to tell, and Harvard's bow crept steadily up along Yale's starboard side. At the mile flag the two crews seemed to be on even terms, with Harvard rowing at 35 or 36 and Yale at 45. The time, as unofficially taken, was 5 min. 8 sec. Here Yale began to splash, and it looked as though the quick, sharp stroke was beginning to lag, while Harvard, steering an admirably straight course, and rowing at a steady, even swing of 35, drew rapidly away. Half a mile further on Plessner, the Yale coxswain, with the intention, as it afterward appeared, of getting the benefit of the current, carried his boat over toward the eastern shore, while Sanger steered straight along the line of the buoy flags, and Harvard passed the two-mile post in 10 min. 20 sec., with a long lead of over a length clear water. Plessner had made a fatal error. On the left bank grew the long eel-grass, which seriously retarded his crew, and must have lost them a good length or more, for on entering the last mile Harvard led by a distance variously estimated at from two and a half to four lengths clear. At the three-mile buoy Harvard still pulled at 35, Yale pumping away at ten strokes per minute more, with not a man save Folsom pulling his oar clear through.

As the boats entered the last half-mile the race seemed an easy victory for Harvard. But suddenly Folsom quickened his already rapid pace; his men answered with wonderful pluck, and fairly rushed up on the leaders, rowing the last 300 yards at 50 strokes to the minute. Curtis hardly spurted, adding but a single stroke to his pace, which he quickened to 37. The Yale men had won back all the lost ground that they could gain, and Harvard, with only a half or three-quarters of a length of open water between her stern and Yale's bow, crossed the line the winner of the race and the "rubber" in the seventh contest of this character between the two universities—time, 20 min. 47½ sec.

No two crews ever faced each other with such opposing styles. Each rowed in its own way powerfully and well. The stroke which Mr. Curtis set his men was followed with admirable precision, and although throughout the race a tendency to roll was noticeable in Mumford (the bow, and substitute put in Cabot's place, who retired on account of illness only the day before), yet the manner in which he caught the swing and took the water with the rest of the crew, and the strength he showed at his work, went far to neutralize the disadvantages of a change in men at so late a moment. The Yale crew rowed what at least appeared to be a most distressing stroke, with a strength and vigor that astonished even those who expected much from a crew that were called "giants" a year ago. Their brave dash in the last half-mile, and the pluck they showed in responding to Folsom's rally when he drove their pace up to 50 strokes per minute at the finish, was something unprecedented in a beaten crew. But the best Yale oars of past years unite in saying that only the superior strength of their men allowed them to keep up as they did a stroke which their defeat at the hands of a younger, lighter, and less experienced crew has proved to be a failure. Indeed, Mr. Cook went so far as to say that so long as Yale had to be beaten, it was a pity Harvard had not put ten lengths between them at the finish, for in that event the fallacy of the professional stroke would have been established beyond cavil. The result of to-day's race would seem to indicate the truth of the dogma that there is but one correct way of rowing, and that perhaps, after all, the amateur who has spent several years in studying and practising the art of rowing an eight-oared boat is a better coach than the professional who has pulled possibly half a dozen times in an eight-oared crew and never in an eight-oared race. G. W. G.

VICTOR HUGO'S TORQUEMADA.

PARIS, June 12, 1882.

"TORQUEMADA" has been entitled "a drama" by Victor Hugo, and it was perhaps originally written for the stage, but in its present form it could not be brought before the public. "Torquemada" was probably a mere sketch; it was the skeleton of a drama, forgotten among the scraps of the great poet. He has chosen, after many years, to give life to it. I think that I can recognize in it the Victor Hugo of the past, the scenes which were invented many years ago; in fact, the first manner—the manner of "Hernani," of "Ruy Blas." This unfinished drama has been, so to speak, drowned in an ocean of hexameters; the drama has been lost in a sort of lyric sea. Here and there a word, an expression, an attitude, gives one a shudder. You feel moved for a moment; a moment afterward the emotion is gone, the Victor Hugo of the second manner begins to unroll his verses, and you feel as if you were on the seashore: the monotonous waves break at your feet in solemn succession. The words are lost in the thoughts, the thoughts are lost in the words. The French language becomes something that resembles no language: it rolls like a torrent; it whispers or howls like the wind; it moans, it floats, it rises, it sinks; it becomes undefined, unlimited, inorganic. It is a strange sensation. I fancy that the English public does not find it as singular as the French themselves. Some English poets have a certain likeness to the second manner of Victor Hugo; but most French poets have a precision, a dryness, if you like, which contrasts with the vagueness of the "Légende des Siècles" and of "Torquemada."

Victor Hugo has always made rehabilitations in his dramas and in his novels. He is the advocate of all the miserable sinners of mankind. He has rehabilitated the servant in "Ruy Blas," the brigand in "Hernani," the prostitute in "Marion Delorme," the convict in 'Les Misérables,' the monster in 'Notre Dame de Paris'; in "Torquemada" he rehabilitates the inquisitor. This rehabilitation of the "Holy Office" comes at a singular moment, when the Catholic Church is suffering a sort of persecution; when it is deprived of the right of education; when the crucifix is proscribed in all the public schools and all the edifices belonging to the state. I do not believe, however, that the appearance of "Torquemada" will have any influence on the great struggle which is going on between Christianity and irreligion.

"Torquemada" has a prologue entitled "In Pace." We are in Catalonia, in the cemetery of an old convent of the Augustines. A tomb has been prepared—a great vault, which is still empty. The wall of the cemetery is falling in ruins; the garden is in its savage state, flowers grow in disorder round the crosses of the tombs. The prior is walking alone. He compares the Church to his convent in ruins. Kings are becoming infidels; the old faith is gone. A man comes in through the broken wall, followed by an armed troop; he is the King of Spain. He makes himself known to the prior. With him are the King's confidant and minister, the Marquis of Fuentes, and the King's fool, Gucho. Ferdinand, the King, delivers a monologue on the tedium of royalty. He is young, full of passion; he is a man; he escapes at times from his prison:

"Et l'homme qui bouillone en moi, flamme et limon,
Se venge d'être spectre en devenant démon."

The King asks for whom the "in pace" is prepared, and the prior shows him a monk who walks alone among the tombs—Torquemada, a fanatic, who complains of the Pope and his leniency toward sinners and heretics. He must be suppressed; the Church does not like to shed blood—Torquemada is to be buried alive. The King sees also in the garden a young man—almost a boy—and a young girl, who have been sent to the convent. The boy is a prince, the infant Sancho of Salinas; she is the infanta Rosa of Orthez. One is the heir of Orthez, the other of Burgos. They are secretly educated in this deserted convent. Sancho is the cousin of the King, but ignorant of the secret of his birth. He is in love with Rosa. They play among the flowers and the butterflies in the gardens of the convent. Meanwhile Torquemada arrives, and he, too, soliloquizes. He sees all mankind corrupt, all men on the point of sinking into hell. Where is the remedy? The eternal fire can only be opposed by a temporary fire; men must be burnt on earth, so as not to be burnt through the consummation of ages. As the baptismal water has saved them once, fire can save them a second time.

"L'enfer d'une heure annule un bûcher éternel,
Le péché brûle avec le vil haillon charnel;
Et l'âme sort, splendide et pure, de la flamme,
Car l'eau lave le corps, mais le feu lave l'âme.
. . . . . .
Quel père hésiterait? Quelle mère, voyant
Entre le bûcher saint et l'enfer effrayant
Rendre son pauvre enfant, refuserait l'échange
Qui supprime un démon et qui refait un ange?"

This theory of the *auto-da-fé* is not admitted by the Bishop of the Seu-de-Urgel, and the monk Torquemada is led to the "in pace." The monks throw him in the open vault, and put a stone over him. The two young lovers who wander in the garden return in time to save him; they hear the moans of Torquemada. Don Sancho succeeds in tearing an iron cross from a tomb; he uses it as a lever; he opens the tomb, and Torquemada comes out.

Don Sancho is the son of the Marquis of Fuentes, and the Marquis is obliged to keep this secret to himself. King Alfonso has intended to marry Don Sancho, and on the same day to have him killed, as he wants his inheritance. The Marquis is privy to the King's designs, and this gives occasion to a curious scene. The Marquis wishes to save the life of his son, but, as Alfonso is very suspicious, he finds no other way than to appear very inimical to Don Sancho. He presses the King to commit the murder, and the more he presses him the more the King becomes suspicious. He finally contents himself with putting Don Sancho and his bride into a convent. This incident forms the first act. The second act brings us to Italy, in the cell of a hermit, Francis of Paola. Torquemada arrives, and a conversation takes place between Francis of Paola, who represents charity and universal forgiveness, and Torquemada, who advocates repression and salvation by force. There are some very fine verses in this long poetical duet. The conversation is interrupted by a hunter, who represents mere epicureanism and materialism. He laughs at the sentimentality of Francis of Paola as well as at the fanaticism of Torquemada; he goes for immediate, sensual happiness,

and the conversation ends thus. Francis asks Torquemada,

"Qu'est-ce que ce bandit?"

Torquemada answers:

"Mon père, c'est le pape."

The third act takes us back to Spain, to Seville, to the Council room. The Great Rabbi comes before the Marquis of Fuentes, and offers an immense sum in gold to save the Jews condemned to be burned by the Holy Inquisition. The King arrives; he is impatient of the rule of Torquemada, who has become the true King of Spain. He wants gold, and so does his wife Isabella; but they dare not face Torquemada, and the great ceremony begins on the *quemadero*. The fires are lighted, burning pitch is thrown on the heads of the Jews, the women scream, Torquemada triumphs.

Ferdinand tries to console himself as well as he can. The Marquis of Fuentes brings Don Sancho and Doña Rosa into the private park of the King, his intention being to help them to run away from the kingdom. He thinks that the King is absent, and is only afraid of the Holy Office, which is very near. Torquemada has received a key of the private park from the hands of the King's fool, and when the two lovers are left alone, he appears; and as they had saved his life and taken him out of the "in pace," he comes to protect them against the King's evil designs. Here comes in the most extravagant part of the drama. He reminds Don Sancho of the scene in the cemetery, and asks him how he lifted the heavy stone on the tomb. Don Sancho tells him that he did it with an iron cross, torn from a tomb. This is a sacrilege, in the eyes of Torquemada. Don Sancho is damned: how can he save him? There is but one way left: he must be delivered to the Holy Office and burnt with his bride. Torquemada has no doubt, no hesitation; and this situation, absurd as it is, gives rise to a scene which resembles somewhat the last scene in "Hernani": two young people in love, singing together the most poetical songs of love, in each other's arms, forgetting the whole universe, and absorbed in each other; and, close by, death making ready and arriving. In "Hernani" the terrible signal is given by the sound of the horn, and the cruel Ruy Gomez de Silva arrives and reminds Hernani of his promise. In "Torquemada" the end is different. Torquemada is gone; the two lovers are left alone in the night. During their ecstasy the great staircase fills up with a procession of penitents in black and white. Their banner mounts slowly; it bears a death's head and two bones forming a cross, white on a black ground. Don Sancho and Doña Rosa hear the murmur of the procession; they see it coming; they understand: the Inquisition is approaching; in a moment they will be seized and thrown into the flames. Don Sancho screams "Ciel!" and the curtain falls.

Correspondence.

ASSESSMENTS BY THE ROMAN BOSSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 29th inst., speaking of the "circular issued by the Republican Congressional Committee," you say: "It would be impossible to find in the records of any corrupt monarchy of the eighteenth century a trace of a proceeding so paltry and degrading on the part of persons holding a high, or indeed any, position connected with the government." Now, though you may not find this trace in any *monarchy* of the eighteenth century, or perhaps of any other century, still, I think I can point you, not to a "trace," but to an actual "proceeding" bearing a significant resemblance to the Congressional Committee's circular and levy, in a republic or commonwealth—a commonwealth, too, to which in our college days we were wont to "point with pride." If you will turn to Arnold's 'Later Roman Commonwealth,' pages 417, 418, you will find some account of the republican methods adopted by the Triumvirs Lepidus, Antony, and Octavius for raising funds for *their* "campaign." On page 417, we read:

"The Triumvirs, finding themselves still in want of money, drew out a list [or circular] of fourteen hundred ladies, who were ordered to make exact returns of their property, that a proportionate tax might be levied upon them. This excited great indignation, and the persons aggrieved . . . assembled themselves in the forum, and, trusting to the protection of their sex, addressed the Triumvirs in very forcible language, and succeeded in obtaining from them an abatement of the greatest part of the tax which it had been intended to raise. But as the men could not utter their complaints with equal safety, they were condemned to make up the deficiency. Every person, of what rank or condition soever, who was possessed of property to the amount of more than 400,000 H S., or about 3,200 *l*., was required to furnish a loan of two per cent. on all that he was worth," etc.

Please mark the percentage—"two per cent."! How exactly history will sometimes repeat itself! W.

New Haven, Conn., June 30, 1882.

EARLY MENTION OF ASSOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. J. T. Clarke, whose admirable report on the investigations at Assos during last year is in the hands of some of your readers, and who is now, with Mr. Bacon, continuing the work at Assos, is desirous of learning if there is any mention of Assos by ancient writers (excepting references to the Assians Hermeias and Cleanthes) besides the notices of it by Strabo, Pausanias, and Pliny, and the following: Xenophon, Agesilaus, ii., 26; Acts of the Apostles, xx., 13; Lucian, Tragopodagra, 161; Athenæus, Deipnosoph., ix., 17; Anthol. Græc. ed. Brunck, iv., 195; Steph. Byzant., *s. v.* Assos.

He also wishes to know if there is any mention of Assos in mediæval history, except by Ducas and Georgius Pachymeris; or of Behràm before Choiseul's visit.

Should any of your readers be able to add to Mr. Clarke's knowledge on these points, I shall be much pleased to transmit to him such information as may be sent to me for him.

Your obedient servant, C. E. Norton.

Cambridge, Mass., June 29, 1882.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. publish immediately, from the eighth London edition, 'Rules of Simple Hygiene, and Hints and Remedies for the Treatment of Common Accidents and Diseases,' by Dr. Dawson Turner. They have just issued an abridged edition of a work having a large capacity for being abbreviated, for the sake of the reader's feelings—Dr. Benham's 'Memoir of Catharine and Craufurd Tait.'

Wm. S. Gottsberger will issue in a few days a corrected edition of Lady Georgiana Fullerton's translation of Mme. Craven's 'Éliane.' This novel has reached a fourth edition in Paris.

Harper & Bros. have printed in two forms, cloth and paper, Carlyle's 'Reminiscences of My Irish Journey in 1849'—doleful jottings, which, in their present unliterary shape, the writer himself could never have imposed on the public.

The season of college boat-races has seemed to Houghton, Mifflin & Co. a proper one in which to bring out a new edition of the Harvard story, 'Hammersmith,' by Mark Sibley Severance.

A newly-discovered Fourth of July Oration delivered by Daniel Webster at Fryeburg (now in Maine, then a part of Massachusetts), in 1802, when he was but twenty years of age, has been brought out by A. Williams & Co., Boston. Its style makes it a notable production, and in its general conception it is thoroughly Websterian.

The latest publications of the Census Bureau have been numerous and important. They include two bound volumes—part 1 of the Population Tables, and the Statistics of Public Indebtedness; and the following in paper: 'History and Present Condition of New Orleans, La., and Report on the City of Austin, Texas,' by Geo. W. Cable and Geo. E. Waring, jr.—full of matter of permanent interest, and well supplied with maps, historical and other, of the former city; 'Report on the Cotton Production of the State of Louisiana,' by Prof. Eugene W. Hilgard; 'Statistics of the Production of the Precious Metals in the United States,' by Clarence King; 'Statistics of the Manufactures of Baltimore, etc. [20 cities], during the Census Year June 1, 1879-80'; 'Report on the Silk Manufacturing Industry of the United States,' by Wm. C. Wyckoff; and 'Report on the Manufacture of Fire-Arms and Ammunition,' by Chas. H. Fitch.

In the *American Architect* for June 24, beginning is made of a series of articles on the English Cathedrals. A table of the leading dimensions, and a photographic bird's-eye view of paper models executed to a uniform scale, enhance the value of the text, which is descriptive and historical.

Mr. W. F. Poole's report on the progress of library architecture, made to the American Library Association at Cincinnati in May, has been printed in pamphlet form (Boston, 37 Hawley Street). It is outspoken in condemnation of the library building begun in Baltimore by Mr. Enoch Pratt for his noble foundation. The architect "had taken the advice of no practical librarian," and had read none of the recent debates and papers on library construction.

"Bi-Centennial Reading" is the title given by Mr. F. D. Stone, Librarian of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, to bibliographical notes on the history of that State published in the July Bulletin of the Library Company of Philadelphia.

In the *American Naturalist* for July Mr. R. Ellsworth Call concludes his article on "The Loess of North America" with an essay toward a bibliography of the loess; Mr. Ivan Petroff, in treating of "The Limit of the Innuit Tribes on the Alaska Coast," points out the liability to deception in estimating the time of man's settlement by means of shell-heaps (which at a single meal attain dimensions past belief unless the accumulation is witnessed), or from the traces of habitations (the inhabitants being accustomed to carry off everything of wood or iron on removal, and nature soon obliterating the lines of the buildings). The editors make another vigorous protest against the Secretary of the Treasury's ruling on imported books and the law on which it is based.

J. W. Bouton, 706 Broadway, New York, will receive subscriptions to the limited edition (500 copies) of Ferdinand Ongania's continuation of Kreutz's 'La Basilica di San Marco in Venezia.' The numerous plates, engraved or in chromolithograph, represent the church in a great variety of aspects and details. It will be issued in parts, and will not be completed till 1884. The cost will not be far from $160.

The first instalment, A—Bli, of Victor Gay's important 'Glossaire Archéologique du Moyen Âge et de la Renaissance' has been produced by

the Société Bibliographique. It covers a much wider field than Viollet-le-Duc's dictionaries, which it resembles in point of illustrations. The objects defined and figured relate to the chase, to games, musical instruments, furniture, the industrial arts, commerce, agriculture, etc., etc.

Mr. C. W. Sutton's second Manchester bibliography (for 1881) shows that, as might be expected, the thoughts of her writers run chiefly in the sociological and commercial direction. The heading "Politics, Commerce, and Social Questions" includes fifty-six of the 323 works recorded, more than any other of the classes.

Part 2 of the fifth volume of the *Deutsche Geographische Blätter* has made its appearance. It contains articles on the soil, population, industries, mines, etc., of the Gold Coast, by Paulus Dahse; on the Chukchi peninsula and Alaska, by the brothers Krause; a visit to Timor, by Th. Studor, and a number of shorter communications, besides two maps, several cartoons, and a woodcut of Plover Bay.

M. Louis Figuier has recently put forth as a sort of prospectus a pamphlet called 'Le Théâtre Scientifique' (Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern), in which he bewails the silence of the stage toward science, and declares his intention of inventing the scientific drama, just as M. Jules Verne has invented the scientific novel. To this end he has written 'Denis Papin; or, The Invention of Steam,' a scientific and historic drama in five acts and eight tableaux; and two others like it, one on Gutenberg and the other on Keppler. M. Figuier announces that the first of these, and perhaps all of them, will be acted this summer at the Folies Dramatiques in Paris, set off by ingenious models of the original machinery of the inventors whose lives are dramatized.

—Mr. James B. Gregg writes us from Colorado Springs:

"In the July number of the *New Englander* an excellent article on 'The Old Testament in the Christian Church' is credited to my authorship. By what curious casualty this occurs I do not know. But I am not the author of the article in question. I do not know who the author is. I regret that I should receive honor which does not belong to me, and that in any degree I should deprive another."

—The degree of Doctor of Philosophy is in a bad way, and two learned bodies are endeavoring to redeem it. In the seven years 1872-79 seventy-nine colleges granted it 345 times—175 times after examination, 170 times *honoris causa*. If one were to be told that in eight years the degree of M.D. had been made honorary 170 times, he would surely be amazed; but really, in their own origin and estimation in Germany, as well as in the practice of bestowing them only after examination, M.D. and Ph.D. stand exactly on a level. They represent proved attainment, and consequently confer an intellectual and moral distinction, and have a ratable value in seeking a livelihood. To multiply them, or the kindred degree of Doctor of Science, without regard to acquirements or tests of any kind, is of course to undermine their worth everywhere. The above figures show how far the evil has already gone in this country, and what urgent need there is of reform before it has gone too far. There lies before us a circular letter, addressed to the Boards of Control of the colleges of the United States by a joint committee of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the American Philological Association, setting forth the history of the degree of Ph.D. and the abuses in the bestowal of it, and praying for a discontinuance of the practice of making it and that of S.D. honorary. The committee embraces names of which the weight will be at once recognized: Profs. John W. White, W. D. Whitney, B. L. Gildersleeve, I. J. Manatt, C. R. Lanman, Geo. J. Brush, the late Prof. W. B. Rogers, Prof. H. C. Bolton, President F. A. P. Barnard, and Profs. J. P. Lesley and F. W. Clarke. The case does not call for many words, and we cannot doubt that the trustees and faculties for whom the circular is intended will largely, if not universally, give heed to it and amend their behavior. The following consideration is one of the most forcible. The degree of Doctor of Philosophy, which in the German scheme embraces the humanities and the mathematical and natural sciences, is, says the circular—

"in a preëminent sense the appropriate degree for teachers, a large and growing class of persons in this country. Three colleges in the United States have within the last twenty years conferred this degree after examination upon 119 different persons, of whom seventy-five per cent. have adopted the profession of teaching. It is reasonable to suppose that the number of colleges in the United States which within the next fifty years will establish graduate schools in philosophy will be large. The degree which these schools will then confer will be that of Doctor of Philosophy, and it is for the interest of all alike that its significance should not be obscured."

—A large number of excellent people, comprising both those who are and those who long to be "cultured," should thank Mr. Fitzedward Hall for his article in the current number of the *American Journal of Philology*. It is "on the separation, by a word or words, of *to* and the infinitive mood." We have all bowed to the tyrannical rule that such a separation is intolerable in good English; and we have all perceived at times how rhetorical stress and perspicuity could only be secured by violating it. Now comes Mr. Hall with examples of the forbidden usage dating as far back as Wyclif, and as recently as Leslie Stephen and Matthew Arnold. There are some gaps in the chain: no instances are adduced for the first half of the fifteenth century, nor for the fifty years after 1471. But Mr. Hall implies that his enormous reading has been less thorough in these periods, and has no doubt that close examiners will find relevant examples. For the seventeenth century he quotes, among others, Sir John Harington, Dr. Donne, Sir Thomas Browne, Samuel Pepys, and Dr. Richard Bentley; for the eighteenth, Defoe, Burke, John Wilkes, Charles Dibdin, Madame D'Arblay (who was a "separatist" indeed), Dr. Johnson; for the nineteenth, Southey, Coleridge, Lamb, Wordsworth, Ruskin, Bishop Wilberforce, etc., etc. In this as in his kindred writings, Mr. Hall's attitude is not that of a dogmatist, or an authority anxious to impose himself, or hardly an arbiter. He does not say he thinks it a matter of indifference whether the *to* is separated from the infinitive or not; he does not distinctly advise or approve the separation under specific circumstances. He thinks it odd that Dr. Johnson, Macaulay, and De Quincey furnish each one example and no more (most of his readers will be amazed rather that one man has sifted with approximate certainty "professional authors so voluminous" as these). But in the end he leaves the educated and uneducated free to act upon the evidence laid before them, and terrified only at the fate of the learned dunces whose injunctions have once more been shown to rest on superlative ignorance of the best usage—the fate of being slain again. This paper, by the way, has the incidental quality of being a lesson in the precise use of words, many of which are seldom met with in the literary vocabulary. But this we always look for in Mr. Hall's writings, as we do for some hard reading in consequence, and as we do for much unfamiliar information in his foot-notes—*e.g.*, "Not a single sentence of all that has been handed down as from the pen of Wyclif can unhesitatingly be averred to have reached us in his very words."

—At a late meeting of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, Mr. Taylor, of the Select Subscription Library of Edinburgh, discussed the bibliothecal prospects of that city. Some time since, the citizens, after lively discussions and great show of placards, mural and moving, and sufficient personalities, as is the method of British elections, refused by a considerable majority to accept the Free Libraries Act and tax themselves to furnish the people with free novel and other reading. This decision Mr. Taylor would use to the profit of his library. The best method you can adopt, he says to the opponents of the act, to forestall the inevitable renewal of the attempt to force a free library upon us is to preoccupy the ground with a well-supported, vigorous subscription library. And then he gives his views of the way in which the present institution can be made to deserve such support. We have so few subscription libraries in this country that Mr. Taylor's paper will not have a very general interest for Americans. The few whose experience has run in the same line as his will approve of his remarks. It is well that every library should keep up with the times, but it is indispensable for the subscription library. The instant the supply of new books drops off, the subscribers drop off also, and with them the means of a better supply. Sell three-quarters of the old books, and the paying public will not know the difference; fail to provide them with novelties, and they lose all interest in the library. Of course there are many books which remain always in moderate demand—Macaulay, Carlyle, Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, and the like; yet many who once were named with these are heard of no more. The demand for and satisfaction in books of travel passes by as quickly as the vogue of any class. With some exceptions, biography becomes "dead stock" very soon, considering how great is the interest in it when it is fresh. Science nowadays dies at one end as rapidly as it grows at the other; and as the public may not be able to distinguish for themselves what is obsolete, they are all the more suspicious of anything that does not bear the latest imprint. Old fiction is read, to be sure, but the difference between the eagerness with which the last new novel which everybody is talking about is seized upon, and the resignation with which the same novel a year hence will be endured because all the latest publications are "out," is very instructive to the mercantile-librarian, whose very existence depends upon his success in giving his customers keen pleasure.

—The moral of all this is, that the mercantile library or the athenæum which has no permanent fund to meet its running expenses and to buy books when, for some temporary cause, its subscriptions fall off, must conform to the practice of those booksellers who keep circulating libraries: it must get many books with the distinct intention of selling them when the demand has ceased. In most of our cities the public library is slowly killing the mercantile libraries. When people can get books for nothing, they will not pay for their reading, unless they are offered some very decided advantages in a supply of new books larger in proportion to the number of borrowers, or in the superiority of the service, or the greater pleasantness or greater convenience of the situation. These advantages the fundless mercantile library can usually furnish only by confining itself to circulation. When by good luck it receives an endowment from gifts or legacies, it may indulge in the luxury of a reference department. But even then it would wisely dispose of a considerable portion of the emptiness and the heaviness which the popular craving for "actuality" forces it to buy. There are libraries which are museums, like the Lenox;

others which are scholars' working-rooms, like the Astor; others which are for the general intelligent public, like the Brooklyn; or for the very poor public, like the Free Library. As the objects of these are so different, so must be their equipment; and the same difference of practice which they observe in buying they might well observe in regard to keeping or disposing of their books. There is a great outcry against a librarian's or a library committee's acting as a *censor librorum*. "Index expurgatorius" is an invidious term; and if it were a question of theological prejudice, *odium medicum*, scientific jealousy, or even of literary taste, the objection might be sustained. But when the criterion is a mere matter of fact, ascertainable by statistics—a question not whether a book may be wanted a hundred years hence, but whether any one wants it this year enough to pay for it—it is difficult to see why a practical man with sufficient experience may not safely apply it, with only such occasional mistakes as accompany all mortal judgment. But, as we said, the number of libraries which are obliged to conduct themselves on such strictly business principles is small in this country, and not likely to grow greater. They never can maintain themselves in competition with the endowed and their publicly supported rivals; and the American temper is so generous, and the respect for learning and historical research so strong among us, that endowed libraries are increasing in number even more rapidly than population.

—The last number of the London *Publishers' Circular* (June 15) tells of a curious mode of advertising adopted by some tradesmen of Bristol and Clifton. They "bought large numbers of copies of *Punch*, which is published at 3*d.*, and sold them for 1*d.* each, after putting on them a wrapper of their own with the title of *Punch* on it, and advertisements for which they were paid." This, it appears, would not have troubled the proprietors of *Punch*, but the defendants (as they speedily became in a suit for an injunction) went further, and between every two leaves of the paper put two pages of paid advertisements. The Court put an untimely end to the speculation. Another case, arising before the same Justice Chitty, has a cisatlantic interest. Has the author of a paid magazine article any property in it after its first appearance in print? The publisher's right to re-use it in any way and at any time would seem to be indisputable. Is there a concurrent right in the author to reproduce it, either by itself or in connection with his other writings, without the leave of the proprietor of the serial to whom he originally disposed of it? If so, what he really sells is the privilege of first printing, as, in lieu of international copyright, English authors were glad to do to American publishers. The practice in this country would probably be found to confirm the American reputation for good nature. Not always have writers had the courtesy to ask permission of the publisher, or even to acknowledge in the preface a previous appearance in this or that periodical. Seldom has the publisher refused the request when made, or troubled himself over the want of civility. But it may well be imagined that in such cases the writer has not yet achieved a literary standing, or that the publisher thinks the game not worth the candle. The British case is as follows: Messrs. Chapman & Hall, proprietors and publishers of the *Fortnightly Review*, move for an injunction to restrain Messrs. C. Kegan Paul & Co. from publishing as a book certain articles on Afghanistan from the *Fortnightly*. The rest may best be given in the words of the *Publishers' Circular:*

"The writer, Mr. Blunt, was employed by the plaintiffs to write the articles in question, which were published in the *Review* between August and January last. The author subsequently collected them and had them published by the defendants; and the plaintiffs, on the ground that the copyright was theirs, asked the Court to restrain the separate publication. The author submitted that he had a right to do what he had done, and said that he had the permission of the editor, Mr. John Morley. To this Mr. Chapman replied that the editor was their servant, and could not give permission, to which Mr. Morley set up editorial prerogative; and the defendants also contended that the plaintiffs only had the right to publish the article in magazine form, while the right to publish in a separate form remained in the author."

The Court granted the injunction till the trial or till further order, but the plaintiffs gave the defendants permission to publish till the trial, on condition of their keeping an account.

—As we alluded in No. 877 to the question raised in the *Palatine Note-Book* about the presence of Roger de Montgomery at the battle of Hastings, we must also mention the long and candid and good-natured consideration which Dr. E. A. Freeman gives to the arguments of his critic in that publication, in the *Academy* for June 17. The result is, that the historian of the Norman Conquest does not find his general faith in his authority, Robert Wace, shaken. "But," he concludes, "I should now think it right to call more attention than I have done to the fact that Roger's name is not on William of Poitiers' list. That certainly throws some measure of doubt on Wace's story, which the passage in Orderic [implying that Roger was left behind in Normandy], to my mind, does not."

—Is Paris trying to rival London as a cosmopolitan city? In the English metropolis of the world there are said to be more of some nations than there are in the native country—more Norwegians than in Norway, for instance. But there is apparently in Paris a supply of foreigners of good quality, if not of great numbers, to judge from the success of M. Charles Rudy's "Association Internationale de Professeurs." Under his lead, during the past six months, twenty lectures have been delivered in as many different languages on the present literature of as many nations. A Greek, a Russian, an Armenian, a Rumanian, a Pole, an Arab, a Provençal, a Japanese, a Dutchman, and eleven others lectured each in his own tongue to an audience composed in part of his own countrymen and in part of other persons. The enterprise has been so successful that it will be continued another year. New York could show representatives of as many nationalities; but how many of them would care to listen to a literary lecture?

—When a man is convicted of murder on circumstantial evidence and hung, and a few months afterward the murdered man turns up still alive, it does not increase our confidence in trial by jury. When experts contradict one another flatly on a question of writing, and the issue of the case shows that both sides were wrong, it makes one a little suspicious of expert testimony. Something like a combination of these two warnings to be cautious has occurred in a literary way in France. M. Ménard discovered some unpublished verses of Bossuet in the National Library, and printed them in the *Nouvelle Revue*. Whereupon the learned M. Ch. Livet proved that the manuscript could not be by Bossuet. Another critic proved from internal considerations that the verses were not even of the seventeenth century. On the other hand, a professor demonstrated that the verses might possibly be by Bossuet. Then the murdered man turned up. M. Brunetière pointed out, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, that the verses were not unpublished, that they had been printed in the 'Œuvres complètes de Bossuet,' and that there was not the slightest reason to doubt their authenticity. *Hæc fabula docet*—what shall we say?—put not your trust in critics?

—The Franco-German War, as is well known, led to a great revival of Teutonic feeling in Germany and a reaction against everything French. Language of course felt the influence. The great work of the General Staff on the war substituted German for French terms wherever it was possible. The Postmaster-General, Stephan, did the same in all postal matters. And when the telephone was invented, Government would not have the word used, but insisted on *Fernsprecher*. Carrying out the same idea, Dr. Dunger, in his 'Wörterbuch von Verdeutschungen entbehrlicher Fremdwörter' (Leipzig, 1882), prints a list of some 5,600 German words which in his opinion ought to be substituted for the corresponding French words. Some of the Dutch have caught the infection, and are calling for a similar proscription of linguistic foreigners. "The French must go."

—Several works of more than ordinary interest have been published within the last two or three years upon the history of Germany in the fourteenth century. First, and perhaps most important, is a continuation of Kopp's great 'Geschichte der eidgenössischen Bünde.' This encyclopædic work, the indispensable foundation of study for the period of which it treats, is a specimen of the very worst type of German arrangement and the very highest type of German erudition. Published at intervals, from 1845 to 1858, it reached the first half of the fifth volume (Book xi.), covering the period from the accession of Rudolf of Hapsburg (1273) to 1330—an exhaustive history of Germany during these years being the necessary background for a history of the Swiss Confederation. We have more than once tried ineffectually to find our way in the labyrinth of *Band*, *Buch*, *Abtheilung*, *Abschnitt*, and *Hälfte*—each volume, moreover, having two title-pages, one as a history of the 'Eidgenössische Bünde,' the other of the 'Wiederherstellung und Verfall des heiligen römischen Reichs.' The new volume, prepared by A. Lütolf, and published after his death by F. Rohrer, is the first half of the second division of the fifth volume, and embraces the years 1330 to 1334. To a somewhat earlier period belongs 'Clemens V. und Heinrich VII.,' by Dr. C. Wenck, a student of merit in this period. Treating of "the commencement of the French papacy," it is a valuable contribution to the history of the ecclesiastical power.

—'Der Kampf Ludwigs des Baiern mit der römischen Curie,' by Dr. Carl Müller, *Privat-Docent* in Berlin, is also described as a contribution to the ecclesiastical history of the fourteenth century, and is no doubt the most complete account of this last stage of the great contest between Pope and Emperor. It was not a battle of the giants, like the earlier contests: neither Emperor nor Popes at this period were worthy to be ranked with the Fredericks and the Gregories and Innocents, whose conflicts fairly shook Europe in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Nor were the issues so vital. The Roman Curia had fairly triumphed in the last great encounter; but when Boniface VIII. pushed his claims to those of a veritable theocracy—at a time, too, when all the forces of society were working in the direction of secular interests and political powers—there could not fail to be a decisive reaction. The effort to restore the imperial prestige, represented in literature by Dante, and in action by Henry of Luxemburg, was checked by the sudden death of this able Emperor. An equally able and decided successor might have taken up his unfinished work and carried it to a triumphant end.

Louis of Bavaria had neither the heart nor the ability to do this. The chief interest in his long but spasmodic contest centres in the great men of letters who gathered at his court and provided him with weapons in the controversies in which he was engaged. This subject had been previously treated by Riezler, in his 'Literarische Widersacher der Päpste.' Müller's work, however, is broader in its scope, embracing the political as well as the literary side of the contest. Indeed, the political aspect of the contest of this period is the most prominent one. It was complicated by a disputed election to the empire, in which, as the historian remarks, it was really a matter of secondary importance whether it should be Louis of Bavaria or Frederick of Austria: "It was the German kingdom, and more especially this kingdom as associated with the Empire, that the contest concerned." The book is, therefore, "rather a history of the relations of the German state to the Roman Curia than merely a history of the contest of Louis of Bavaria." The victory of the Curia Müller pronounces a "Pyrrhus-victory": "it implied the defection of the mediæval world from the papacy; and this breach now proceeded to widen more and more, especially under the influence of the Great Schism."

—The successor of Louis of Bavaria was Charles IV. of Luxemburg, King of Bohemia—elected by the influence of the Curia as a rival to Louis (hence called *Pfaffenkönig*, "priests' King"), but who succeeded in making his kingly office practically independent of the papacy. His history, 'Geschichte Kaiser Karls IV. und seiner Zeit,' by Dr. Emil Wernusky, author of meritorious monographs upon this period, may be regarded as continuing the history of Müller. The first volume, however, published in 1880, covers the same ground as part of Müller's work, being a life of Charles during his early years, when he was Margrave of Moravia. It ends with his election to the imperial office in 1346. Three more volumes are expected to complete the work. Charles IV. was elected King during the life-time of Louis, and as his rival, the representative of the opposite, or papal, party. Immediately afterward Louis died, and Charles succeeded to the throne without serious opposition. It is not surprising, however, that the anti-papal party made another effort, at first attempting to persuade Edward III. of England, and then Frederick the Serious, Landgrave of Thuringia, to accept the crown, and, upon their refusal, setting up Günther of Schwarzburg as a shadowy emperor. This episode is treated by Dr. Karl Janson in a monograph entitled 'Das Königthum Günthers von Schwarzburg.' The author pronounces Günther a person of no strongly marked personality—a mere tool, used as long as he was found serviceable. It will be several years before Wernusky's history of Charles IV. will be finished; that of his son and successor, Wenceslas, lies completed before us. Lindner's 'Geschichte des deutschen Reiches vom Ende des vierzehnten Jahrhunderts bis zur Reformation' is built on too large a plan ever to be executed in full. The first part, however, "Unter König Wenzel," is complete in two volumes. The first volume, published in 1875, extends from the accession of Wenceslas in 1378 to the year 1387, and is principally occupied with the Swabian confederacy of cities and its wars. The second volume, published in 1880, ends with the deposition of Wenceslas in 1400. A large part of the interest of the volume centres in the Hanseatic League and the affairs of the North; for the history of Germany itself the deposition of the Emperor takes the first place in interest. It has been extensively discussed whether this act was legal, and whether, if legal, it was justified by the circumstances. The most judicious modern historians have pronounced against it, but Prof. Lindner hesitates to express himself positively. As to the legal question, the electoral college certainly had no well-defined constitutional power in the premises, but a certain reserved and undefined right, strictly revolutionary in its nature. As to the reasons alleged, they were very strong—the strongest being the infringement upon the rights of the Empire by the bestowal of the dignity of Duke upon John Galeas Visconti of Milan for money, as was charged. There is no doubt that Wenceslas was utterly inefficient and incompetent; nevertheless, the historian concludes, on the whole (p. 439), that the electors "would have better served the interests of the Empire as a whole if they had had patience with Wenceslas, and made further efforts to influence him."

SCHLIEMANN'S TRAVELS IN THE TROAD.

Reise in der Troas in Mai, 1881. Von Dr. Heinrich Schliemann. Mit einer Karte. Leipzig: Brockhaus. 1881. Pp. 77. [A reprint of articles published in *Unsere Zeit*, 1881, Nos. 8 and 9, with considerable additions.]

THE popular and just admiration of Dr. Schliemann's energy, enthusiasm, and, above all, material successes as an excavator, has only been equalled by the dissatisfaction which his publications have caused among the more learned and exacting. The book before us will do little to better the writer's reputation with these unfavorable critics. It strikingly displays all the faults of untrustworthiness and pretence hitherto condemned, while, instead of the discoveries which made the earlier works on Mykenæ, Troy, and Orchomenos so intrinsically important, it only tells of an unsuccessful and uneventful expedition.

Schliemann's purpose in undertaking this journey through the Troad in May, 1881, was to ascertain what ancient sites of the land, with exception of Hissarlik, were promising fields for archæological excavations. The result at which he arrives upon his last page is entirely negative:

"Although in Hissarlik a layer of Hellenic débris two metres thick was seen to overlie prehistoric rubbish fourteen metres in depth, I now know that there is no site of prehistoric ruins in all the Troad—between the Hellespont, the Gulf of Adramyttion, and the mountains of Ida—excepting perhaps Kurshunlu-tepeh, where the débris is in some places one metre deep, and where sherds of prehistoric pottery may be found at the bottom of this stratum. I know that even (!) excavations for antiquities of the classical period are nowhere possible in the Troad, with the exception of Assos, which is now being dug out by American scholars, and perhaps also of Antandros and Alexandria Troas, where the accumulated earth may reach a depth of three metres."

This conclusion is the more discouraging as Dr. Schliemann has obtainedan exceptionally favorable firman from the Porte, through the diplomatic influence of the nation to which his collection of Trojan antiquities was presented. While permissions to excavate Turkish soil for the purposes of archæological research have hitherto been limited to a single town or village, Schliemann is now allowed to pursue his investigations throughout the entire Troad without further formalities. But thus disappointed in the preliminary explorations, his work during the present season seems to be again limited to the immediate vicinity of Hissarlik.

The most noteworthy, and in fact the only interesting, result of last year's journey was the following of an eastern passage around Ida in going from Adramyttion (the Theban Plain) into the valley of the Scamander. From a much-vexed remark of Herodotus (vii. 42) this is commonly held to be the route taken by the army of Xerxes on the march from Sardis to the Hellespont. Unfortunately Schliemann seems to have seen nothing on his way across the mountain, from Kadi to Obi-kioy, and gives no account of the character of the landscape or road, only relating the tales told him of the curious plant *agil*, said to be poisonous to the cattle in the early summer months. The eastern pass is not even indicated on the map, an addition to the work which, though recommended to the "quite particular attention of the reader" as being of the utmost precision, is bad almost beyond belief. The coast-line, rivers, and mountain ranges are entirely out of their natural position; the island of Lesbos, for instance, being drawn without its two great gulfs. In passing hurriedly through the land, the author frequently mistook the village names, as in the case of Arablar, which is indicated as occupying the site of Burgaz; and the reader minutely interested in the geography of the country will do well to follow the route upon the Prussian survey of 1844, the Austrian military map, or the charts of the English Admiralty, which, in the case of the Troad, extend far inland.

A considerable part of the book is taken up with the ordinary traveller's descriptions of Turkish grave-yards and fountains, stork-nests and cuckoos, which it is needless to review. The author boasts that the remaining observations concerning ancient sites "overthrow theories which have existed for thousands of years and have never before been contested or doubted"; but, notwithstanding this assurance, there are few of his pages which do not require correction. The accounts of Alexandria Troas, and Tuzla (Tragasae) may be dismissed from consideration, as they are translated almost literally, but without acknowledgment, from Mr. Pullan's contributions to Murray's 'Guide-book for Turkey in Asia.' The errors of earlier writers in regard to these two sites are repeated—as, for instance, the statements that the gymnasion of the former contained four square chambers; that the mosque of the latter was once a Byzantine church, etc. The city of the Troad concerning which one would most desire information—the ancient Neandria on Mount Chigri—which presents in its extensive and well-preserved walls the most important remains of early Greek fortifications in all Asia Minor, with exception alone of Assos, was apparently not visited at all; an omission which is the more inexplicable as the foot of the mountain was passed in returning from Eanedeh (Scamandria) to Alexandria.

The vaunted discoveries of Agamemnon's Altar of the Twelve Gods at Cape Lecton, and of the Altar of Idæan Zeus upon Mount Gargaros, can only provoke a smile. The former, visited by the present writer before this notoriety was attached to it, is a formless mass of masonry piled up of small stones at no early date; the latter, according to Schliemann's description, is an isolated slab, bearing the marks of dowels, less than three feet long, and altogether unfitted for the imposing rôle assigned it.

The remarks concerning Assos—a site specially interesting to Americans from the systematic investigations now being carried on by the Archæological Institute—are meagre and commonplace, presenting nothing not already given in the accounts of earlier travellers, save only the statement that "three or four temples occupied the highest point of the acropolis, where their positions are plainly to be seen." The excavations have as yet revealed only one building within the entire enclosure of the citadel, and it is certainly fortunate that the attention of those in charge of the work should be called to this remarkable oversight. Two or three temples more upon the acropolis of Assos,

besides the imposing Doric structure described at length in the recently published report, would form a most interesting complex of sacred edifices.

Schliemann travelled through the country on the beaten roads; his long journey does not seem to have taken up quite two weeks, and in the few hours allowed each site he could only make the most hasty and superficial surveys. His statement that between Chrysa, Lecton, and Assos there is no trace of an ancient settlement, is an error. Although the region has by no means been thoroughly explored, the walls and altars of Polymedion have been discovered halfway between Lecton and Assos, and similar vestiges of antiquity could without doubt readily be found between Lecton and Chrysa, the coast there not being traversed by bridle-paths. To assume the foundation of the important town of Baba to have necessarily been simultaneous with the erection of a fountain and a gate at that place, is unsatisfactory; the more so as the author invariably miscalculates Turkish dates. The year 1193 of the Hegira is by no means 1776 of our reckoning; nor is 1101 our 1685. Schliemann's method of determining these periods was evidently to subtract the given sum from 1298, and to take the result in turn from 1881—the Gregorian equivalent of Heg. 1298. It would be well for the ingenious Doctor to note from any chronological table the considerable difference between lunar and solar years. With him, as with the unlettered inhabitants of the country, all later Byzantine ruins are Genoese, though it is more than questionable whether the Gattilusii even gained a foothold in the Troad at the ports nearest their sovereignty of Lesbos, and Genoese princes never could have erected the ramparts and citadels of the eastern interior thus attributed to them. The similarity of the common village name Araclu to an imaginary Greek city Heracleion, hardly suffices to prove the existence of such a place, in the lack of all other evidence; the *red* village Kizil-ketchily though "recognized immediately" by Schliemann as retaining a reminiscence of the Greek Killa, is wholly Turkish, and it is not clear how the name Devrent can be claimed as a corruption of Antandros.

To note other misstatements, and refute other vague theories, would require more time and space than the book appears to justify. It is with difficulty that a passage tolerably free from error or groundless assumption can be picked out, although those parts of the volume relative to the immediate vicinity of Troy, and taken in part from the author's 'Ilios,' are the most concise and striking. The review of the Trojan Plain, notwithstanding its exaggeration, is noteworthy as a comparison of the past and present conditions of the land:

"Apart from the five prehistorical cities and the Lydian town, the débris of which was found beneath the ruins of the classical Ilion at Hissarlik, apart also from the three prehistoric cities—at the tumulus Beshika-tepeh, on the right bank of the Scamander opposite Bunarbashi, and on Hanay-tepeh—there were once two villages and eleven flourishing cities in this Plain of Troy, which is scarcely fourteen kilometres long, and averages only six kilometres in width. All of these were autonomous, and five possessed an independent coinage. When we think that these two villages and eleven cities existed side by side in antiquity, and that one of the latter had a population of at least 70,000 souls, we are astonished that so many human beings could find sustenance in a plain where to-day the inhabitants of seven miserable villages are scarcely able to supply their scanty needs."

The volume closes, as it began, at Troy, and its defects are easily forgiven by the reader thus reminded of the years of personal hardship and pecuniary sacrifice spent by Schliemann in the trenches of Hissarlik. Every spadeful of earth upturned from the fruitful soil of Asia Minor brings new materials for the ethnographical and archæological studies of the chamber-scholar, and Schliemann has sifted whole hills. His fame as an energetic and persevering excavator is only discredited by his own publications, and the gratitude which is due to him for the direct results of his work is not diminished by the admission that his theories and writings are well-nigh worthless.

BISMARCK AND HIS OPPONENTS.

Fürst Bismarck und NICHT *seine Leute während des parlamentarischen Kriegs.* Zeitgeschichtliche Spaziergänge von Dr. Wolfgang Frank. Leipzig. 1882

Dr. Frank's 'Fürst Bismarck' is not likely to attract as much attention as Dr. Moritz Busch's 'Graf Bismarck und seine Leute während des Kriegs mit Frankreich,' of which it is in a limited sense an imitation. It does not pretend to be a book of revelations, and hardly contains anything that has not been known to those who have followed with interest the parliamentary course of the powerful Chancellor through all its windings. It offers, however, in a very pleasing form, ably grouped reflections of the varying aspects of that course, so rich in changes and yet strictly continuous; and, though perhaps rather intended to amuse than to instruct, and done by a delineator not entirely free from a friendly bias, it has the value of a pretty faithfully executed historical picture. Readers not sufficiently familiar with Bismarck's oratorical or conversational outpourings cannot fail to enjoy the multitude of his sayings here compiled—some epigrammatically wise or politically important, some moody, bitingly sarcastic, or cynically provoking, but all pithy and indicative of power, wayward independence, and intellectual exuberance. The more fugitive sketches of those German parliamentary leaders who are *not his* men—though many of them are by turns his allies—such as the Progressists Richter, Schulze-Delitzsch, and Hänel, the National Liberals Lasker, Bamberger, and Bennigsen, the Socialist Bebel, and the Ultramontane chief Windthorst—will also be found interesting, and still more so the pages referring to the apostle of Socialism, Lassalle. If Dr. Busch's communications are more piquant and original, Dr. Frank's are more strictly authentic. Like the former, the latter mainly reproduces talk; but what he reproduces is generally characteristic of personality or political evolution and relations. Thus we hear Eugen Richter say in the Reichstag, on October 14, 1878:

"Questions of power are always the main thing with the Imperial Chancellor. In the field of foreign affairs he well knows how to achieve great results by skilful dealing. His defect is, that he makes the question of power the foremost one in domestic politics also, and that he uniformly treats internal questions in subordination to it. As toward foreign states, so toward parties at home, he assumes now a friendly, now a hostile, attitude; just as the momentary internal relations of power make it seem expedient to him. Now he receives the leader of the Socialists as he would a neighboring landlord; now he persecutes with all the might of the state those who offer less resistance than himself to the seductions of that Socialist. The leaders of a third party are at one time celebrated by the Chancellor's press as the best of patriots, and soon after denounced as selfish office-seekers. Between friendship and hostility the Chancellor observes the method of dilatory treatment. Since Benedetti's time he has treated party leaders at home, too, with dilatoriness. At this moment, if I understand things aright, it seems to be Windthorst-Meppen's turn."

"It is evident," says the same orator two years later, "that the Chancellor is bent on having a great Bismarck party *sans phrases*—a 'middle party,' as he likes to call it—because he would be the centre of it, both in speech-making and in acting. He becomes more and more intolerant of opposition: formerly he wanted only protection against abuses of freedom of speech, but now eloquence itself is repugnant to him." The last phrase is in allusion to a *mot* of Bismarck's, who mockingly applied to Richter the title of "his Eloquence." The Chancellor is much more friendly toward Lasker, whom he often picks out in great debates as the foeman most worthy of his steel. He designates him as a veteran opponent in regard to whom one can say, "in the words of that old French song, 'On se rappelle avec plaisir des coups de poing qu'on s'est donnés.'" In the same speech, however, carried away by his unbridled wit, he mocks at the financial policy of the Jewish lawyer, who is known to be blessed with much less worldly than intellectual wealth, as a policy *non habentis:* "He belongs to those gentlemen who, in the framing of our laws, at every stage of law-making, form the majority; who, as we read in Scripture, neither sow nor reap, neither toil nor spin, and yet are clothed—I will not say how, but clothed they are." He was more seriously malicious when, in 1867, he advised an opponent who criticised his action in the great international struggle of the preceding year to read a certain scene in the first act of Shakspere's "Henry IV.," in order to find out what he, the author of Sadowa, must feel when he heard such talk about things which he "suffered and fought for, and ought to know better." The words referred to are those of *Percy Hotspur's*, which, to understand the scathing sarcasm of the reference, must be read in full:

—"I remember, when the fight was done,
When I was dry with rage and extreme toil,
Breathless and faint, leaning upon my sword,
Came there a certain lord, neat and trimly dress'd,
Fresh as a bridegroom. . . .
With many holiday and lady terms
He questioned me. . . ."

Characteristic of the Chancellor's highest aspirations as a statesman are the following words, spoken in July, 1879:

"No matter whether I suffer defeats in my course, whether I must begin the work anew—as long as I am Minister I will not relax my efforts; my model in this is Robert Bruce in the story of the spider, in whose climbings-up after falls he found encouragement not to give up, on his part, even under the worst auspices, that which he deemed right and useful for his country. . . . As far as I am concerned, I will walk in the path which I recognize as the right one in the interest of the Fatherland, to the very end undisturbed—whether I earn hatred or love for so doing."

Even before he became Imperial Chancellor he spoke with the same proud and inflexible self-consciousness as in 1879. "As long as I remain Federal Chancellor and Minister of Foreign Affairs, our state policy must be shaped according to my understanding; and if you put stones in its path, and clog its wheels, you obstruct that policy, and the responsibility for such obstruction, even for the untimely compulsion to declare myself—the responsibility for the consequences—rests with you, the authors of motions and speakers, and not with me." The following anecdote ("it is told") also belongs here: Bismarck was asked to write a few words in an autograph album. He chose a page which contained lines by both Guizot and Thiers. Guizot had written, "Dans ma longue vie j'ai appris deux sagesses: l'une, c'est de beaucoup pardonner, et l'autre, de ne jamais oublier." Thiers had subjoined, "Un peu d'oubli ne nuit pas à la sincérité du pardon." Bismarck added, "J'ai appris dans ma vie à moi de beaucoup oublier et de me faire beaucoup pardonner." What the Chancellor most easily forgets, or discards, is maxims of policy and political affiliations, which

he changes almost like clothes; and what he needs most forgiveness for is that very discarding and changing. And yet he constantly and consistently labors for one grand aim, the establishment on a firm basis of Germany's controlling power in the centre of Europe; and as long as this remains also the paramount and categorical demand of his nation, all his sins against consistency, right, or freedom will be forgiven by it, and the most energetic protests of political leaders and their constituencies be little more than honorable but idle displays of fidelity to higher principles.

The Life of George Cruikshank. In Two Epochs. By Blanchard Jerrold. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882. 2 vols., with numerous illustrations.

THERE is a hint in this title of chronological observance, but Mr. Jerrold shows no capacity for dealing with any division of time smaller than "epochs." His dates are very loosely kept, and his annoying repetitions likewise betray a temporal disorder. Again and again he recites the story of Cruikshank's wilful bad etching for Bentley, and the artist's saying that "a man should paint from his shoulder, sir"; the drunkard paying his week's score is served up (vol. ii.) on p. 78 and p. 90; the "British Bee-Hive" described on p. 211 is redescribed with absolute unconsciousness on p. 217; and even in the lucid intervals of memory, "we have seen," or "as the reader has already learned," introduces the twice-told tale. To this add extreme slovenliness in composition. An entire paragraph on p. 107 (vol. i.) clearly needs to be inserted on the preceding page; for want of a comma, the final sentence on that page (106) is seemingly left incomplete; for want of a dash, that on p. 136 (vol. ii., quoted from Mr. Wedmore) is broken senselessly in two. One comma too many on p. 26 (vol. i.) gives Isaac Cruikshank three sons instead of two—"Robert, Isaac, and George." On p. 31 George's brother is called "I. R.," and on p. 63 "Isaac Robert," as is right; yet on p. 124 he is styled "Robert Isaac" again. So the late R. Shelton Mackenzie is referred to as "K. S." on p. 85 (vol. i.) and "R. S." on p. 218; and the proprietor of the *Meteor*, who is "Earle" on p. 106, becomes "Earl" on the opposite page. Page 106 has been particularly uncared for, since in addition to the errors already noted must be cited "Lanfray" for "Lanfrey."

It may be said that for much of this inaccuracy the (English) printer should be held responsible; and this is no doubt true, as it is that no American book of equal typographical pretensions and expensiveness would be found so disfigured with blunders which ordinary proof-reading should have avoided. There are, however, numerous other traces of Mr. Jerrold's inattention to the details both of authorship and of bookmaking. We will only particularize further the bibliography in the appendix, which is so far from being complete that even a work like the 'Queen's Matrimonial Ladder' (1820), expressly mentioned in the text (vol. i., p. 95), is omitted from the "List of Works Illustrated by George Cruikshank"; and the absence of any index.

It is one thing, however, to be repelled by a writer's want of care and method in the presentation of his subject, and another to be unrepaid by a perusal of his work. No essential feature, we are sure, of Cruikshank's personality has been overlooked by his present biographer. His slight but not insignificant figure, his elastic step, his inexhaustible animal spirits, his physical endurance (we see him dancing a hornpipe at eighty-four), his almost unexampled industry and productiveness; his voice, flexible for mimicry or histrionic delivery, and of impressive solemnity when depicting the woes of drunkenness; his early conviviality, his conversion to total abstinence and devotion of tongue and pencil to the crusade against intemperance; his amiable conceit, leading him to disputes as to originality with Ainsworth and Dickens; his bad judgment in literary ventures; his costly and mortifying illusions as to the interest in him and his works of the generation to which he was a grandfather—all these traits emerge from the confusion of Mr. Jerrold's narrative, and combine to give a just idea of the wonderful old man who joined in the British caricature of Napoleon I. and outlasted Sedan and Napoleon III., and still had five years of life and of work in him. The two "epochs," however, are not treated with equal sympathy and knowledge by Mr. Jerrold. The first is that in which Cruikshank achieved his enduring fame as a designer, having no other aim than to support himself with his pencil; the second that in which the artist was nearly lost in the reformer, and the alleviation of human misery from a single evil became the mastering purpose of the remainder of his days. It is no discredit to Mr. Jerrold to say that he displays more sympathy with the temperance advocate than with the caricaturist who up to 1847 carried a free lance. His observations on Cruikshank's earlier designs are those neither of the connoisseur nor of the collector, and for the most part he is content to repeat the eulogies of others. He defends "The Bottle" against Dickens's absurd criticism with a true artistic as well as moral insight; but he accounts for the inferiority of these designs by the process (glyptography) employed, overlooking the *scale*, and hence missing the general observation that Cruikshank, unlike his elder contemporary caricaturists, belonged among the "Little Masters." In this respect he resembled Bewick, and both might have taken as their motto Ben Jonson's line—

"In small proportions we just beauties see."

Like Bewick, again, he was, as Mr. Wedmore points out in a review of this book in the *Academy*, a delicate and admirable water-colorist, though Mr. Jerrold makes no mention of it. Finally, Cruikshank's Scottish parentage might have suggested a vindication of that much-abused stock on the score of humor, particularly as Gillray had the same derivation, and Bewick, no mean humorist in his way, was a Borderer.

We quote, as the most favorable specimen of Mr. Jerrold's writing, the following passage relating to the public indifference to Cruikshank and his huge oil-painting, the "Triumph of Bacchus" (vol. ii., p. 160):

"I remember seeing him standing in his exhibition room. It was empty. There was a wild, anxious look in his face when he greeted me. While we talked, he glanced once or twice at the door, when he heard any sound in that direction. Were they coming at last, the tardy, laggard public for whom he had been bravely toiling so many years? Here was his last mighty labor against the wall, and all the world had been told that it was there. His trusty friend Thackeray had hailed it in the *Times*. A great committee of creditable men had combined to usher it with pomp into the world. All who loved and honored and admired him had spoken words of encouragement. Yet it was near noon, and only a solitary visitor had wandered into the room. Thackeray might well say, 'How little do we think of the extraordinary powers of this man, and how ungrateful we are to him!'

"I was reminded of a visit I had paid years before to a room in the Egyptian Hall, where Haydon, wild and lowering, lingered by his pictures, a solitary, almost heart-broken man. In a letter he said that Douglas Jerrold was one of the two or three who answered his summons to Piccadilly. But it was I, then a young art-student, who had begged my father's ticket, and stood for him in the empty Haydon gallery. It was thus, with a sinking at the heart, that I went away from Wellington Street."

Readers of *Scribner's Monthly* will not fail to observe that Mr. Jerrold has secured for his book almost all the plates which illustrated Mr. Russell Sturgis's paper on Cruikshank in that magazine for June, 1878. They will also notice the forcible retrenchment of some of them to fit the page, and the great superiority of the American over the English press-work. They will, moreover, after laying down Mr. Jerrold's two volumes, find that they can re-read Mr. Sturgis's seventeen pages with interest and profit.

Ralph Waldo Emerson. In Memoriam. Personal Recollections and Extracts from Unpublished Letters. By Alexander Ireland. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 8vo, pp. 120.

MR. IRELAND'S little volume in memoriam of Mr. Emerson is an English tribute to the unobtrusive but cosmopolitan influence of the great poet. It deals especially with Mr. Emerson's European relations, and contains a number of his letters, which add little, however, to our knowledge of him. Mr. Emerson had, as he himself said, a "chronic and constitutional reluctance to writing a letter," and these epistles to Mr. Ireland are little more than notes of introduction and the like, worth preserving, but hardly of consequence enough to print. There are, nevertheless, some interesting passages in the accompanying letters to Carlyle. In 1859 he writes of his home life: "I am fooled by my young people, and grow old contented. The heedless children suddenly take the keenest hold on life, and foolish papas cling to the world on their account as never on their own." The passage about the war, written in 1862, can hardly have softened the intolerance of the harsh Scotchman: "The war is our sole and doleful instructor. All our bright young men go into it to be misused and sacrificed by incapable leaders. . . . Unless backed by our profligate parties, their action [the interference of England or France] would be nugatory, and if so backed, the worst. But even the war is better than the degrading and descending politics that preceded it for decades of years." Later on, however, in 1864, he wrote: "I shall always respect the war hereafter. The cost of life, the dreary havoc of comfort and time, are overpaid by the vistas it opens of eternal life, eternal law, reconstructing and uplifting society—breaks up the old horizon, and we see through the rifts a wider." Of Carlyle's 'Frederick the Great' he writes to him: "The book was heartily grateful, and square to the author's imperial scale. . . . I find as ever in your books that one man has deserved well of mankind for restoring the scholar's profession to its highest use and dignity. I find, also, that you are very wilful, and have made a covenant with your eyes that they shall not see anything you do not wish they should. . . . My joints ache to think of your rugged labor."

It was natural enough that Mr. Emerson should dislike letter-writing, whose easy familiarity was contrary to all his habits of work. The Orphic saying was the type of all his writing. His thought was controlled by the ineffable mystery of language. He did not marshal his sentences in ordered ranks to reach a desired end. He took a phrase and expanded its mystic meaning. The sentence was the ultimate unit. Paragraphs might be and were interchanged without affecting the character of the essay. It would be a great mistake to overlook the philosophy in which he viewed them, for with profound insight he had entered the innermost temple of absolute being, which we also must penetrate if we would rightly see the treasures of his thought. But he expressly ab-

jured any systematic construction. He was a lapidary, not an architect. With his graver he set free the perfect image hidden in the gem. He gave the antique faith its choicest crown of jewels, but he spent no time on what he thought the superfluous labor of strengthening its foundation. It will naturally be asked why the style of one who worked so laboriously at verbal form was not better. But its worst faults, its brusqueness and incoherence, arose from the nature of its piecemeal construction, and were not faults in his eyes. The baldness of some of his verse was due partly to the indifference of his ear; deafness it cannot be called, since the harmony of his best lines is as fine as anything in literature. But he had the carelessness about mere form which belonged to the Nature school from which he took his soaring flight—a school which, in its reaction against the over-formality of the time, easily drifted into painful prosiness. Literature is always oscillating between the extremes of unnatural art and inartistic nature, and he was on the crest of the wave. Fortunately, Mr. Emerson revised his work so thoroughly that he printed little that he could improve. It would be a pity to print the great mass of more shapeless matter which he is said to have left, fine as some parts of it doubtless are.

There is little that is new to American readers in Mr. Ireland's account, except, perhaps, the description of Clough's greatest achievement as the "Bothie of Toper-Na-Fuosich" (*sic*). One anecdote is worth repeating. After a commencement address by Mr. Emerson to a Middlebury literary society, a Massachusetts clergyman rose to conclude the service with prayer, and used in it this sentence: "We beseech thee, O Lord, to deliver us from ever hearing any more such transcendental nonsense as we have just listened to from this sacred desk." After the benediction Mr. Emerson asked his next neighbor the name of the officiating clergyman, and when falteringly answered, with gentle simplicity remarked: "He seemed a very conscientious, plain-spoken man," and went on his peaceful way. Father Taylor took a broader view of the young comeouter: "If the tree is good and the fruit is good, why should we complain because the bark is bitter?" And again, at another time: "If Mr. Emerson goes to hell, he will give it a very different atmosphere," a remark which we commend to the attention of the Reverend Bishop H.

South Mountain Magic: A Narrative. By Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

FOLK-LORE is becoming so voluminous that those who have been most forward in promoting the study are growing desperate over the mass, and every new candidate for consideration in this department must expect a severer scrutiny. Obvious variants of the old stories, and literary manipulations of popular legends, find little mercy at the hands of serious students, and Mrs. Dahlgren's book is composed so largely of old material, and that old material so sophisticated with fine writing, that 'South Mountain Magic' will not be of any essential service to the anthropologist. It is but fair to say, however, that Mrs. Dahlgren probably never thought of the anthropologist when she was getting up her book, which produces on an outsider the effect of having been written chiefly for the delectation of a coterie. It was no doubt a surprise to the writer that so much superstition should survive in a region so near the capital of the nation, but few who know the mountain portions of the Southern and Middle States will share her surprise. "Black dogs," "white women," "headless men," "doublegangers," witches, wizards, brought over from the old country, linger everywhere among mountaineers, especially among those of German descent.

The last chapter, which treats of "Magic Cures," is the best, because it is the most matter-of-fact, and some of the bits of dialect are fairly done; but the eloquent portions of the volume are unendurable. The reflections in the descriptions might have been tolerable in the old days when a certain courtesy was due to any lady that chose to write; but we have done away with the word *authoress*, and the most cultivated of society women, when they venture into print, must use normal grammar, avoid stale quotations, lop off superfluous adjectives, and verify their little allusions—or bear the penalty. Feminine syntax is often delightful, it must be granted, and floating participles and unattached pronouns lend a peculiar charm to the conversation of women; but it is almost a sin to puzzle the masculine intellect with such a sentence as this, which is found in Mrs. Dahlgren's preface: "Growing out of a familiar acquaintance with their habits of thought and action, the writer gradually learned their superstitions and heard the various narratives to be found in this book." And there are others like it, though none equal to it. A book constructed in this way is anything but light summer reading. Such an audacious figure as "Death's portals alone lift the veil that shrouds the future" is worse than any of Mrs. Dahlgren's ghost stories, which singularly fail to frighten one. It is worse even than the "wraith" of our old enemy Simeon Stylites, who masquerades in this volume as St. Simon of Stylites. This minute criticism of style will seem misplaced, but part of it is due to the disappointment of the critic. The local vein, properly worked, has yielded valuable results. Mrs. Dahlgren's Michael Zittle, in proper hands, might have given us something distinctly valuable, just as 'Uncle Remus' has been a substantial addition to our collection of types; but the author of 'South Mountain Magic' has not taken the trouble to work up her studies.

Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. By the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, M.A., Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Cambridge. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

PROFESSOR SKEAT'S Dictionary, lately brought to a conclusion in the covenanted space of four years, may certainly be allowed all that the author in his modest and candid preface claims for his book: those whose philological knowledge is but small may do worse by going elsewhere for information. Indeed, this dictionary is decidedly the best existing compendium of what has been determined or conjectured as to the derivation of the most important English words. It is considerably more than a laborious and critical compilation, for the author's extensive knowledge of the earlier English and his own keen etymologic scent have enabled him to make important discoveries. So that, even leaving out of account the very instructive minutes illustrating the use and history of words, this dictionary has advantages over its only rival in the way of historical etymology, the soberly scientific work of Eduard Müller. An inspection of a few specimens, taken almost at random, as *gewgaw*, *imbecile* (not in Müller), *lollard*, *swamp* (slurred over in Wedgwood), *swine*, *tram*, *trinket*, will serve to show the improvements and the characteristic excellences in Prof. Skeat's book. One thing might, however, have well been made plainer. We are told that the book "is not intended to be always authoritative, nor are the conclusions arrived at to be accepted as final." But there can be no doubt that many whose philological knowledge is but small, schoolteachers (who often attach an exaggerated importance to etymology), by hundreds and thousands, will consult this book. The author thinks that such people "may safely accept the results here given, since they may else do worse." It is very clear that no one can be safe in accepting as authoritative an enunciation not meant to be final, even though he might do worse. Things settled and things not settled should be distinguished. A general warning in the preface that etymology is very uncertain ground, will not avail.

An unabridged edition of this book has been printed for the American market, of which the price is two dollars and a half and your eyes. It may be questioned whether the publishers have a right to punish a possible readiness to buy a possible American reprint so severely. Or is it only that the English wish to be neck and neck with us in the race for making the world near-sighted?

An abridged edition, called 'A Concise Etymological Dictionary, etc.,' has been issued by the Clarendon Press, and in this country bears the imprint of the Messrs. Harper among their "Student Series." It is irreproachable in the matter of print, and, what is more, has been condensed by a thorough rewriting. Of course, too, it has had the benefit of the author's latest corrections and improvements, including a feature not engrafted on the larger edition—viz., the arrangement under what we may call a root-word of its various derivates in alphabetic order. These, while tolerably obvious in the case of compounds, are sometimes very obscure, and their being brought together in connection cannot fail to be instructive.

Capital and Population: A Study of the Economic Effects of their Relation to each other. By Frederick B. Hawley. D. Appleton & Co. 1882. 8vo, pp. 267.

THERE is a growing disposition at the present time to regard abstract writing in political economy as worthy less consideration than carefully-compiled facts or trustworthy historical study; and indeed the belief that some great law has been discovered is the only apology likely to be accepted for this kind of writing. It is an apology of this nature that the reader is called upon to grant the author of 'Capital and Population' for having added another work to the list of abstract economics. The book is given to the public in firm confidence that it is an important addition to economic literature. "The economic law I have attempted to establish," says Mr. Hawley, "equals in its influence upon economic conclusions any hitherto ascertained. Granted its truth, it throws new and decisive light upon nearly all the unsolved problems of the science." The reviewer has no choice left him, after such a claim, but to ask what this newly-discovered relation between economic forces and factors may be, which promises to revolutionize so conservative a study as political economy.

So far as it is capable of concise statement, this law is "that capital is limited by population, and tends constantly to overpass such limit." This, it will be observed, is exactly the converse of what English economy teaches, from which one learns that population is limited by capital, and presses always upon the means of subsistence. Yet Mr. Hawley confesses himself a disciple of Ricardo and Mill, and asserts that he has simply applied the premises which those writers accepted with more strictness than they themselves applied them. This failure on their part, however, is "due not so much to the want of logical acumen as to the fact that there was nothing in their surroundings to suggest further

pursuit." As to the question of population, this book fails to include all the necessary factors, and in consequence to satisfy a close observer; but, on the other hand, what is said of the workings of capital in an industrial society formed like that of the present must be regarded as well said from the author's standpoint, and as important in itself, since it points out certain errors which crept into Mr. Mill's writings, and which have formed part of the accepted teaching upon capital ever since. Among the secondary doctrines of capital which are here controverted may be mentioned the following: That one who saves and builds a capital fund is the only true friend of the workingman; that over-accumulation is impossible; that panics are the effect of extravagance and an indication of poverty on the part of the people among whom they occur, and—perhaps the most significant of all—that demand for goods is not a demand for labor.

While we cannot follow the author in his entire course of reasoning, it is possible to state concisely the line of thought by which he arrives at his conclusions. Accepting the usual definition of capital, that it is the product of past labor devoted to further production, it is conceived as divided into two funds; the one being "active," the other "dead" stock. Ricardo makes no such distinction, but argues as if all capital at any time in existence is applied to productive purposes. Mr. Mill admits the distinction, when he is talking about capital, but is charged with forgetting it and using the word in the Ricardian sense when he employs the conception in argument. "This distinction," says our author, "is of the utmost importance," and his book is in reality but a study of the influence which the existence of "dead stock" has upon the activity of "active stock." Thus he contends that intensity of industry, remuneration to labor, influence of capital on population, actual rate of profit, and the like, do not depend upon the total amount of capital, but upon the proportion of capital which is active to that which is inactive. The greater the amount of active capital at any time, the more prosperous is the community; but this is a different thing from the statement commonly made that the test of prosperity is the total amount of wealth saved. Activity in business circles varies inversely with the proportionate amount of dead stock seeking investments, for all business is undertaken for profit, and, given a large amount of dead stock seeking investments, the profit upon stock already invested must be low. This leads the author directly to the conclusion that, while too much cannot be produced, too much of that produced may be saved, and that the thing necessary, in order that a community may continue in uninterrupted production, and escape business depression, is to keep down to a normal proportion the amount of dead stock. While not admitting this practical conclusion, one may say that the criticism here presented upon the general doctrine of capital-saving is clear-cut and logically accurate, and bears with it all the more force because it comes from an avowed disciple of Mr. Mill.

The remainder of the book contains but further application of this distinction between active and dead stock. The chapter upon "Capital and Labor" ingeniously points out the fact that there is no such thing as real unity of interests among laborers as against employers, but that while each individual laborer holds conflicting interests with his own employer, his true interest—so far as real wages are concerned—is identical with that of the employers of other laborers (p. 130). The author believes, also, that his law is able "to undermine the fundamental premise of free trade so far as distribution is concerned," and will in consequence commend itself to many interested readers. This book will well repay study. It brings the doctrine of capital to the foreground as the fundamental conception of modern industrial methods. It is not, however, a satisfactory statement of that doctrine, as indeed no statement can be which does not depart more decidedly from the teachings of Ricardo and Mill than the author appears to feel himself at liberty to do.

An Engineer's Holiday; or, Notes of a Round Trip from Long. 0° to 0°. By Daniel Pidgeon, 2 vols. 8vo. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1882.

THE title of this work is slightly misleading: at least, we expected to find Mr. Pidgeon viewing the countries through which he passed from a professional standpoint. Had he done so he might have produced a work of some value both to his own countrymen and to ourselves. As it is, with the exception of a few passages, chiefly in regard to railroad bridges, we have simply the record of the ordinary impressions of a not very well-informed or acute observer during a hasty journey round the world. Considering the fact that he never left the beaten track, and that he had no noteworthy adventures, the giving these two volumes to the public is a proof rather of his courage than of his wisdom.

Mr. Pidgeon's holiday lasted for a year, five months of which were spent in the United States, the greater part of the remainder being devoted to Japan and India. He landed at New York in the spring of 1880, and after a few days spent in the "industrial cities," Philadelphia, Washington, Pittsburgh, and Chicago, went to the mining regions of Colorado and Nevada. This very slight acquaintance with the Atlantic States from personal observation makes his very confidently pronounced judgments upon our life and institutions rather amusing reading. He says, for instance, that he "searched the booksellers' shops of New York without success for a compendious geological handbook of America—a *vade mecum* such as Ramsay has given us for England"—and then goes on to remark that "the absence of such a book is only one among many indications of the neglect with which science is generally treated in America." One would suppose from this that the two countries were of equal size, and that the Sierra Nevada was as accessible to the geologist as the Chedder Cliffs. In another place he refers to the lack of "intellectual aspiration" in this country. This may be true enough, but would not the American whose knowledge of England was limited to that derived from a few days' stay in Liverpool, London, Manchester, Birmingham, and Sheffield, and two months spent in Cornwall or the Black Country, find it equally true of England? His general opinion of the United States is given in the following sentence: "For sensitive men, bred in the refinements of the best European society, the less exclusive habits, less elegant life, and less polished manners of the States form a purgatory; but the country is the paradise of the artisan."

At times we cannot help suspecting that our author has been made the victim of a too eager desire to find strange things among us. As an illustration of the "gallantry toward women for which America is famous," he says that "with a touch of her fan or parasol, a lady may indicate to a perfect stranger that she desires his seat in a concert-room or an omnibus. When this is yielded she may take it without thanks." Writing of a "tremendous dinner" given at the opening of the Chautauqua Lake Sunday-School Assembly, he says, on the authority of a waiter, that the eighty-six dishes on the *menu* "were honestly partaken of, dish by dish, by many excellent Methodists." This same waiter, referring to the models of scenes of Old Testament history to be found in the grounds, gave Mr. Pidgeon a cordial invitation to visit Chautauqua during the session of the Assembly. "'Many a time,' said this Amalekite, 'I hev sot on Sinai with a "tony" gal, and watched the old patriarch work Horeb.* Ef you'll come hyur and see the machine running in August, mister, I guess I'll fix you in the best room on Ararat; thet ark is kep' for high-toned company, and you'll hev a good time, you bet. Why, there's just a thousand gals flirting at you as soon 's your nose is inside thet amphitheâtre.'" We fear, also, that the man who told him that "going 'gunning with a smell-dog' is good Yankee" was making game of him; as well as the American who in Oxford asked him, "Do you think I might shunt York Minster on my way to the North?"

For one of our industries, bridge-building, the English engineer has unqualified praise. In it, he says, "labor is economized in a manner of which we know nothing in England. Indeed, we have no establishments at all similar to those in which the beautiful trussed girders of American railroads are made." When he reaches the mining regions, the narrative becomes more interesting. At Leadville, he tells us, "a wide space of ground, several acres in extent, is entirely covered by empty meat-tins. The mining camps of the West depend on canned provisions, but, in spite of a now intimate personal acquaintance with this useful form of food, the stretch of tin-drift, glittering like a great mirror in the sun, and diversified with blackened tree-stumps, was a surprising spectacle." A deserted mining town is well described in the following passage: "The stage passes through towns of weed-grown streets and empty houses, whose doors swing wide, whose windows are broken and unshuttered, and within whose desolate rooms furniture too bulky for easy removal still stands. Here is the post-office, with dusty racks holding a few unclaimed letters; and there the saloon, with its billiard-tables still in place, but abandoned as if a sudden panic had driven away the people."

Of Mr. Pidgeon's travels in the East little need be said. This, however, is new to us—that in Japan "a horse is not allowed to drink out of a pail, but the water is thrown into his mouth by means of a wooden ladle." In this country the "ameya" is very popular with the children.

> "This clever stroller's stock-in-trade consists of a little bench, furnished with a lamp, some plastic sugar, red and blue pigments, a few twigs of split bamboo, and a pair of scissors. Taking a lump of the sugar in his hands, he makes a funny speech to the parti-colored little crowd, and ends by asking what it is their pleasure he shall produce. 'A dragon,' shouts some bold little beauty, while a murmur of approbation arises, and every eye is fixed on the artist. Little by little, the terrible creature grows out of the paste, a collection of unrelated details at first, which a few sudden touches complete as if by magic. Now some one calls for a gourd, another for a tortoise, a third for a man on horseback, and a fourth for a monkey swinging by its tail. It is a contest between the children and the old man, but they cannot nonplus him, try how they will. No matter what they call for, the ameya is equal to the occasion, and within three minutes his dexterous fingers conquer every difficulty which his audience may propound."

For the Indian jugglers, on the other hand, our author expresses an unbounded contempt, the best not being equal to "third-rate European conjurors." A not inconsiderable portion of the two volumes is taken up with scraps of history which have the appearance of being borrowed from a guide-book or an encyclopædia. At

* Drawing water from the rock "by means of a cleverly-hidden tap and the teacher's wand."

times they are inaccurate, and they are almost always unnecessary for the intelligent reader. In one chapter Mr. Pidgeon discusses at some length the Chinese question, and in another the relations of England to India; but in neither case does he contribute anything of value to the subject.

A Treatise on Rivers and Canals: Relating to the Control and Improvement of Rivers, and the Design, Construction, and Development of Canals. By Levisen Francis Vernon-Harcourt. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1882.

THIS book, which is based upon a course of lectures delivered by the author on river and canal engineering, professes to present in a simple and concise form descriptions of the principal and most recent works on rivers and canals, and the principles on which they are based. It takes up in a superficial way not only those improvements which relate to navigation, but various incidental works which are met with on rivers, including apparatus for dredging, different varieties of foundation work, and drawbridges. It has neither the merit of a systematic treatise from a professional point of view, nor the statistical completeness which would render it a good article in a cyclopædia. More space is devoted to the improvement of tidal rivers than to any other topic, and it is to be hoped that this branch, with which an English engineer ought to be especially familiar, is free from the defects which are prominent under other heads. The treatise purports to give a fair consideration to American as well as European works, but the author's evidently honest intention has, either from ignorance or from carelessness, been singularly thwarted.

Canals are divided in a somewhat arbitrary manner into inland and ship canals. The Erie Canal is classed with the former, as it should be; the Languedoc Canal, whose capacity is inferior to that of the Erie, its locks smaller and more numerous, and its summit-level more elevated, is called a ship canal, the only reason assigned for this singular distinction being that the Languedoc Canal joins two navigable rivers which flow into different seas, while the Erie Canal does not. The author entirely omits from the list of American canals all those in Ohio and the Western States, and also the canal at Sault Ste. Marie, through which the entire traffic of Lake Superior has been conducted for nearly thirty years, and on which the largest single lock in the world is now in successful operation. More remarkable, however, than these deficiencies is the description given (page 399) of a lock constructed by M. Caligny at Aubois, in which, by an application of the principles of the hydraulic ram, the waste of water is very largely reduced, the saving, according to Mr. Vernon-Harcourt, being forty per cent. in filling the lock, and also forty per cent. in emptying, a total saving in both operations of eighty per cent! These percentages suggest a very important improvement: the lock should always be emptied and filled twice, the result of which would be that, instead of losing water, no less than sixty per cent. of the entire volume of water in the lock would be raised from the lower to the higher level of the canal, and a series of locks operated on this principle might make it practicable to introduce canals in regions where there is no supply of water for the summit-levels.

A less absurd but perhaps even more inaccurate statement is found in the portion of the last chapter of the book, which is devoted to the improvement of the passes of the Mississippi River. The description of this very important improvement, evidently condensed from Mr. Cothell's work, gives a reasonably accurate account of what was actually done. The improvement was made at the South Pass, which discharges only about one-eighth of the entire volume of the Mississippi River; the effect of contracting the outlet of this pass was soon felt in a reduced discharge, accompanied by an increased discharge through the larger passes, and it became manifest that in order to maintain the necessary discharge at the South Pass any enlargement of the other passes must be stopped. For this purpose submerged mattress sills were placed across the great passes near their heads, the effect of which was in no wise to decrease the flow through the great passes, but simply to prevent their enlargement by scour, the sills being so far below the surface that they did not in the slightest degree impede navigation in the Southwest Pass, while at this day the discharge through the South Pass is but slightly greater than when the works were begun. The author, who should at least have aimed at accuracy in so important a statement, describes these mattress sills (page 317) as closing the entrances into the two larger passes, and on the last page of the work, in speaking of the relative progression of the deltas of the large and small passes, states that the advantage of this has been abandoned at the South Pass of the Mississippi, "as the other outlets have been closed in order to provide for the increased scour." We may, perhaps, imagine what would be the effect of forcing the entire discharge of the great Mississippi River through the South Pass, whose banks, barely 700 feet apart, are composed of the alluvial material of the Mississippi delta, and which form narrow barriers only a few inches high between the river and the gulf.

The book is handsomely printed at the Clarendon press, and illustrated with twenty-one plates, many of which appear to have been carefully prepared, and all of which are executed in a style worthy of a more thorough work.

Moderne Geister. Literarische Bildnisse aus dem neunzehnten Jahrhundert. Von Georg Brandes. Frankfurt-am-Main: Rütten & Loening. 1882. 436 pp.

THE four most celebrated living Scandinavian writers are unquestionably Björnson and Ibsen in Norway, Viktor Rydberg in Sweden, and Georg Brandes in Denmark. Mr. Brandes is a Danish Jew, born in Copenhagen in 1842. He entered the University with distinction in 1859, and began to study law, but soon became so deeply interested in philosophical, literary, and æsthetical subjects that since 1861 he has devoted himself exclusively to these studies, and it may be said that no other living Dane has contributed so much as he to the present physiognomy of Danish philosophy and letters; nor has any one else done so much for the development of cosmopolitan ideas in the North. In 1863 he won the gold medal of the University for a prize-essay on æsthetics, and in 1864 he took the Master's degree in æsthetics *cum laude præcipua.* His first volumes were 'Æsthetiske Studier' (Æsthetic Studies), published in 1868, and 'Kritiker og Portrætter' (Criticisms and Portraits) in 1870. They consist of a series of literary characterizations and dramatic criticisms, and give evidence of an unusually keen critical faculty. One of his earliest labors was to translate into Danish John Stuart Mill's 'The Subjection of Women,' in the preface to which he declares that "the same indignation against the crudeness of existing social conditions which induced the author to write the book, has compelled the translator to do what he can to spread the ideas contained therein." In 1870 he also published his 'Den Franske Æsthetik i vore Dage' (French Æsthetics in Our Time), and for this performance the University created him Doctor of Philosophy. This excellent work is chiefly devoted to Taine, to whom Brandes applies in a most skilful manner Taine's own methods and principles. Brandes's principal work, which has contributed most to give him an international reputation, is his 'Hovedströmninger i det 19de Aarhundredes Literatur' (Main Currents in the Literature of the Nineteenth Century), of which four magnificent volumes have appeared, and two more are in press.

Brandes's writings are thoroughly imbued with the progressive spirit of the age, and consequently he has had a great deal of opposition to contend with from the ranks of the conservatives. Indeed, in spite of his popularity among the younger generation in Denmark, life there soon became unbearable, and he removed to Berlin, where he now resides. His reputation is firmly established in Germany, and he has long been a regular contributor to the *Rundschau* and other prominent German periodicals. Among his other published works, we may mention 'Forklaring og Forsvar' (Explanation and Defense); 'Sören Kierkegaard'; 'Danske Digtere' (Danish Poets); 'Esaias Tegnér'; his translation of Mill's 'Utilitarianism,' 'Ferdinand Lassalle,' and 'Benjamin Disraeli.' The last-named has been published in a poor English translation both in England and America.

'Moderne Geister,' to come to the work before us, is a collection of eight literary sketches, devoted to Paul Heyse, Hans Christian Andersen, John Stuart Mill, Ernest Renan, Esaias Tegnér, Gustave Flaubert, Frederik Paludan-Müller, and Björnstjerne Björnson. Each sketch is a masterpiece. The fact that Mr. Brandes has enjoyed the personal acquaintance of most of the eight authors whose portraits he has drawn adds a peculiar charm to the work. Many interesting episodes are given from his intercourse with them. Thus we have a fine description of his first meeting with John Stuart Mill in Paris, and of his subsequent visit at the latter's home in England. The sketches are greatly varied in style. In one, we find the stress laid chiefly on defining the author by his works; in another, Mr. Brandes makes a special effort to present a picture of the man as he lived and moved in the world; in a third, he devotes himself mainly to a psychological analysis; while in others, biography and history are the warp and woof of the sketch. The authors described represent no less than six nationalities, but they have one thing in common which is more easily felt than described—they are "modern spirits"; and though they may not all have been consciously wedded to the spirit of the age, still the modern progressive movement, in art, science, and letters, has been greatly stimulated by them. The works of Brandes eminently deserve to be translated into English, and, when they are, we predict for them an Anglo-American popularity second only to that which they now enjoy in Germany—which is saying much.

From Kant to Hegel. With Chapters on the Philosophy of Religion. By Andrew Seth, M.A., Assistant to the Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of Edinburgh. London: Williams & Norgate. 1882. Pp. 170.

THIS is an admirable little treatise, whether considered with reference to temper, style, method, or scholarship. As to the first, there is not a sneer, or a scarcasm, or an air of *hauteur* in the whole book toward any other philosopher. That a writer so prevailingly idealistic and Hegelian should not devote even an adjective to annihilating Mr. Spencer, or any other of God's humble

creatures in this wide philosophic field, marks a degree of virtue which we hope may find due recognition and imitation. Again, there is no attempt to be brilliant, witty, or poetic. Refusing to commend himself to the general reader who dabbles in philosophy, by being attractive, or even to awe him by technicalities, or over-refinement, or to fatigue him by great length, the author writes in a style which seems plain to the verge of dulness, till, after a serious attempt to grasp the condensed drift of exposition, the reader is rewarded by as much insight as perhaps can possibly be given by so brief and introductory a work. The author has taken a fresh, careful, and independent look at the leading works of the writers he discusses for himself, and has escaped the danger of blind and undiscriminating pupilage to any of them. Although agreeing with Professor Adamson in assigning a generally unacknowledged importance to Fichte and even Kant in the development which culminated in Hegel's 'Logic,' the chief importance of the thought of the latter is found in his philosophy of religion, respecting the relations of which to morality the author makes his most suggestive comments. We commend this book especially to those who may be still inclined to believe there is something in Hegel, but who quite despair of learning from Hegel himself, or from the inarticulate utterances of his thoroughbred disciples, what that something is. It would be, of course, rash to judge an author conclusively by a first work, written during the final years of apprenticeship to university teachers—especially so in this department—but we shall await with unusual interest Mr. Seth's further productions.

Lexikon der Reisen und Entdeckungen. By Dr. Friedrich Embacher. [A volume of 'Meyers Fachlexika.'] Leipzig. 1882.

THIS book consists of two parts: the first, embracing three hundred octavo pages, presents the lives of the prominent exploring travellers of all ages and countries, in alphabetic order; the second, of nearly one hundred pages, gives connected histories of geographical discovery in the various parts of the world. Particular attention is paid in both divisions to recent explorations, and the whole is marked by very commendable freshness. Fulness is also aimed at, great conciseness in style rendering it possible within so narrow a compass. The bibliography, including references to geographical periodicals as well as to special publications, is comparatively most ample. The connected sketches embrace all the periods from the voyages of Solomon's ships to Ophir to the abandonment of the *Jeannette* by De Long and his party near the mouth of the Lena. The lives include such ancients as Herodotus, Pytheas, and "Ktesias," side by side with Hesse-Wartegg (author of the 'Mississippifahrten, 1879–1881'), Purdy, and Kuropatkin. Omissions, however, occur, and among them such as even lenient criticism can hardly excuse. Thus we find no notice of Cam, D'Herbelot, La Salle, Orellana, Tristram, or Willoughby, travellers far above the average of those duly noticed. Benjamin of Tudela, the famous Jewish traveller of the twelfth century, is forgotten, while the insignificant recent peregrinations of a Moldavian Jew of the same name are recorded. To forget Reguly, and enter Xantus as "namhafter ungar. Naturforscher und Reisender," is, perhaps, not quite so bad. The *Trent* affair is forgotten under "Wilkes," and "Lynch" contains only the mention of that naval officer's navigation of the Jordan and Dead Sea, but no other particulars of his life, not even a date of birth or death. Names of places and titles of foreign books are, with rare exceptions, correctly printed. On page 289 we find "Vambéry" and "Kovest" (for Kövesd), and there also the inaccurate expressions "durch . . . Turkistan, Ferghana [which is a part of the preceding] nach Kuldscha" and "nach Bochara [the chief country on the Oxus], Samarkand und den Oxusländern," as well as the strangely exaggerated statement that Vámbéry acquired "die umfassendsten Kenntnisse in fast allen lebenden Sprachen."

The Simple Ailments of Horses: Their Nature and Treatment. By W. F. London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

THE purpose of this little book is to supply a want long felt by owners of horses, and it will be found especially valuable to those unable to obtain proper veterinary aid in time of need. The author has not only given his own experience, but has taken material from acknowledged authorities, and has compiled a brief and useful treatise which, without the use of technical terms, gives all necessary information for an amateur. Most of the ailments to which horses are liable are indicated, the symptoms are well described, and the advice for treatment is good. Probably the most valuable chapter is that on the nursing of sick horses, which contains much useful information, with a number of recipes and directions on this subject, so important and yet so generally ignored. At the end of the book is a list of prescriptions, with full directions for their use in every common disease, so that any person of ordinary intelligence can in an emergency (and with safety) be his own veterinarian. We think the volume a very instructive and desirable one for horse owners.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, Fanny. Prince Hal; or, The Romance of a Rich Young Man. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Longfellow, H. W. In the Harbor. Ultima Thule—Part 2. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Mickiewicz, A. Konrad Wallenrod: an Historical Poem. London: Trübner & Co.
Oliphant, Mrs. Lady Jane. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Packard, J. H. Sea-Air and Sea-Bathing. Philadelphia: Blakiston, Son & Co. 30 cents.
Von St., W. In Exile. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 60 cents.

Summer Reading.

WILLIAM PENN. By Robert J. Burdette, of the Burlington *Hawkeye.* 16mo (Lives of American Worthies), $1 25.

YESTERDAY. An American Novel. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

SERJEANT BALLANTINE'S Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life. Large 12mo, with portrait, $2 50.

THE OLD REGIME. By Lady Jackson. 12mo (uniform with 'Old Paris'), $2 25.

HEAPS OF MONEY. By W. E. Norris, author of 'Matrimony.' 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

THE REVOLT OF MAN. A Satirical Novel. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

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The First National Bank of Milwaukee, located in Milwaukee, in the State of Wisconsin, is closing up its affairs. All note-holders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.
Dated June 1, 1882. H. H. CAMP, Cashier.

NOTICE.—No. 3.—The First National Bank of Youngstown, located at Youngstown, in the State of Ohio, is closing up its affairs. All note-holders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.
WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.
YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 15, 1882.

No. 2,693.—The above Bank, No. 3, goes into liquidation on account of the expiration of its charter. The First National Bank of Youngstown, Ohio, No. 2,693, with a capital of $500,000 and surplus of $150,000, has been organized, and begins business May 16, 1882.
WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.
YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 16, 1882.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 13, 1882.

The Week.

ADMIRAL SEYMOUR'S long-delayed bombardment of the Alexandrian forts began on Tuesday morning, and after a feeble resistance the forts were gradually silenced and their magazines blown up, four having been destroyed up to noon, Alexandrian time, and with trifling damage to the fleet. What Arabi's object in fighting at all was does not yet appear, nor is there any sign of what he means to do next. Troops are apparently going forward both from England and India, and the Canal will be seized and guarded. The entrance of ships has been for the moment forbidden by Admiral Seymour, M. de Lesseps protesting against it as a breach of neutrality. Port Saïd is to be occupied, it is said, forthwith. The Sultan in the meantime plays his part, with that now somewhat mock dignity in which he is an adept, by sending a telegram to London, asking to have the Admiral forbidden to bombard, as a grave violation of his sovereign rights. If the Turks had any humor, one would call this grim joking; but they have not, and the capacity of the governing class for illusions seems to remain undiminished.

Of those who read the news of the bombardment of the fortifications of Alexandria by Admiral Seymour, many will be either glad or sorry. If the American public is to sympathize with either side in this quarrel, however—as it can hardly help doing in these days of telegraphs—it is desirable that its sympathies should take the right direction. An attempt is being made to persuade it that Arabi Bey and his Colonels and Notables represent the cause of Egyptian nationality against foreign meddlers, usurers, and oppressors. This attempt is based mainly on the stories of two Englishmen, Mr. Blunt and Sir William Gregory, but principally of Mr. Blunt. It is proper, however, to warn the unsuspecting against them. They belong to the class of fanatic "experts" whom it is dangerous to trust in the management of human affairs. Mr. Blunt has "Islam" on the brain. He knows a great deal about Islam, and, like the insanity "experts," he sees Islam in everything, even in Arabi Bey. He thinks this must be a revolt of the Arab believers against extortionate infidels. But facts are stronger than Mr. Blunt, and stronger even than Islam. We know what the condition of Egypt was under the late Khedive, before the foreign Control began; we know what it was before the present outbreak; and we cannot help drawing our own inferences. The late Khedive was simply the head of the gang of whom Arabi is now the head—the gang of Turkish and Arabic official scoundrels who have for centuries lived off the earnings of the peasantry. Ismaïl was the Tweed of the Ring. He borrowed enormously, taxed enormously, and enriched his creatures enormously. When his power of making "divvies" was at an end, he had to go, and then the European financiers took charge to secure the interest on their bonds. This was not the most desirable or defensible cause of interference, but the interference has done nothing but good. It has cleared the service of corruption. It has lightened the taxes, made their mode of collection humane, their amount and the time of their collection certain, given the peasants a sense of security, and the whole country such purity of administration, both financial and judicial, as it had never seen before. One single fact speaks volumes: it has abolished the extortion of taxes from the peasantry by the use of the raw cowhide on the taxpayer's naked back. These are the things which enrage Arabi and his men. They want to get at the peasantry again unchecked, as their forerunners have done for ages.

The probability which we pointed out some days ago, that France would keep out of the Egyptian scrimmage and let England do the fighting, has been almost converted into certainty by the later advices. Admiral Conrad has, it is said, been ordered to be present while Admiral Seymour is chastising Arabi, but he was not to join in the work. In fact, his orders much resemble those given to the French fleet off Dulcigno when the British were trying to force the Turks to evacuate the place last year. What is most curious about this programme is that French pride does not seem to be in the least wounded by it. Even those French journals, like the *Débats*, which mourn over it as a sign of French abasement, acknowledge that the course of the Ministry is justified by popular feeling. That Gambetta's fall was largely caused by his adventurous foreign policy, as revealed both in the Tunisian venture, which he approved, and in his negotiations with England about Egypt, is now made pretty clear. Both the Chambers and the public were afraid of a man with a foreign policy of any kind. They wanted to be sure of a quiet life. The present Ministry at first proposed to join England in intervention in Egypt, but England hung back, and suggested that the Sultan should be got to restore order, so as to avoid arousing the fanaticism of the natives. France recoiled from this because the reappearance of the head of the Mohammedan faith on the scene anywhere in North Africa would imperil French influence in Algiers and in Tunis. But the truth was that at that time neither France nor England thought the Egyptian crisis likely to prove serious. Since it has become serious the boldness of the French has disappeared, and they appear to be actually consenting to what it was supposed they never would consent to—the subjugation of Egypt by English arms alone.

It is not the dislike of war only, however, which is chilling French courage. Dread of Bismarck has much to do with it. Bismarck is now the *bête noire* of French politics, and he is more dreaded when he keeps silent than when he speaks out. It is now a settled tradition among Frenchmen that, though he may not wish to fight France at present, he is constantly trying to get her into a war with somebody, from which, whether vanquished or victorious, she will issue badly mauled, and that then, feeling assured of her harmlessness, he will go to work and reduce her in some way or other to a lower pitch of feebleness and humiliation than she has yet reached. The latest theory of his designs current in France is, that he means to solve the Turkish problem by moving the Sultan and all his belongings out of Constantinople, and establishing him at Cairo, to restore, in the midst of a Mohammedan population, the faded glories of the Khalifate. The creation of any such power in Africa would, of course, be a serious obstacle to the realization of those dreams of a New France in that region by which so many French heads are filled; and the scheme, therefore, has in French eyes a diabolical aspect not unworthy of its reputed author. Whatever be the cause, however, the world is witnessing, for the first time in a thousand years, a pacific and cautious France, which is stirred by neither fife nor drum, and is no longer drawn by the sound of the cannon. "Hang yourself, brave Crillon; we fought at Arques, and you were not there," wrote Henri Quatre to one of his friends. But the Crillons of to-day are not sorry to miss Arques or any other field.

Mr. Hubbell has written a letter to Mr. Curtis in which he emphatically declines to stop assessing Government employees, and gives a new reason for it which deserves general attention. He says that he has to assess office-holders because "the records of Congress show throughout all the Gulf States the systematic use of tissue ballots for purposes of fraud, the systematic throwing out of ballots cast, and the insertion of ballots not cast, the systematic defeat of the exercise of the right of suffrage, and every conceivable violation of law, for the purpose of thwarting the expression of the popular will." He therefore proposes to continue to collect money to "prevent these outrages" and "punish the criminals." The long and the short of the matter is that means must be provided for "smiting this crime against our common liberty," and the smiting is going to be done by the Congressional Committee; and any one who, like Mr. Curtis, attempts to cripple its operations, becomes "a most efficient ally of the Southern bulldozer"; and "there," adds Mr. Hubbell, "I leave you." A more impudent use of the "bloody shirt" was never made.

The *Herald* has rendered the community a very valuable service in bringing to light a book entitled 'The History of the Hubbells,' a genealogical work, giving an account of the family to which Mr. Jay Abel Hubbell belongs. It appears from this volume that the family is of Bedouin origin, and that Jay's ancestors, when wandering in the Valley of the Euphra-

tes, were known among the other tribes as the "Hubbas," and doubtless "assessed" a good deal, as the Bedouin custom is, over all the adjacent country. This must have been as early as the sixth century of the Christian era, for in the ninth century the Hubbas were in Denmark following the calling of pirates; and it must have taken at least three hundred years, in those days of slow locomotion and fixed habits, for a tribe of Bedouins to get so far north, and effect such a complete change in their ways as was involved in the substitution of the galley for the horse. They settled in England as freebooters, and finally changed their name to "Hubbell," and under this one of them came to America in 1647, and was the ancestor of our own Hubbell. The display in the latter of the old Bedouin and Danish passion for assessing is a very curious case of what the Darwinians sometimes call survival, and sometimes reversion.

The *Sun* has a despatch from Harrisburg containing the interesting information that Mr. Hubbell's Campaign Committee is trying to extort money by way of assessment from the managers and teachers and assistants at the Indian training-school at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. Among those assessed are one officer of the Army, one Indian, fifteen women, and half a dozen mechanics. As there is not one of the employees at the Carlisle school who owes his or her appointment to partisan influence, the application of the assessment system to them would seem to be based on the principle that everybody who draws money from the Government must be made tributary to the campaign fund of the ruling party. There is an air of thoroughness about this. It is, indeed, thorough in theory, but Mr. Hubbell will have to go a step or two further to make it so in practice. He ought to assess all the pensioners of the United States, and also all the Indians drawing annuities from the Government. If the party must have money, according to Mr. Hubbell's recent manifesto, to protect the American people against bulldozing, it ought to have a good deal of it; and nobody who gets a dollar from Uncle Sam should be spared. Mr. Hubbell has made a good beginning.

There was published last week in the *Herald* an interesting collection of evidence on the subject of "voluntary" contributions to campaign funds. It consists of the successive letters demanding money sent out during the campaign of 1880. First, in April, the poor Government clerk, with a salary, say, of $1,200, on which he has to support a wife and children, gets a letter informing him that the Congressional Committee thinks that, "under the circumstances in which the country finds itself placed," he will "esteem it both a privilege and a pleasure to make its fund a contribution, which it is hoped may not be less than $——." Having secured two per cent. of the $1,200 in this way, six months later comes a circular from Mr. Hubbell asking for "an additional one per cent." to make the "coming victory complete." Meanwhile the Republican State Committee are sending requests for "voluntary" contributions too. On August 27 they ask for "a contribution of $—— (one-half before September 3)," the amount fixed being three per cent. on the salary. September 13, the clerk receives a reminder of the previous letter. October 16, he is dunned again by a third letter, and asked to send on the money "by return mail," and finally, October 27, the Secretary of the State Committee, Mr. Glidden, throws off the mask altogether, and instead of sending a letter to the clerk himself, sends it to the head of the department in which he is employed. His letter encloses a schedule of names of employees, with the amounts "yet due" opposite each name, and winds up in the following significant terms: "The total unpaid at this date and due from the employees in your office appears to be ——. Your immediate attention to this matter is very important." In this way six per cent. is wrung out of the clerk. Six per cent. on $1,200 is $74, or very nearly an entire month's income. The beauty of it is the pretence that the whole thing is voluntary. Nobody does such a thing except under the severest pressure, and the pressure on the clerk is the severest that can be put upon any one: it is simply starvation for himself and his family, through loss of employment.

The House of Representatives in Committee of the Whole rejected an appropriation of $25,000 for a civil-service commission. The appropriation was moved as an amendment to the Sundry Civil Bill by Mr. Bayne, of Pennsylvania, a Republican. He said that he moved it because the President had asked for it, because it was to carry out an existing law, and because it would give members an opportunity to show whether the frequent and emphatic declarations of the two political parties in favor of civil-service reform had been made in good faith. Mr. Willis, of Kentucky, a Democrat, earnestly seconded Mr. Bayne. The debate was very short. Mr. Cannon, of Illinois, Republican, was opposed to all this sort of thing because, as he said, under the civil-service rules "college boys and college girls fresh from their books could stand a better examination than people who had practical experience." Mr. Neal, of Ohio, also a Republican, asked "what chance the soldiers who went into the Army and bared their breasts to the leaden storm in order to preserve their country, would have alongside of these fresh college-bred girls and boys in these examinations?" Mr. Cannon thought they would have "none at all," and thereupon both parties gave an earnest of their good faith in making repeated and emphatic declarations in favor of civil-service reform by voting against the appropriation for a civil-service commission. If the House votes as the Committee of the Whole did, President Arthur, who was scarcely less emphatic in his letter of acceptance and his message, but has since acted very much as if he had never heard of civil-service reform, may now say that he would have done something had not Congress pronounced against the whole scheme, just as General Grant said when he got tired of the reform he had commenced. It is the old farce, now repeated, however, before a more interested audience.

The Administration has been goaded by the charges made in and out of Congress that it has been trying to "stalwartize" the party by removals in the civil service, into publishing a sort of schedule of the President's doings in that field. It appears from this that out of 874 appointments made in nine months by President Arthur "only forty-nine" were owing to removals, while 428 were reappointments, and 446 were appointments to fill vacancies caused by death, disability, or the expiration of the term of office. Most of the removals too, it is maintained, were "for cause." But the return would be more satisfactory if it showed in how many cases officers whose term had expired were not reappointed. It appears clear enough from this that there is a growing fear in political circles of carrying on "rotation" by arbitrary dismissals in the old-fashioned style. More and more reliance has to be placed on the filling of places with new men on the expiration of the four years' term, and it was probably for this reason that the bill was introduced, which was defeated the other day, limiting the term of internal-revenue collectors to four years also. The dismissal of an experienced and efficient officer at the end of four years simply because his commission has expired, is, however, no more justifiable as a measure of administration than dismissal at any other time, although there is legal excuse for it.

The weather during the week was very favorable for the harvesting of winter wheat, which promises to be the largest crop ever gathered; for the growth of spring wheat, which is equally promising; and for the forcing of the corn crop, which is backward and uncertain. This news respecting the crops, the present and prospective ease of the money market (the surplus reserve of the New York banks having run up to $8,300,000), another call by the Treasury for $16,000,000 of the extended 6 per cent. bonds, and, on Tuesday, the news that the English ships had begun the bombardment of Alexandria—all these considerations contributed to help the upward speculation at the Stock Exchange. The advance in the price of stocks ranged from ½ to 9⅝ points. All classes of investments were strong, railroad bonds having advanced 1@8, and State bonds 1@6½ points, the latter the bonds of the State of Tennessee. Railroad traffic returns for the month of June and for the last two weeks were as a rule smaller than a year ago, but as the new crops begin to be moved an increase is to be looked for. The London and foreign markets were little disturbed by the opening of hostilities by England in Egypt, nor were the foreign exchanges here affected. Gold exports for this year are thought to be over, and some bankers think that within ninety days we shall again be importing gold. General trade was fairly good, and the outlook warrants the expectation of a large and satisfactory autumn trade. Anything like a general war in Europe would of course make an excellent market for everything this country has to sell.

Apropos of the circular issued by our Government, on the 31st of March last, explaining, or attempting to explain, why the International Monetary Conference was not to meet in April,

the French *Revue de la Finance*, in publishing it, remarks that "it is natural that America should seek to get European states to adopt bi-metallism, and France to resume the coinage of silver, inasmuch as she thus hopes to get rid of the large quantities of silver she is extracting from her mines, and the accumulation of which is causing depreciation; but it is impossible to understand how the French Government could allow itself to join the United States in a bi-metallist campaign. The reports of the Bank of France show that we [the French] have an abundance of gold for the needs of circulation, and that the coinage of silver would simply flood us with an inconvenient and depreciated money." In fact, there is little doubt that France may hereafter be counted out of the bi-metallic forces. In Germany, too, business men are growing impatient with the bi-metallic jeremiads, and are asking the Government to stop them and restore confidence by renewed formal adherence to its monometallic programme. The wails of the bi-metallists, however, grow louder as their cause begins to look more hopeless. The last London *Economist* reviews a pamphlet by the bi-metallic Mr. Ottomar Haupt, in which he appeals to England, in accents almost of despair, to become bi-metallic. He says the present state of things cannot last much longer; that the great countries must, if nothing is done to rehabilitate silver, "go over to the enemy—to the gold system," and "a frightful struggle for gold will then ensue," and he calls on England "to pause and take the state of things into consideration." The *Economist*, however, mocks at his calamity; points out that the Indian rupee is worth more now than it was a year ago; that silver will probably not depreciate more than it has done; that the gold countries will help to keep it up a little if need be; but that it will probably before long be only token-money throughout Europe, and that England cannot be expected to protect the silver of Mexico and Nevada at the expense of the gold of Australia, and India, and of the Gold Coast.

In his review of Mr. Blaine's diplomacy in South America, Mr. Belmont called attention on the 5th to a very singular fact in connection with the recognition of Calderon's Government. This recognition was the starting-point of Mr. Blaine's great diplomatic campaign. In a condition of general anarchy there was, of course, great difficulty in making any reasonable protest against the Chilians settling the terms of peace for themselves, and he considered it of the first importance that there should be some organized government in Peru, through which negotiations for a peace could be carried on. But the first question to be decided was, whether there was in existence any such government as Calderon's, in the possession of physical force sufficient to preserve order and give protection to life and property. Now Mr. Blaine was not without information as to this, for on May 5 of last year he received from Mr. Christiancy, who then represented the United States at Lima, a letter summing up the situation as follows: "The overwhelming majority of the people of Peru are opposed to the provisional Government (Calderon's) and still adhere to Pierola, and at present, if the Chilian Army should leave to-morrow, the only safety of the members of the provisional Government would be to leave with them." For four days Mr. Blaine meditated on this despatch, and then on May 9 he sent a despatch to Mr. Christiancy informing him that he had received Mr. Elmore as the "confidential agent" of this very "provisional Government," and telling him that if Calderon "was supported by the character and intelligence" of Peru, and was really "endeavoring to restore constitutional government," he might recognize him. This, coming in reply to his description of the Government as having no basis of any kind, Mr. Christiancy took as a hint that Mr. Blaine wanted Calderon recognized, and he obeyed orders, and in this way the State Department recognized as *de facto* a Government which it had just been informed through the regular channels had no existence in fact.

Mr. Gladstone's Ministry has received another trying blow in its defeat on an amendment mitigating the severity of the Repression Bill. As the bill stood it gave the police the right to search any house in the night or the day. In compliance with the remonstrances both of the Irish and the Radicals, he agreed to amend it by limiting this right to the daytime, except in cases in which there was reasonable ground for believing that a secret society was in session. The Tories and Whigs, however, would hear of no such concession, and they defeated the amendment, with the aid of renegade Liberals, by 207 to 194. This result was evidently due to its being unexpected. The whips did not expect the opposition, and counted on the support of the Irish who a few days previously had been suspended, and now revenged themselves by retiring to the gallery, and leaving the Premier to fight it out as best he could. The majority is small, it is true, but it is significant, because it is in part made up of Mr. Gladstone's own followers, on whom he had a right to count. It weakens him seriously, if it does not presage his resignation at no distant date. In fact, we should probably have heard of his retirement if it were not for the condition of Ireland and the crisis in Egypt, which would make either a change of Ministry or a dissolution of Parliament highly inconvenient.

The frequent interviews between the Sultan of Turkey and our Minister, General Wallace, attract great attention, and are even said to cause some excitement—at Constantinople, not here. It is a comfortable thing, after all, to have our foreign affairs in the hands of "old-fashioned statesmen," who are very certain to abstain from wild ventures. If Mr. Blaine were still Secretary of State, everybody would be apprehensive of some brilliant mischief. With Mr. Frelinghuysen in the State Department, General Wallace's mysterious conversations with the Grand Turk excite at most a little mild curiosity as to what the two gentlemen may have been talking about. There is no fear of "entangling alliances," and that sort of thing, as long as Washington's Farewell Address presides over our Foreign Office. The probability is that the Sultan wants to hear from General Wallace all he knows about torpedoes. After one of these interviews he is reported to have ordered the purchase of a lot of 200 of Mr. Berdan's manufacture. This would indicate that their talks are more likely to result in mercantile contracts than in diplomatic understandings. There will be no harm in this as long as our diplomatic representatives remain entirely disinterested parties in a pecuniary as well as international point of view.

General Skobeleff is dead, and it would be difficult to exaggerate his loss to a power like Russia, which has a very large Army and no good school of generals. The Russian Army is, as regards the high commands, very much in the condition in which the English Army was before the Crimean war, and to a less extent is still, and in which the Austrian Army was before Sadowa, and to a certain extent is still. That is to say, advancement above the brigadierships depends largely on Court favor, or family connection, or social influence of some kind, and in a very small degree on military qualities. The consequence has been in the case of all these three Powers during the whole of the present century that their campaigns have usually been disastrous or fruitless in the beginning, until, supposing the Army to have received an utterly crushing blow, as at Sadowa, the stern ordeal of war had weeded out the courtiers and brought the soldiers to the front. It was in this way that Wellington reached to the top in England, after several years of blundering, and it was somewhat in this way that Skobeleff came to be known in the late campaign on the Danube.

The value to one of the aristocratic armies of a general who has been proved, is, therefore, very great—indeed, almost inestimable. It means that as long as he is not too old, the next war will begin warily, skilfully, and without huge failures or disasters. Skobeleff was such a general to Russia. He had, too, come to the surface in the very prime of life, for he was under forty when he died, and had given probably more promise than any other young soldier of this century since Napoleon. What perhaps endeared him more than aught else to the Russian popular imagination was that he had made a display of the thing which is most dazzling in the military character, but of which Russian military annals contain but few examples—calculated audacity. The Russian Army has, ever since it made its appearance in European fields, been renowned for its steadiness, and for the tenacity with which it clings to the ground it occupies. But, except Suvoroff, it has produced none of the thunderbolts of war by which the national fancy is most impressed, and which seem to set science itself on fire with the fighting passion. Skobeleff was one of these. He was the only man in the Russian Army who seemed capable of taking it up and literally hurling it on the enemy; and probably in the next great war he will in many a trying hour be tearfully remembered.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 5 to TUESDAY, July 11, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate, on Wednesday, voted to postpone till December next the consideration of a national bankrupt law.

The River and Harbor Bill, as it was reported by the Committee on Commerce, in the Senate, showed an increase of more than $2,000,000 in the aggregate amount appropriated by the bill as it passed the House of Representatives. The total amount recommended is more than $19,000,000. The Senate spent the week in discussing the bill. The appropriation for the Hennepin Canal caused considerable debate. It was voted on Saturday to postpone the appropriation for the canal until a definite estimate of its cost could be obtained by a careful survey. An amendment was offered on Saturday, appropriating $500,000 for the improvement of the Potomac River flats at Washington and Georgetown. It was adopted on Monday.

At a caucus of Republican Senators on Friday it was agreed to consider speedily the House bill for the reduction of internal-revenue taxation, and to prepare amendments to it, providing for a restoration of the tariff duties on sugar which were in force before the last change—the effect being to reduce the duty about twenty-five per cent.; also amendments for the reduction of duties $8 per ton on Bessemer steel, and for a reduction on hoop-iron. The effect of this action by the caucus will be a prolongation of the session, as a long tariff debate is inevitable. Amendments in accordance with the resolution have been introduced in the Senate.

The bill for the expenses growing out of the illness and burial of the late President Garfield, as it finally passed the Senate, reduces the appropriation from $75,000 to $57,500, and the amount for medical services from $52,500 to 35,000. The President's physicians were severely criticised by Senator Vest, of Missouri, during the debate on the bill.

On Monday the Senate passed the House bill providing for a building in Brooklyn for the accommodation of the Post-office, Internal Revenue, and other Government offices, at a cost for site and buildings of $800,000.

Senator Frye, of Maine, has presented in the Senate a petition from the Board of Trade of that State, urging Congress to provide a Commission to inquire into the wants of the national mercantile marine, and to report such measures as would tend to the relief of this industry.

The debate on the Naval Appropriation Bill, which was continued last week, led to several warm passages-at-arms between members of the House of Representatives. On Wednesday an amendment was adopted which strikes out of the original bill the proviso limiting to $400,000 the amount to be applied to the repair of wooden ships, and provides that such repairs shall not exceed thirty per cent. of the estimated cost of a new vessel of the same size and like material. During the debate on an amendment to reduce the amount for the Bureau of Construction and Repair, Mr. Belmont, of this city, took occasion to review the South American policy of our Government. In his speech, severely criticising Mr. Blaine's "spirited" foreign policy, he said: "The diplomacy of this country from March to December, 1881, went far enough in the interest of the claimants and speculators upon Peruvian territory. . . . A hundred iron-clads in the harbor of Callao could not retrieve the unfortunate position in which this Government was placed by its State Department." $1,750,000 was finally appropriated to the Bureau of Construction and Repair, and any part of this sum not required for the specified purposes shall be devoted to the construction of two new cruising vessels of war. On Thursday afternoon, Mr. Robeson, of New Jersey, took the floor to close the debate, and devoted an hour to the vindication of his administration as Secretary of the Navy. He denounced in the bitterest language those who had criticised him, especially alluding in terms of personal abuse to Mr. Whitthorne, of Tennessee, who, as Chairman of Naval Committees in former Congresses, had been a persistent critic. Mr. Whitthorne made an angry reply. The bill finally passed the House, by a vote of 119 to 75.

After the passage of the Naval Bill, the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was taken up in the House of Representatives. The bill appropriates about $23,500,000. During the debate on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Bayne, a Pennsylvania Republican, made a telling attack upon President Arthur's use of the patronage, and coupled it with a plea for civil-service reform. In the course of the debate on Friday, Mr. Butterworth, an Ohio Stalwart, defended the Administration against Mr. Bayne's charges. He averred that never since the days of Washington had appointments been more carefully and judiciously made than by President Arthur. The speech led to an angry colloquy with Mr. Cox, of New York. The appropriation for the Board of Health, included in the bill, is very small, but an amendment was adopted on Saturday including small-pox among the diseases to be investigated by the Board. An amendment, by Mr. Bayne, of Pennsylvania, appropriating $25,000 to enable the President to carry out the provision of the Revised Statutes which authorizes a Civil-Service Commission, was lost, by a vote of 40 to 54.

The conference report on the bill to enable national banking associations to extend their corporate existence was presented in the House on Monday, and adopted, by a vote of 108 to 78.

The joint resolution, authorizing the President to call an International Conference, to fix on, and recommend for universal adoption, a common prime meridian, to be used in reckoning longitude and time throughout the world, passed a third reading in the House of Representatives on Thursday.

Mr. Deuster, of Wisconsin, has introduced in the House of Representatives a bill to regulate the carriage of passengers by sea, drawn up in accordance with the recommendations of President Arthur, in his recent message vetoing a similar bill.

At the first meeting of the Tariff Commission in Washington on Thursday, Mr. John L. Hayes, President, delivered the opening address. Commenting on the duties of the Commission, as set forth in the law establishing it, he said: "A radical or subversive change in the present general economic policy of the Government is virtually interdicted, and a judicious, not a revolutionary tariff, a revision, not a destruction of existing tariff laws, is declared to be the object to which our labors should conduce." The President was instructed to consult with the Secretary of the Treasury as to what expenses might be legitimately incurred. The Commission, in a body, called on President Arthur.

Secretary Folger has published a report in regard to the Doyle counterfeit bond plate, founded on an examination by experts. The report shows that the plate is counterfeit in every part, and that there could not have been any assistance rendered by employees of the Government, or any use made of the genuine plate.

Commodore Shufeldt, of the United States Navy, has been recalled from the command of the Asiatic Squadron. It is said that the recall was made at the request of the Chinese Government, which was offended at a critical letter written by the Commodore some months ago.

A statement having been made that Minister Lowell had tendered his resignation of the English Mission, an official denial was made at the White House and State Department on Thursday.

There is a dispute among the physicians who made the Guiteau autopsy. Dr. Lamb has made and published a report without submitting it to Drs. Sowers and Hartigan, who assisted in the work, and they accuse him of going beyond his authority. The published report is technical in its terms and in detail. It reveals nothing new as to the sanity or insanity of the assassin.

It is asserted in Washington that the body of Guiteau has been disinterred from its grave in the jail, and secretly conveyed to the Army Medical Museum, in that city.

Chairman Hubbell, of the Republican Congressional Campaign Committee, has written another letter to Mr. George William Curtis, President of the Civil-Service Reform Association, in which he denies that any office-holder is coerced into the payment of political assessments, and asserts that as long as election frauds continue in the South, he will continue to ask for these contributions from office-holders to maintain a Republican organization strong enough to prevent or diminish these outrages.

Notwithstanding the correspondence between Mr. Curtis and Mr. Hubbell, it is said that Government employees are sending in their assessments as freely as on previous occasions. The Navy-yards have responded with especial promptness. Southern postmasters have occasionally declined to contribute.

The Grand Jury convened at Washington on Monday to consider new evidence in the Star-route cases, which it is rumored will implicate a present United States Senator.

North Carolina Democrats, in their Convention on Wednesday, nominated R. T. Bennett for Congressman-at-large, and in their platform made the color-line the keynote of the campaign.

The Arkansas Republicans have nominated W. D. Slack for Governor. The platform opposes repudiation.

It is believed that the Stalwart Republican candidates in Pennsylvania will present their resignations at the next meeting of the State Central Committee, and leave it to the discretion of the Committee to take whatever action they think best for the good of the party.

A duel between two Georgia editors, Col. Lamar, of the Macon *Telegraph*, and Col. Howell, of the Atlanta *Constitution*, was averted last week by the arrest of the latter, with his second.

Michael Davitt, the Irish agitator, was given a reception by the Central Labor League of New York, Brooklyn, and Jersey City, in Union Square on Wednesday evening. About 10,000 persons were present.

The strike of the freight-handlers in the yards of the great railways leading to this city still continues, but the new hands employed have acquired more skill in their work, and there is less freight than usual to handle, so that the business of this city is not much impeded at present.

Crop reports from the West still continue favorable, though there are some discouraging accounts of the prospects in the "corn belt." The wheat harvest is in progress in many of the States, and an extraordinary yield seems to be assured.

The peach crop for that part of the State of Delaware traversed by the Delaware Railroad is estimated at 5,000,000 baskets.

By the collision of the tug-boat *John Lomas* with the excursion steamer *Scioto* on the Ohio River, near Mingo Junction, on July 4, more than seventy-five lives were lost. 700 passengers were on board the *Scioto*, which sank in three minutes. Intoxication of the boat's officers is said to have been the prime cause of the disaster.

The thirty-seventh annual session of the New York State Teachers' Association was held last week in Yonkers. About 200 delegates were present.

Mr. R. C. Watson, the referee, has adjudged the Columbia College crew entitled to the flags for which Columbia and Harvard were to have contested on July 3, at New London, Conn. He holds that Columbia kept the original agreement.

John Gilbert, the veteran actor of Wallack's company, was taken suddenly and seriously ill at his summer home in Manchester, N. H., on Wednesday night. He is very weak, but it is believed that he will recover. On Saturday his physician pronounced him out of danger.

FOREIGN.

The Egyptian crisis rapidly approached its climax during the past week. On Thursday afternoon, Admiral Seymour, of the British fleet, sent an ultimatum to the authorities of Alexandria, demanding the instant stoppage of the construction of the earth-works, under threat of opening fire from the fleet. The Sultan telegraphed the same day, holding the Khedive and Ministry responsible for the consequences of not yielding to the English Admiral's demand. The work was, however, continued, notwithstanding a denial on the part of Ragheb Pasha, until Friday morning, when it was stopped. On Saturday the Conference agreed on a formal invitation to the Porte to intervene in Egypt, and urged a reply before Wednesday. If the Porte refuses, or seems afraid to accept, 25,000 men will be concentrated by the intervening Powers, with a reserve of 75,000. The army will land at Aboukir, and will be divided into two parts. One will march on Alexandria. The other part will seize the railway at Damanhour, Arabi Pasha's only means of retreat, and will thus force him to fight or yield.

After apparently ceasing work on the fortifications of Alexandria for a number of hours, it was defiantly resumed, and Admiral Seymour was forced to extreme measures. Early on Monday morning he addressed a note to the Egyptian Government, demanding the temporary surrender of the forts at Alexandria for the purpose of allowing of their disarmament. He added that if the demand was not complied with within twenty-four hours, he would open fire on the city from the fleet. All vessels of neutral fleets were warned to leave the harbor; the captains of the British vessels were given their final instructions as to the details of the bombardment; the Eastern Telegraph Company transferred its office on board a ship; and every preparation was made for the first act of war. Throughout the day the Egyptians kept busily at work on their fortifications, and the military expressed their determination of fighting to defend the forts to the last, and then retiring to the interior of Egypt, where the preparations for resistance are complete.

When Tuesday morning came, no reply had been received to Admiral Seymour's demand. The penalty was then executed. At seven o'clock the bombardment was begun by the *Alexandra*, *Sultan*, and *Superb*. The batteries from the forts at once replied, but their shot fell short. These three vessels were soon joined in the cannonade by the *Inflexible*, *Téméraire*, *Penelope*, *Invincible*, and *Monarch*. Twenty minutes of such work sufficed to silence two of the forts. Great excitement prevailed among the inhabitants of Alexandria, and crowds hastened to seek refuge in the Palace. Soon the streets became deserted. The military, however, remained firm, though the forts slackened fire. About nine o'clock Fort Marsa el Kanat was blown up; the top of a tower at Fort Pharos was carried away, and many guns in that and other forts were dismounted. As the day progressed the fire from the Egyptians was less frequent. At noon the magazine of Fort Ada was blown up, and four forts in all had been destroyed. An hour later and not an exposed gun on any fort could return the fire of the fleet. The Moncrieffe Battery and Pharos Fort were completely silenced, and by 6 o'clock all the forts, except one or two inside the harbor, were equally powerless. At 6:50 o'clock Admiral Seymour suspended the bombardment for the day.

At the end of the first day's bombardment the casualties on the British fleet were five killed and twenty-seven wounded. The effect of the Egyptian shot upon the vessels of the fleet was almost inappreciable, except in one instance, where the *Inflexible* was penetrated. The men were mostly wounded by splinters. One of the events of the attack was the landing of twelve officers and men from the *Invincible*, under cover of the fire of the *Condor* and *Bittern*. They succeeded in destroying with dynamite the heavy guns of Fort Mex.

The Sultan has rejected the proposal of the Council of Ministers to appoint a delegate to the Conference. He complains of the lack of friendship shown him by England.

The cost to England of armed intervention in Egypt is estimated at more than $20,000,000. Orders have been given in India to prepare a force of 1,800 English and 5,000 native troops, including three batteries of artillery, for Egypt. Large siege-trains have been organized at Agra and Bombay.

Admiral Conrad, of the French fleet at Alexandria, has been instructed to remain passive, and only participate if provoked by some act or incident. M. de Freycinet, the French Premier, stated in the Chamber of Deputies, on Thursday, that France's preparations do not exceed the limit of necessary precautions, and that the consent of the Legislature would be asked before intervention should ensue. The French Agent at Alexandria has been instructed to do his utmost to prevent hostilities.

On Saturday the Government submitted a request to the Chamber of Deputies for a credit of 7,800,000 francs, for precautionary naval preparations.

A Montenegrin aimed a pistol at the Khedive on Thursday, but he was seized before he could discharge the weapon. He said that he mistook the Khedive for Arabi Pasha.

Five thousand Egyptians, under General Yusuf, have attacked the False Prophet and been defeated, losing 2,000 men. The False Prophet, with 7,000 men, is marching on Sennaar.

Mr. Gladstone met with an unexpected rebuff in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon. During the general debate on the Repression Bill, Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, offered an amendment to limit the right of search to the day-time, except in the case of secret societies. The Conservatives strongly opposed it. Mr. Gladstone declared that if the amendment was rejected he would have to consider his personal position. The Parnellites were not on the floor, but eight of them viewed the contest from the gallery, and refused to descend and vote. A number of Liberals were absent, not expecting any controversy over the bill. The ballot was taken and the amendment lost, by a vote of 194 to 207. Mr. Gladstone said that under ordinary circumstances he would have asked the House to postpone further proceedings, but in the remarkable state of Ireland he did not think it was right to take that course. Report on the bill was, therefore, finished at 11 P. M., and it then passed the third reading. On the same evening it passed its first reading in the House of Lords. The defeat of Mr. Gladstone caused considerable excitement in political circles, but even Conservative organs did not consider it a sufficient cause for a resignation of the Ministry, or dissolution of Parliament. Mr. Gladstone has decided to accept the decision of the House of Commons.

The Repression Bill passed its second reading in the House of Lords on Monday afternoon. In the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone, commenting on his rebuff, said that the defeat of the Government was unprecedented. The Government would use discretion in employing the powers given them by the Repression Bill, and he hoped it would not be necessary to employ all of them. Outlining his programme, he said that he had abandoned the hope of passing any of the bills mentioned in the Queen's speech, on the opening of Parliament, except the Corrupt Practices Bill. He said that it would be impossible to amend the Land Bill now, and, consequently, after the passage of the Repression and Arrears Bills, he should ask for an adjournment, probably until the latter part of October, Parliament then to meet for the purpose of discussing procedure only. He declined to answer any questions as to the Government's intentions in the question of procedure.

In the House of Lords on Tuesday the Repression Bill passed through Committee and its third reading without a division.

On Thursday night the House of Commons went into Committee on the Arrears of Rent Bill for Ireland, after a strong speech in its favor by Mr. John Bright. He expressed confidence in Mr. Gladstone's estimate of the cost and the means of defraying it from the Church surplus. He deprecated the manner in which the opponents of the bill had referred to the Land Act of 1881; expressed astonishment at the opposition of the Irish members to the emigration clause; believed that if the country became more tranquil the purchase clauses would go into extensive operation; approved the method of making advances, and declared he did not believe that the Land Act was a failure.

The Archbishops and Bishops of Ireland have issued a circular to the priests, directing them to discountenance the Ladies' Land League.

The famous Russian General Skobeleff died suddenly at Moscow of heart disease on Friday morning. He was only thirty-nine years of age. He was noted for his bravery and for the originality and daring of his campaigns. His career in Bulgaria was especially successful and romantic. Last winter he came into unenviable prominence through an indiscreet speech made in Paris, in which he avowed Panslavist sentiments and hatred to the Germans. The speech led to strained relations between Russia and Germany. Skobeleff was publicly rebuked by the Czar. He was buried on Monday.

Count Tolstoi, Russian Minister of the Interior, has instructed the frontier authorities to do all that is possible to facilitate the return of the Jews.

Nine thousand copies of a revolutionary proclamation, signed by a cousin of the Czar, were discovered on Thursday at the Ministry of Marine in St. Petersburg. Immediately after the discovery, the Director of the Department committed suicide.

A new Bulgarian Ministry has been constituted, with General Soboleff as President.

The Sultan of Turkey has presented General Lew Wallace, the United States Minister at Constantinople, with a handsome painting.

The Pope, in an allocution at the Consistory last week, said that the position of the Church in Italy was becoming worse than ever. He declared that the Italian Government was guilty of bad faith in refusing exequaturs to twenty Bishops whom he had nominated.

Two-thirds of the French Senate Committee on the Divorce Bill are opposed to the measure.

The principal leaders of the insurrection in Uruguay have been killed.

The total receipts of the Custom-houses of the island of Havana during the past fiscal year were $10,445,656, being a decrease of $1,460,284 as compared with the receipts during the preceding fiscal year.

The Amateur Rowing Association of Henley, England, decided on Wednesday not to admit the Hillsdale, Michigan, crew to races at the annual regatta as amateurs, in accordance with the English definition of that term. At the Marlow regatta, on Saturday, the Hillsdales beat the Marlow crew by a clear length. The Metropolitan and Mousley Committees have also decided against admitting them.

THE GLADSTONE MINISTRY.

THE Gladstone Ministry has reached its meridian in two years, which is sooner than was expected, considering the size of the majority on which it came into power and the enthusiasm with which its advent was hailed. The beginning of the descent to which all ministries come sooner or later, was marked on Saturday unmistakably by Mr. Gladstone's formal submission to the adverse vote on the search amendment in the Irish Repression Bill. The first acceptance of defeat is a confession that the period of vigorous aggressiveness is past, and that the Ministry has begun to stay in power, not so much because it has work to do as because nobody else is ready to take its place, or because the majority dread a general election. In the present House of Commons no Ministry but the Gladstone Ministry is possible. The Tories cannot count either on the recalcitrant Whigs or on the Irish any more than Mr. Gladstone can, although they get occasional help from them in harassing him. Every one knows there can be no new combination without an appeal to the country by a dissolution, and it does not appear that anybody is ready for this. It would mean a period of confusion and uncertainty, amounting to a real interregnum, at a moment of great national difficulty. The Irish question is far from settled, because it has to be settled in Ireland, and not in London, and the Egyptian question, which is but a small one when one considers only the suppression of Arabi Bey and his army, is an enormous and far-reaching one when one asks what is to succeed Arabi Bey and his army, and who is to settle what it is to be. In fact, the crisis is one in which a change of Ministry would be a veritable "swapping of horses when crossing the stream," to use that phrase of Lincoln's which has had more success than any other of his *mots*, and has now become a stock political illustration in every constitutional country.

The Ministry will, therefore, in the absence of any great catastrophe, such as the breakdown of Mr. Gladstone's health, run on probably two or three years longer, somewhat in the condition of what the French call a business Ministry, without force enough or unity enough to face any of the great measures of reform, such as the assimilation of the county franchise, or the reorganization of county government, or the creation of the new municipality of the city of London, which occupied prominent places in their programme when they took office. In fact, while we are writing there comes the rumor that Mr. Gladstone already contemplates resigning the leadership of the House of Commons, which would of course devolve on the Marquis of Hartington—a change which would certainly bring the Ministry no access of strength, though it might conciliate some of the more mutinous Whigs. It would indeed give the Cabinet still more plainly the character of a stop-gap.

This step of Mr. Gladstone's, if taken, will probably be due to his own recognition, which he half expressed the other night after his defeat, that a good deal of the hostility to his Ministry is in reality hostility to him personally. This has now really become a prominent factor in British politics, and yet any one who undertook to write the history of his administration, and had no materials but the newspapers of the period, would find it impossible to give any adequate explanation of it. The London Tory press exhibits it in a most rabid form, but it never furnishes what will appear to an outsider sufficient excuse for it. In fact, considering the hold that Gladstone has on the masses and on the religious middle class, the descriptions given of him in such papers as the *Saturday Review* and the *St. James's Gazette* appear to a foreign reader like humorous caricatures. But that these papers fairly express the feeling toward him of the bulk of the Tory members of the House, and that their language is but a very mild reproduction of that used about him in the Conservative sporting and military clubs, and in Conservative drawing-rooms, there is no doubt. Lord Salisbury's savage vituperation of him, which is unprecedented as directed by the leader of one English party against the leader of another, is but the terse editorial expression of the view of Lord Salisbury's social set.

This personal hatred of Gladstone, which in the Tory mind now almost takes the place of a political programme, is one of the most striking signs of the great change which is unquestionably impending in British politics. It does not resemble any other force which has hitherto influenced British affairs, and it does strikingly resemble the feelings which French Legitimists have ever since 1793 entertained toward Liberal and Republican leaders. Gladstone is detestable and detested because he represents that great flow of sentiment into politics which always follows democratization. He has never got over the loathing caused among the Whigs and Tories ten years ago by the phrase used in advocating the claims of the workingmen to the franchise—that they are "your own flesh and blood." Worse than this, he has recognized the fact, which the English gentry find it still difficult to believe or grasp, that the power in England has passed to the borough voters. His speeches are addressed to this class. It is to its religion and morality and to its social and political ideals that he appeals on the stump and in Parliament, and it recognizes him as its leader, and indeed one may say its apostle.

To understand how exasperating this is in Tory circles, it must be remembered that the theory on which Disraeli educated his followers into passing the Reform Bill of 1867 was that the newly-enfranchised voters would support the party to which they owed their enfranchisement, in obedience to a familiar political tradition, and that by making this "great leap in the dark" a Conservative measure it would cause no change beyond giving Tory chiefs larger popular support. It has made a prodigious change, however. It has brought a new power into politics, which is as yet only half felt, but of which only the Liberals get the benefit, and of which Gladstone, in the last stage of his career, is the chief representative. He represents, too, one other change which is well calculated to make a man obnoxious—and that is earnestness in politics. He has succeeded Palmerston, who had set in the Liberal party the *insouciant*, jocose tone about public affairs, and was in this ably seconded by Disraeli in the Tory party. Between the two, they had made the generation of English politicians which is now growing old, decidedly the most nonchalant since the Reform Bill. To this generation the appearance of Gladstone as a sort of John the Baptist—wearing camel's hair, living on locusts and wild honey, and giving notice of the coming of a new ruler—is disgusting in the extreme, and their anger is the bitter, grotesque, and noisy anger of the powerless and helpless.

The last though not the least of his offences is that he has, though perhaps unwittingly, laid open the Irish ulcer to the very bone, and demonstrated its incurability by any of the processes hitherto employed. It is owing to his feverish activity that the English public has been got to face the Irish problem as it has never faced it before, and ask itself for the first time since the Union whether it is possible for it to govern Ireland as it has been governed. The orthodox English view of the question for the past eighty years has been that expressed by Canning, when he cried, "Repeal the Union—restore the Heptarchy!" That view has clearly passed away, and its passing away is largely due to Gladstone's restless experimentation. He does not leave behind a contented or peaceful Ireland, but he leaves an Ireland which no English statesman of either party can hereafter dispose of by an Arms Bill or Repression Bill.

BOOKS ABOUT HEALTH.

THERE is no branch of literature in our day in which the activity is more constant than that devoted to popular instruction in the art of keeping healthy. There are periodicals devoted to it exclusively. Every year half a dozen books make their appearance, mainly at this season, telling us what to eat, drink, and avoid, how to live long, how to escape sickness, with sub-directions telling us how to chew, what time to go to bed, how many blankets we should sleep under, what sized pillow we should use, what time to rise, the proper temperature of our bath, how to rub ourselves on getting out of it, how often we should wash our feet, how much exercise we should take, and at what hour we should take it, what we should wear next our skin, and what kind of hat we should wear in summer. In fact, most of the books on health now closely resemble in minuteness of information the useful little manuals for mothers, regarding the care and treatment of children in the nursery, with which the world has so long been familiar. The adult who chooses to avail himself of them, consequently, need never take the smallest step in the care of his person without the best medical advice. There is nothing, from the brushing of his teeth in the morning to the blowing out of his candle at night, which he may not perform under professional judgment, without looking into the strictly technical books at all.

From one point of view the abundance of this hygienic literature is an excellent sign, because it shows the rapidly-increasing attention of the medical profession to the art of prevention,

which will probably before many years greatly overshadow, if it does not supersede, the art of cure, and which there is no doubt has of late outstripped the art of cure in efficacy, and stands higher in the estimation of all the older doctors. Telling people what to eat, drink, and wear, and how to work and play in any particular climate, is simply advising them, in Darwinian phrase, to adapt themselves to their environment so as to escape the remorseless law of natural selection, which makes such short work of those lower animals which pay no attention to hygiene, or are born with feeble constitutions or the wrong color. But then there is the danger of giving people more advice about their bodies than their minds can bear, and to this the literary doctors are undoubtedly exposing us. They have done much good, especially among the women, who fifty years ago lived in violation of even the elementary rules of a healthy existence. They have improved people's food and clothing a good deal, and have almost effected a revolution in popular habits in the matter of ventilation, for instance. But in the minuteness of the directions they are now giving about exercise, digestion, bathing, and the like, they are either deepening the morbid streak in the human mind, or leading people into mistaken and often injurious experimentation. Nothing, for instance, is more prejudicial to health than too much thought about health, and this the health literature of the day undoubtedly tends to foster. In fact, that it does not do more mischief among the men is probably due to the fact that most of them are so busy that they have no time to study their own sensations. An idle man who tried to regulate his life by the rules of any popular health manual, and watched the effect of his regulated food and his regulated exercise, would almost certainly become a hypochondriac; and that many who start with some trifling constitutional weakness do become hypochondriacs in this way, there is little doubt. In fact, with regard to the body, as with regard to the soul, there is much danger in casuistry, and rules of health are very apt to be the casuistry of the body. A man who ran to a spiritual director every day to find out the exact moral quality of each of his acts, and its bearing on his spiritual health, would soon find that there was but little spiritual health left in him, and the man who is constantly asking himself whether this or that is good for his body, and getting his answer out of a guide-book, is very likely to have an analogous experience. In fact, so true is this, that one of the conditions of health may be said to be the diversion of the mind from all thoughts about disease.

Another defect in the kind of literature of which we are speaking is the too great absoluteness of its teachings. There are but few health books, if any, read by the young. The young are generally well, and generally indisposed to introspection, either mental or physical. They find they can eat anything at any hour, and they find that the proper amount of exercise for them is the amount they like to take. They are not interested in indigestion, or sleeplessness, or any of the other ills for which the books seek to provide. If one happens to be with a party of young men in which the subject of food, or drink, or clothing comes up, one finds that it is discussed wholly from the standpoint of taste. They exchange views about what they like and dislike, and are immensely bored by observations on the hygienic quality of their tastes. Rules of health, in fact, are seldom perused or called for by anybody below the age of forty—at which, as the proverb says, "every man is a fool or a physician"—that is, he is either a person on whom health preaching would be wasted, as it would be on a cow or a horse, or a person who has through experience accumulated a body of hygienic doctrine of his own which no doctor can shake. Go into any company of middle-aged men, and listen to a discussion of meat or clothing, and you find that the question of healthfulness dominates the discussion. Each man's contribution to it is apt to be in the main an account of his own experience of what "agrees" with him; that is, he passes judgment on food, on dress, on exercise, on bathing, on hours of sleep, according to his experience of his subsequent physical sensations. It is this class, in fact, which buys and reads most of the health books, because it is most interested in morbid conditions of the body. But it makes the health books, with their *ex-cathedrâ* tone, very strange guides, when we discover that in such a company as we have mentioned probably no two men's experience is the same about anything. One finds unlimited cucumbers most refreshing, another the smallest piece of cucumber deadly poison. One finds tea late in the evening necessary to a good night's rest; another finds tea later than five o'clock in the afternoon fatal to sleep on the following night. One finds a light breakfast the best preparation for a good day's work and a sure cure for rheumatism; another finds a hearty breakfast indispensable to any activity, either mental or bodily, and the only safeguard against dyspepsia. One cannot dine later than two P. M.; another is miserable if he dines before seven. One cannot drink coffee; another finds coffee essential. Early rising clears one man's brain; it makes another stupid and incapable all day. One finds a daily cold bath the making of him; another tried it once and nearly died of it. One needs two hours' daily exercise for any effective brainwork; another finds the less he takes the better he thinks. So it is about tobacco and about alcohol, and about bed blankets and about woollen undershirts, and about almost every habit, article of diet, or of clothing. Not only are there, in the matter of physical health, as many tastes as there are men, but apparently nearly as many requirements. In fact, if we go behind the health books to the sources from which the authors extract their conclusions, we shall find that almost the only certain and unassailable rule of hygiene, which will bear universal application, is that pure air is good for the human animal, and that the more of it he has the better. All else is doubtful and disputed, or weakened by inscrutable peculiarities of individual constitution.

BUDDHIST ARCHÆOLOGY.

THE study of the sculptures and inscriptions found upon Buddhist rails and stûpas, or topes, recently discovered in India, has brought to light many curious circumstances relating to the early history of the Buddhist religion. There are three ruins which have been especially examined, and their history is now pretty well known to us. Taking them in order, we have the tope at Sanchi, near Bhilsa; the tope of Amarávati on the River Kistna, and the tope of Bharahut 120 miles southwest of Allahabad. It is needless to refer to the way in which these ruins were first discovered. We are indebted for our immediate knowledge of them to Mr. James Fergusson ('Tree and Serpent Worship'), and to General Alexander Cunningham ('The Tope of Bharhut').

When the account of the Sanchi tope was first published, so little was known of the meaning of the sculptured scenes on the pillars and rails that Mr. Fergusson wrote his book with a view to illustrate the old superstition of 'Tree and Serpent Worship.' Buddhism, in fact, was not understood, and consequently no explanation could be given of the scenes wrought with so much care and such surprising skill on the stone pillars and gateways of the topes. But now we understand that the worship is not paid to the tree or to the serpent, but that the tree is symbolical of the presence of Buddha, and that the vâgas, or serpents, are not being worshipped, but themselves engaged in adoring the presence of the Great Teacher. It is an important fact to have established, that, at this remote period and among these people, such worship was supposed possible—viz., the veneration of a presence not visible, but yet real.

Mr. Fergusson, in the first edition of his great work, supposed that many of the scenes depicted represented interviews or relations between Aryans and Dasyus—*i. e.*, between the newcomers into India and the old native races. This was the only explanation he could give of the differences in dress and appearance of the persons drawn in the scenes. It was a discovery of some importance, therefore, when Mr. Beal explained the scenes to be descriptive of events that had occurred in the history of Buddha himself. These stone-cut pictures are, in fact, records of various episodes that make up the life of Buddha, or else of events in his previous history. Among other notable instances of his self-denial is one given in many Buddhist books of an occasion when he sacrificed his possessions, his wife and children, for the sake of perfecting himself in the virtue of charity. This scene we find sculptured at Sanchi on the Northern Gateway, and the explanation of this became the key to much that followed. Gradually, it was found that the groups on the pillars, etc., were throughout descriptive of different scenes more or less familiar to the student of Buddhism, and that there was scarcely one of them that could not be thus explained.

This once admitted, we are able to refer these events, and the history in which they occur, to a period some time previous to the date of the tope. This is a satisfactory standpoint. As long as the records of Buddhism were fixed, as to date, only by literary evidence, there was always doubt and uncertainty. But now we rest on evidence of another kind: the style of architecture and the form of the very letters engraved on the stone afford a test which, in the hand of experts, cannot mislead us. We have, then, at Sanchi evidence that the birth and career of Buddha, as now related to us in books, were accepted and believed at the beginning of our era throughout central India, at

least. If we consider the meaning of this, we shall understand its importance. For instance, on plate xxxiii. of 'Tree and Serpent Worship' (second edition) there is a scene representing the miraculous incarnation of the Buddha by the descent of an elephant upon his mother. This is a cardinal point in the history of Buddhism. If, then, we are sure that this sculpture is as old as the first century of our era (Fergusson, *in loco*), we need not doubt that the dogma of Buddha's miraculous incarnation dates from a pre-Christian period. The same result follows with respect to the entire legend or legendary history, and so we may dismiss the argument of Dr. Eitel (in his 'Three Lectures on Buddhism') and Dr. Flanders (in his 'Christ and Buddha'), with respect to the late origin of these quasi-Christian particulars, as insufficient.

Were there any need to confirm the date given for the Sanchi sculptures, we need only refer to the lately published account of the Bharahut tope by General Alexander Cunningham. This tope is assigned without any hesitation by the author to the third century B. C., and among the sculptures we have the incarnation scene (pl. xxviii.) as plainly described as at Sanchi. The impression left on the mind by a review of the evidence afforded us by the Sanchi and Bharahut topes is, that the legend of Buddha, including his incarnation, renunciation of the world, temptation, and enlightenment, is of an independent origin, and of greater age than the Christian Gospel history.

It may be asked, therefore, whence arose the striking parallel which this Eastern legend does certainly present when compared with the history of Christ. To this it appears there is a reasonable answer. It has just been discovered that at the time of Buddha's preaching there was a republic of Northern invaders (or immigrants) settled in the valley of the Ganges, and that these were during Buddha's lifetime converted to his doctrine. In plate xxviii., fig. 1 ('Tree and Serpent Worship') we have a scene in which these Northern people act the principal part. They are the same as the Yue-chi, or the "White Huns," of the Chinese accounts. They are a curly-haired, gaitered race, corresponding with the Scyths of history. Now, these Scyths were at first a small and obscure people, settled on the River Araxes (Diod. Sic., ii., 375), and, afterward increasing in numbers, were divided into various tribes, and advanced west and south to the River Tanais (Don) on the one hand, and through Arabia and Palestine on the other, into Egypt. They were the same as the Cuthæans who settled in the neighborhood of Samaria. The name Scythæ is probably identical with the word Cuthæ, the sibilant *s* being prefixed as in numerous cases (stûpa for tope, Scoti for Cotti, σμικρος for μικρος, spike for pike, etc., etc.; the Sanscrit *var* and *svar* are identical). A portion of these Cuthæans migrated into India, where they were known as Sacæ, and from these probably sprang the race of the Sâkyas to whom Buddha belonged. These Scyths having their origin near the cradle of the human race, it is probable that they had preserved among them portions of the earliest traditions in the world's history, and among the rest fragments of a primitive belief in the birth of a Saviour or Deliverer, and his triumph over evil. There can be no doubt, or reasonable doubt, that such a primitive belief existed; and there is no reason why the knowledge of it should be confined to one family of the human race—*i. e.*, the Semites. The Cushites (sons of Cush) also inherited the belief—perverted it may have become, but never eradicated; and so we are prepared to find it in a mutilated form, but yet strong even in its obscurity, springing up among and shaping the religious belief of the descendants of the people among whom it was originally preserved. Hence we find it among the Sâkyas of India, the Cushites of Samaria, and the Northern tribes who were scattered throughout the valley of the Ganges at the time of Buddha's advent. This explanation of the difficulty of the parallel features in the history of Buddhism and the Gospel narrative appears to be sufficient for all purposes. The existence of such traditional knowledge of the birth and triumph of a Saviour cannot by any argument be disproved, and the phenomena which present themselves in the existence of Buddhism at the present time exhibit the vitality of such a belief even in its imperfect form.

There is one curious point in the history of these Scyths, or Northerners, in the valley of the Ganges, which we cannot pass by without notice. They were republicans, occupying various important towns, of which the city of Vaisâlî was chief. They were called the Samvajjis, or "United Vajjis." We are told, in an interesting episode that occurs in Buddhist literature, what their character and mode of government were. It is worth transcribing. So long, said Buddha, as the Vajjians hold full and frequent public assemblies, they will prosper. So long as the Vajjians meet together in concord and carry out their undertakings in concord; so long as they act in accordance with old institutions established in former days; so long as they honor, esteem, revere, and support their old men, and hold it a point of duty to listen to their words; so long as they give liberty to their women, and detain none among them by force; so long as they revere and support their religious edifices, and allow not the proper offerings and rites to fall into desuetude; so long as they protect, defend, and support their religious teachers, and allow others from a distance to enter their realm and live at ease among them—so long as they attend to these duties, they may be expected to prosper and not decline.

Here we have a picture of the polity ("free discussion" and "religious toleration" are two of the leading points) of these republicans before the Christian era. Doubtless much that we read in Strabo and Homer about the piety of the Getæ and the Æthiopians (the Ye-tha of the Chinese, the Yue-chi or Sacæ) may be accounted for in this way. They inherited religious traditions, and they had not let them slip; and from these traditions not only sprang the present fruit of a well-regulated government, but also the treasured belief in the birth of a Deliverer and Teacher, who should appear at the right time, and come as he had been promised, for the world's good.

In conclusion, it is remarkable to find in the Sanchi sculptures that the flag used by these republicans was one with "stars and Union Jack" combined. This can be seen in plates xxviii. and xxxviii. of Mr. Fergusson's work, and is thus described by that writer: "Their banner, with its 'stars and stripes,' or rather stars and Union Jack combined, may be local and peculiar to Sanchi" ('Tree and Serpent Worship,' p. 136, 2d ed.). But it is not peculiar to Sanchi; it is seen at Bharahut (plate xxxii., fig. 4), and it has been discovered—viz., by Mr. Beal in his examination of the Brahmajâla Sûtra—that this flag represents the Standard of Indra, the Lord of Heaven; the stars denoting the universe over which he rules, and the combined crosses the eight divisions of space. Thus the flag denotes the supremacy of Indra, as the "Lord of Heaven," over the field of creation. It is certainly one of the many remarkable coincidences which occur between Buddhism and modern history, that such a flag should have been adopted by the Sons of the Sacæ, united as a republic in India at this early period, as a type of their combined nationality and their righteous government. *Faveat omen!*

PARALYSIS OF PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT.

LONDON, June 29.

SIX weeks have now been spent over the Prevention of Crime Bill, as the new measure for checking outrages and conspiracy in Ireland is called, and the House of Commons has disposed of only half the clauses it contains. It is intended, as your readers will probably remember, to replace the act passed sixteen months ago, under Mr. Forster's auspices, by which the Irish Government was empowered to imprison without trial persons reasonably suspected of certain offences—an act under which outrages had not diminished, and which was regarded both in England and Ireland with constantly growing dislike. The present bill is in some respects a stronger, in others a milder measure. It is milder, in so far as it recognizes every man's right to be tried, permitting no prolonged arbitrary detention on mere suspicion. It is stronger in that it creates certain new offences which it empowers the local resident magistrates to try and punish, and provides for the trial of certain other offences by a commission of judges instead of by a jury whenever the Lord Lieutenant shall be of opinion that a fair trial cannot be had before a jury, besides conferring powers of searching houses, of arresting persons found after dark under suspicious circumstances, and of preventing public meetings thought dangerous to the public tranquillity. In fact, it almost amounts to a supplementary criminal code for Ireland; temporary, however, for its operation is limited to three years.

Although many of the provisions of this bill had been considered months ago, under Mr. Forster's reign, and it was to some extent prepared before the Phœnix Park murders, there can be little doubt that Mr. Gladstone's Government would not have brought it forward in its present form except under the pressure of that catastrophe, and of the horror and anger which it evoked in England. Nor would anything less than that catastrophe have enabled them to pass it, as they now seem likely to do, practically unmodified. The assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, coming so suddenly after the announcement of a policy of conciliation, and still more the failure of all attempts to discover its perpetrators, well known as they must have been to many persons in Dublin, brought to a head the rising indignation of the English upper and middle class at the impunity which crime has enjoyed in Ireland, and made them willing to adopt almost any means, however violent, for checking it. If the Government had proposed to suspend the ordinary law altogether, and hold drum-head courts-martial over Ireland, they would have found support from the whole Conservative party in the House of Commons, and from a good many of their own adherents. Those who disapprove of their present bill may be asked to remember that it is a far more gentle remedy than many influential voices demanded.

By the Nationalist party in the House of Commons—that is to say, by those thirty to forty Irish members who with more or less individual independence follow Mr. Parnell—it was of course received with vehement hostility. It came very opportunely for them, for Mr. Parnell was in some danger of being discredited with the extreme section of the Irish by his release from prison, after communications with Mr. Gladstone's Government in which he had expressed friendliness to them and a willingness to accept their remedial measures. An Irish leader holds

his post on condition of perpetual combat. He dares not conclude even a truce with what is called "the English Government." To attack and revile that Government, to impede and exasperate the English Parliament, are the main purposes for which he is sent to Westminster, and if he swerves from them, he is liable to be first deserted and then superseded in favor of some more violent and reckless partisan. The moment, therefore, at which Mr. Parnell showed the most statesmanlike view of the situation, and the greatest willingness to obtain by coöperation with the Government substantial benefits for Ireland, was the moment when he ran the greatest risk of losing his hold on his countrymen, or at least on that part of them which professes to act for the whole. Now, the Prevention of Crime Bill was so severe that it gave him fair ground for resuming his attitude of hostility, and enabled him, by the tenacious opposition which he and his friends have offered, to show that there was no compact between him and the Government, no abandonment of the old programme. In this opposition the Irish Nationalists did not at first stand alone. Many English members thought the bill needlessly severe. They were quite prepared, after the Dublin murders, to support any measure, however searching, which promised to grapple with the great evil and danger of the situation—namely, the difficulty, one may say the impossibility, of discovering the perpetrators of agrarian outrage. But they remarked that a comparatively small part of the bill dealt with this problem, a large part going rather to provide different modes of trying prisoners already detected, and heavier penalties for them if convicted. Hence, both on the second reading and in the first days of Committee, several Liberal members, belonging as well to the so-called Whig section as to the more advanced section, spoke, and a still greater number voted along with the Irish Nationalists against the Government. More than half the minority by which the proposal to try treason without a jury was resisted came from the Ministerial side. When, however, it became plain that the Nationalists were using all their resources to delay the passing of the bill by multiplying amendments, and by debating every amendment at immoderate length, the English Liberal Opposition became gradually silent. Admitting that some measure was called for, and perceiving that the Government, with the help of the Tories, was sure of carrying this one, they seem to have concluded that the sooner it was passed the better, and to have desired to dissociate themselves from the obstructive tactics which Mr. Parnell's followers were adopting.

These tactics have been much more skilful than they were upon Mr. Forster's Coercion Bill of sixteen months ago. There has been no obvious and deliberate talking against time, no dilatory motions, unless one can call by such a name the demand that sittings shall not continue later than one A. M. Hence there has never been a time when the chairmen of committees could fairly say that regular obstruction of the old type was being employed, or when the Government could insist that some extraordinary remedy should be applied. However, as not much more than half the bill has been despatched after nearly a month's work, the impatience of English and Scotch members, who see that this session is being utterly lost for all English and Scotch purposes, is becoming very great. Appeals are frequently made to the Government to propose the reënactment of the "Rules of Urgency" of last session, under which the Speaker becomes a temporary dictator, with power to guide the proceedings so as to save time and shorten discussion. But as the Irish members would take up four or five nights at least in discussing the proposal for urgency, it is not clear that much time would be gained by this expedient. Meantime, the sense of irritation, the indisposition to listen to anything, wise or foolish, from the Irish members, grows apace. Debate has become a mere wrangle between some five or six of them, reinforced occasionally by the others, and Sir William Harcourt, who, as Home Secretary and a lawyer, conducts the bill for the Government. Every line of the measure is fought, and no clause passed without several divisions.

The whole affair illustrates very completely the unsatisfactoriness of legislation by an English Parliament for Ireland. Very few of the English members know anything about the points that are raised by the Parnellite opposition. Most of them are of course content simply to follow the Government, and thus to abnegate their duty of taking an independent view of questions which are often really important. This naturally irritates the Irish members, and would be condemned by an observer from any other country. It is the reproach which Ireland always brings against the English Parliament. But, on the other hand, those Englishmen who desire to master the questions involved, and seek to make this new criminal code for Ireland a better code, get no real help from the Nationalist members, for the latter insist with equal vehemence on small points as on great ones, intersperse their arguments with attacks on England and the Government which are usually irrelevant and sometimes insulting, and discuss everything at such inordinate length that human patience gives way. With plenty of ingenuity and cleverness in detail, they show little skill in the strategy of their whole campaign. Sometimes, indeed, people accuse them of not wishing to have any English help, but rather to increase the exasperation of the fiercer spirits in both countries by repelling all sympathy which comes from this side of the Channel, and so accelerating an ultimate separation.

While this is the state of things inside Parliament, the country outside has got tired of watching the House of Commons, and begins to think there must be something terribly wrong, either with representative government in general, or at least with our parliamentary machine. There has rarely been a Parliament from which so much was expected as from this one when it met in May, 1880. It contained an unusual number of energetic and experienced men. The majority which one party enjoyed in it was sufficiently large to make legislation seem easy. That majority was known to be firmly, indeed enthusiastically, attached to its leader. Foreign and colonial complications were disappearing, so that there was every prospect that the whole strength of the Legislature could be turned on to the work, which had lain in abeyance during Lord Beaconsfield's reign, of passing domestic measures of social and constitutional reform. Something was done in the first session, though a large part even of that session was spent on an Irish bill which the House of Lords ultimately rejected. But last session everything was sacrificed to the Irish Land Bill, and this year nothing will be accomplished. The country, which sees that the Liberals are still in a large majority, and that this majority continues loyal to the Government, does not understand why these constant dead-locks happen. It still has faith in Mr. Gladstone—that is to say, the mass of the people who believed in him in 1880, believe in him still; for the richer classes who generally hated him then, hate him fully as much now. And just because it does trust the Prime Minister, and is unwilling to suppose the blame to lie with him, it thinks very ill of its present parliamentary system. Very fortunately there are no pressing domestic questions. Although the agricultural classes have been suffering, their mishaps are due partly to the competition of your Western farmers, partly to a run of poor harvests; so that legislation could not do much to mend their condition. Trade is fairly good, the working classes are pretty well contented; nobody has any pressing grievance to be dealt with. For these reasons the paralysis of the Legislature is borne with more patiently than might have been expected. But it will not be so borne for long. Unless Parliament is made a far more efficient machine for legislation than it has latterly been, the disgust with it will dispose the nation to throw far more power either into the hands of local authorities, or (and this is the more probable alternative) into those of the head of the executive. If Parliament is incapable, owing to its faulty procedure and the interminable dissensions of which it is the scene, to conduct the government of the country, the Prime Minister will tend to become a dictator. It will be strange indeed if the Irish members should give this turn to the development of the British Constitution. Y.

MADAME D'ÉPINAY.

PARIS, June 9, 1882.

No name is more attractive in the eighteenth century than that of Madame d'Épinay. She embodies, as it were, all the spirit of an age, all its wit, its grace, its illusions, its faults, and its charms. She was plain, very plain, as her portrait shows; but she had "la grâce, plus belle encore que la beauté," to use the words of Voltaire. M. Lucien Perey and Gaston Maugras, who published last year the correspondence of the Neapolitan Abbé, Galiani, became very much interested in Madame d'Épinay, who was the faithful friend and correspondent of Galiani. They found out a M. Édouard d'Épinay, great-grandson of Louis de la Live d'Épinay; they made the journey to Fribourg and Grandfey, a little château in the neighborhood of Fribourg, and they discovered there some letters and documents which were still inedited. They made researches in our archives and in some private collections of autographs. The authors of this new volume* have taken much trouble in collecting many details concerning Madame d'Épinay. They have really not given us a new Madame d'Épinay; they have not added even any important touches to this curious historical figure; but it is now the fashion to write books of certain personages without any provocation. The eighteenth century is the fashion, and it must be confessed that we always like to live for a little while in imagination in a society which, with all its defects, had a charm unknown to our time.

Mlle. d'Esclavelles, who was to be Madame d'Épinay, was born on March 11, 1726, at Valenciennes (the authors of the book have carefully certified this date). Her father was a veteran soldier, who, in his old age, had been appointed governor of the citadel. When the child was ten years old, the family came to Paris. The sister of Madame d'Esclavelles had married a *fermier-général*, M. de Bellegarde, who was very rich, and had a splendid house in the Rue Saint-Honoré. The wretched character of Madame de Bellegarde made Mlle. d'Esclavelles very unhappy. She could not remain with her, and was placed in a convent by her tutor, M. d'Affry. Madame de Bellegarde died suddenly, and from that time the house of M. de Bellegarde became hers. Her cousin, M. de la Live, who married her afterward, took at that time the name of D'Épinay, from an estate which his father had bought for him near Saint-Denis. She was thought by her family to have made a *mésalli-*

* 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Epinay. D'après des lettres et des documents inédits.' Avec un portrait. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

ance, but D'Épinay had the promise of the *survivance* of the place of *fermier-général* of his father Bellegarde. He was handsome; he was amiable. The honeymoon was not long. Young D'Épinay very soon returned to the society of his friends and of his former mistresses. He went out every night and returned very late, sometimes drunk; he stole the pocket-money which Madame d'Épinay kept in her own secretary; he played constantly. Madame d'Épinay was very unhappy at first, but all her friends told her that it was not in good taste to take such trifles tragically: D'Épinay took his freedom, and she could take hers. She allowed her husband to take her to the Opéra ball; she received her first love-letters from the intimate friends of her own husband. D'Épinay was obliged to travel for months in France in the exercise of his functions of *fermier-général;* he told his wife on his return of all his "successes" (*bonnes fortunes*) in the provinces. What an education for a young, sensitive, naturally refined, and delicate young woman. There are some things which cannot be repeated, and which proved to Madame d'Épinay that her frivolous young husband was absolutely devoid of moral sense; he was a naïvely corrupt child, and all the elegance of the *fermier-général* could not conceal the terrible vulgarity of his nature.

Madame d'Épinay retired to the Chevrette, a place in the country which owes its fame to her. She was not reconciled to her position; she was alarmed by the follies of her husband. Whenever she made a visit to Paris she had some new proof of his infidelity. On September 29, 1746, she had a son, but, after the fashion of the time, the child was immediately sent out to nurse. D'Épinay tried at times to console her. "My dear friend," said he, "you have no notion of the world and of its usages. Is there anything in common between a creature who can be had for money and whom you leave when you don't want her any more, and a woman whom you esteem and whom you have chosen?" He cited the names of all his friends who had mistresses. Madame d'Épinay could only answer by crying.

Mlle. de Bellegarde, who was a great friend of Madame d'Épinay, married M. d'Houdetot, and the history of this marriage, as told in 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay,' is very characteristic. The two young people had absolutely nothing to do with the arrangements. The two families met before them, talked and discussed like notaries, and they had nothing to do but to assent. D'Houdetot made his wife very unhappy; he had a mistress, and kept her. He was brutal; he gambled constantly, and he contrived to spend the greater part of his wife's fortune. He was obliged to accept, as the world did before him, the *liaison* of his wife with the famous Saint-Lambert. The friends of Madame d'Épinay were no better than her relatives. One of the worst was the famous Mlle. d'Ette, of whom Rousseau says: "She was wicked, and lived with Valory, who was not good." Diderot compares her, on account of her beautiful complexion, to a cup of milk spread over with roses. "The Chevalier de Valory," he says, "took her from her father's house when she was fourteen; he lived with her, dishonored her, gave her children, promised to marry her, and abandoned her."

Madame d'Épinay had a daughter in June, 1747. Her husband was away at the time in the provinces; she was living with Mlle. d'Ette, with Valory, and with Francueil. Mlle. d'Ette soon perceived that Francueil was in love with Madame d'Épinay, and she saw in this passion a way of establishing herself in Madame d'Épinay's house. She became the confidante; she helped Francueil; she informed Madame d'Épinay of her husband's conduct. There are some details concerning this wretched profligate which I cannot repeat here, and which must be sought in the book. It is enough to say that, if any woman ever can have an excuse for breaking the ties of matrimony, Madame d'Épinay had it. She was naturally good, and even innocent; but she was finally spoiled, like a good peach among rotten peaches.

Francueil became her consoler. He was one of the most accomplished gentlemen of his time; he was handsome, intellectual, a good musician, a good actor, passionately fond of art, of letters, of science. He was the eldest son of Dupin de Chenonceaux, a *fermier-général*, who had one of the best houses in Paris (he lived in the Hôtel Lambert, now inhabited by Prince Ladislas Czartoryski). Friendship soon became love. M. d'Épinay, on his side, continued his disorderly life. The "séparation de biens" (separation of fortunes) was pronounced between them by the Châtelet of Paris on May 14, 1749. D'Épinay's conduct became so gross that the Minister exiled him to Poitiers by a *lettre de cachet*. Madame d'Épinay became absolutely free; she became acquainted with Duclos, with Mlle. Quinault, with the Comte de Caylus. Duclos was the son of a watchmaker; he was born at Dinan, in Brittany; he made himself famous by his wit at the Café Procope, in the Latin Quarter, where he lived with Crébillon, Piron, and others; he was received into the best society. Duclos soon became a very important *arbiter elegantiarum* at the Chevrette. He was in love with Madame d'Épinay, or affected to be; she was imprudent enough to confess to him her passion for Francueil, and Duclos profited by it and became a sort of tyrant. Mlle. d'Ette describes thus life at the Chevrette: "One hears nothing here but comedy: one repeats his part, another tries on a dress; everybody is in love. This society is like a moving novel. Francueil and the little woman [Madame d'Épinay] are drunk with love as on the first day. Gauffecourt, the old dog, makes languid court to the indolent Madame de Jully. . . ."

The moral sense of Duclos was very obtuse, to use the mildest expression; he treated Madame d'Épinay with a *sans-gêne* and a brutality which are perfectly revolting. Still, she did not know how to get rid of him. She fortunately made the acquaintance of Grimm, at a moment when her difficulties had become extreme. Her fortune was greatly compromised by the prodigalities and vices of her husband. The good M. de Bellegarde, her father in-law, had died; her sister-in-law, Madame de Jully, had made herself notorious by a passion for the actor, Jélyotte, and had died of the small-pox; Francueil, the beloved Francueil, was unfaithful, and spent much of his time with the dancer who was the mistress of M. d'Épinay—it seemed amusing to him to be his rival everywhere. When Madame d'Épinay learned this last news from the mouth of Duclos she became ill, and she dismissed Francueil forever. Grimm saved her. He took by degrees possession of her soul; he dictated her conduct; he banished Duclos; he warned her against Rousseau; he surrounded her with an intelligent society, with less frivolous people. "It must be admitted," say the authors of 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay,' "that Grimm conducted himself admirably with Madame d'Épinay. He remained her most faithful, her safest friend; but we believe he was not in love with her. The true passion of his life was the Empress Catherine."

Rousseau was very ungrateful to Madame d'Epinay. He read the manuscript of his 'Confessions' in the winter of 1770–1771 in various houses in Paris. In these 'Confessions' he was very hard on Madame d'Épinay; he went so far as to say that, if he had refused to accompany her to Geneva, it was because she went there in order to conceal the birth of a child, of whom Grimm was the father. The archives of Geneva have been carefully searched, and no trace has been found of the birth of this child. The famous Tronchin was the medical adviser of Madame d'Épinay in Geneva, and admitted her to his intimacy; he certainly would not have lent himself to what Rousseau suspected. Besides this calumny, Rousseau attacks Madame d'Épinay with the greatest severity. He represents her as false, intriguing, capable of every bad action. Madame d'Épinay was so offended by the 'Confessions' that she asked M. de Sartine, the Minister of Police, to forbid their being read in so many houses, and M. de Sartine gave her this satisfaction. Madame d'Épinay had already begun her 'Memoirs,' but she then went over them again and finished them, perhaps with a view to answering the 'Confessions.' She only read them to a very small circle of friends, and the candor of so many confessions shows plainly enough that they were not intended for the publicity which they afterward found. Grimm, who was the universal heir of all her manuscripts, did not publish them. A manuscript, bought and published in 1818, thirteen years after the death of Grimm, by two booksellers, Brunet & Parison, was found among the papers of an old secretary of Grimm's.

Correspondence.

THE METROPOLITAN ALCAZAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called by some frivolous literary persons to an article in your journal which is, it seems to me, not only inaccurate in many of its assertions and insinuations, but calculated to do me serious injury. I feel convinced that your sense of justice and propriety will compel you to give the same publicity to my reply that you gave to the ill-considered remarks of the writer of the article in question.

While it affords me the greatest pleasure to satisfy the æsthetic tastes of the citizens of New York, honesty compels me to admit that one of my objects in carrying on this business is to make money, and, while I regret that the two or three thousand persons who visit the Alcazar persist, as you say, in giving offence to those who are dining by looking across, and even at, their tables, I cannot, in justice to my associates, take any steps to keep them away. If you cannot improve their breeding, I am afraid that any poor efforts I might make would be thrown away. In the matter of crowding and etiquette, we only do the best we can.

But when your writer insinuates by a cleverly-turned phrase that the quality of the sherry furnished to our visitors is not good, I request, in return, to say to your readers that only the grossest ignorance of his subject can justify his remarks. The sherry which is put on the table at the Alcazar dinners is not only exceedingly good, but so good that a bottle of it would fetch in the open market more than we charge for the whole dinner.

As a wine merchant of some thirty years' experience, I feel entirely justified in saying that no other *table d'hôte* in town has wine as good as ours, and that the fashionable eating-houses ask three or four times the money for articles of the same value.

In fact, you have, I dare say inadvertently, done me a serious injury, and the cause of true temperance a real harm, in so belittling and decrying my honest effort to educate the citizens

of this country up to a better standard in their drinking habits, while making a modest living for myself. I feel sure that you will reëxamine the matter and do what is right.

Yours respectfully,

TIMOTHY STEVENS.

NEW YORK, July 3, 1882.

[What Mr. Stevens complains of is our remark that "not even the announcement of the present management that it will give half a pint of 'Bodega sherry' with the dinner can keep people away." He seems to overlook the fact that any injustice we may have done through this remark was amply offset by our saying nothing whatever about the ballet.—ED. NATION.]

THE ATHENIAN NAVAL ARSENAL OF PHILON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Σφαῖρα of the Peiraieus of May 28 (June 9) last gives in full a long inscription just found at the extremity of the harbor commonly known as Zea, which contains, apparently, specifications to the contractor for the building of the great naval arsenal of Philon, mentioned by Æschines, Strabo, and Plutarch, among other ancient writers. The inscription was laid before the Helikon Society of the Peiraieus on June 7 by its discoverer, Mr. Alexander Meletopoulos. If it can be shown to have been found upon its ancient site, it will go far toward settling the still vexed question of the certain identification of the various Athenian harbors in favor of the solution adopted some time ago by prominent German scholars; but the Σφαῖρα does not enlighten us upon this point. In the meantime, the inscription is of high interest, as giving entirely new information regarding Athenian architecture in the middle of the fourth century before our era; and it will, if authentic, which there seems to be no reason to doubt, afford much material for archæological study.

I give those details of the plan and construction of the arsenal of which the interpretation seems certain; omitting, for the present at least, many doubtful points, some of which are not the least important.

The arsenal of Philon, son of Exekestides of Eleusis, was situated, according to the new inscription, upon the harbor of Zea, near the propylaion leading from the agora of Hippodamos. The building was 400 (Attic) feet long and 55 wide, including the exterior walls, which were 2½ feet thick. The foundations were built with much care of hewn stone, and upon them was laid a directing course or base (εὐθυντηρία) for the walls, projecting somewhat beyond them, and 1½ foot high. Upon this first course was a second, 3 feet high (ὀρθοστάτης), the uniform height of each course above being 2½ feet. The length of the blocks of all the courses, except at the angles, where their length was made to correspond with the position of the second triglyph of the Doric frieze, was 4 feet. The whole height of the walls, from the top of the first course to beneath the cornice, was 30 feet. At either end of the building was a front with a pediment, and in each front were two doorways only 2 feet apart, each 9 feet wide and 15½ high. The lintels, side-posts, and sills were of marble, the rest of the exterior of the arsenal being of Peiraic limestone. The doors themselves were plated outside with bronze. There were windows all around the building—one opposite each interior intercolumniation on the sides, and three in each front. The windows were three feet high and two feet wide, and were fitted with bronze shutters.

The interior was divided into three long aisles by two rows of columns 30 feet high, including their capitals, and standing upon a stylobate of equal height with the base-course of the exterior walls. The lower diameter of the columns was two feet and three palms (of about three inches each); they were composed each of seven drums four feet high, except the first, which was five feet—leaving one foot for the height of the capital. The middle aisle was 20 feet clear in width between the rows of columns. The capitals were of Pentelic marble, and the shafts of limestone. There were 70 columns in all—35 in each row.

The epistyle was solidly constructed of wooden beams, and similar beams, spanning the middle aisle, appear to have rested immediately upon the capitals. The inscription adds technical details of the construction of the ceiling and of the timber framework which supported the tiled roof. Over the doors at either front the ceiling was of Hymettic marble.

The floor was evenly paved with stone. Between each column and the side wall was a stone barrier three feet high, forming a double row of small bins along the sides of the arsenal, each bin being provided with a gate. There were two tiers of supports extending from the columns to the side walls, for the storage of the naval undergirding straps (ὑποζώματα); and as these supports were at a considerable distance from the floor, wooden ladders were provided to give access to them. There were 134 chests for sails and for the white side-curtains (παραρρύματα) of the ships, placed one against each column, and the others opposite. These chests were made to open in such a way that their contents could be inspected at once, when necessary, by those passing through the arsenal.

To secure ventilation, spaces were left open at the joints of the wall blocks at certain places indicated by the architect. These ventilating apertures would form an interesting parallel to those existing in the lower courses of the Erechtheion, which are, however, pronounced modern by the latest authorities.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

COTTAGE LAWN, YONKERS, N. Y., July 10, 1882.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. will be the American publishers of a work entitled 'Travels in South Kensington, with Notes on Decorative Art and Architecture in England,' by Moncure D. Conway. It will relate the history of the Museum in that suburb, and be fully illustrated.

G. P. Putnam's Sons, who for thirty years have had Hood's works on their list, have brought out, in the prevailing quarto form and paper covers, 'Hood's Own,' a medley of prose and verse still irresistibly mirth-provoking in spite of the long silence that has followed the reign of the punster. Hood's designs are reproduced, and are even more striking evidence than the text of the growth of the public taste.

The seventh edition of 'Appleton's Dictionary of New York' exhibits no changes that call for special remark, though there is a steady improvement in classification. The editor may be reminded that he has not kept pace with the census in the case of the suburban towns whose population he attempts to give. His style also will bear amending; as (p. 158), "an appetite which grows upon what it feeds"; and (p. 159), "a place . . . which contains some of its finest residences, which use the grounds adjacent in common." There is a singular absence of dates in connection with the removal and setting up of the obelisk in Central Park.

Vol. 134 of the *North American Review* deals with the timely topics of the past six months—the Guiteau trial and the moral responsibility of the insane, the Geneva Award, civil-service reform, the Navy, repudiation in Virginia, etc.—and some which we have always with us, like prohibition, homœopathy and old-school, woman's right to practise medicine, vaccination, the Christian religion, etc., etc. The index, in spite of apparent diligence in the cross-references, still leaves much to be desired. Let any one, for example, try to ascertain at a glance how many articles were written on the question of insanity.

From a paper on Constables, by Mr. Herbert B. Adams (one of a series on New England tithingmen, selectmen, mayor and aldermen, published in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*), we learn that a number of graduate students at the Johns Hopkins University are now studying coöperatively the local institutions of their respective States or sections. Even Canada is represented in this inquiry.

It may not be generally known that there is a semi-monthly periodical publication in raised letters for the blind—*Kneass's Philadelphia Magazine*. The editing of such a publication calls for far greater tact and discrimination than are expected of the ordinary journalist. The blind cannot skip.

The Society of Decorative Art of California offers several prizes for embroidery and designs appropriate to interior decoration. Goods are receivable from October 30 to November 1. Particulars may be obtained by addressing Prize Design Competition, 631 Sutter Street, San Francisco.

Mr. George W. Cable, the well-known novelist, in a commencement address at Oxford, Miss., discussed very frankly the question of "Literature in the Southern States." One slip, made in the interest of local color, was curious. Mr. Cable mentioned "Sargent S. Prentiss, of Mississippi," as among the "brightest lights in the firmament of American letters," "placed there by the Southwest." But Mr. Prentiss had first placed himself in the Southwest by quitting his native Down East of Maine.

The general catalogue of Colby University has two interesting tables, one giving the occupations and the other the residences of graduates, from 1822 to 1882. 194 are deceased. Of the remaining 536, of course the most were clergymen, 219, to which class ought to be added 11 missionaries. Next came lawyers, 158, and 14 judges; teachers, 120, and 8 superintendents of schools; physicians, 44; presidents and professors in colleges, 41; journalists, 32. Politics claims 2 governors, 8 M. C.s, and 1 United States collector. There are also 11 women. The other occupations are too thinly patronized to be mentioned.

—A brother of the late Col. Joseph L. Chester informs us that the latter received the degree of LL.D. from Columbia College several years ago, and that of D.C.L. from Oxford University last year.

—Adolph Count Zedwitz writes us from Döbling, near Vienna, under date of June 12, as follows (in translation). The subject is our recent article on vaccination. The communication calls for no comment:

"I beg leave to say, concerning Professor Vogt's table in No. 872 of the *Nation*, that this table, together with some other insignificant mistakes in calculation, pardonable in so vast a labor, were corrected by Professor Vogt himself in his second work, 'The Old and New Vaccination Doctrine.' But it seems quite unimportant whether before Jenner the rate of mortality was larger or smaller, as protection by vaccination could not be proved until recently. Why do the believers in vaccination lay so much stress on unessential side issues, and not refute the other

tables of Professor Vogt, which prove the absolute valuelessness of this silly practice? However, I am well aware that medical quackery is worse in the United States than with us, and vaccination is quite consistent with it."

—Mr. T. W. Higginson will begin in the August *Harper* a series of historical papers which will constitute, we understand, the most extended work ever yet undertaken by this writer. In connected form they will add another to the many histories of the United States, closing for the present with the opening of the anti-slavery agitation, or, say, the year 1830. The work has been suggested by the urgent calls from many quarters for a book on the same general plan with Mr. Higginson's 'Young Folks' History of the United States,' as to simplicity and readableness, but on a much larger scale. The opening number, called "The First Americans," is the first attempt at a popular statement of the new view of American archæology, inseparably connected with the genius of Lewis H. Morgan, which regards all the aboriginal races, from Digger Indians to Aztec, as essentially one race, to whose characteristics the Pueblo Indians afford the key. The second chapter will be entitled "The Visit of the Vikings," and the third "The Spanish Discoverers."

—Macmillan & Co. have recently issued two books for children which will serve to relieve the tedium apt to overtake the happiest idler in vacation-time. One is Mrs. Molesworth's 'Summer Stories'; the other, Mrs. Mary Steadman Aldis's 'The Great Giant Arithmos.' Parents who have once made acquaintance with Mrs. Molesworth are prepared to take anything from her pen on trust. Whatever else it may be, her writing is sure to be refined in spirit and expression; but undoubtedly also, besides this, she has the story-teller's art in a high degree. There are five of these summer tales, the supposed invention of a group of cousins in an English country-house, and told after tea out of doors. There is a mild ghost story and a fairy story, and three realistic narratives with a very just feeling and some pathos. The variety is remarkable. The youth of the audience aimed at is really below that of the supposed relators, but, as often happens, children in their teens will enjoy this book along with their little brothers and sisters, and will be repaid for the dutiful trouble of reading it aloud to them. To mothers Mrs. Aldis addresses herself, wishing to induce them to retain the privilege of instructing their darlings, and to aid them in grounding these in the troublesome branch of arithmetic. The book *must* accordingly be read aloud, and attention is secured by means of expected responses to questions or pauses, by an apparatus of bricks, crayons, etc., but above all by ingenious episodes, which gratify the juvenile mind for "stories" even in the midst of calculation. At intervals, too, the mother permits the child to look at the humorous pictures which help along the fun and the comprehension. The summer is a particularly good time for using such a text-book as 'The Great Giant Arithmos.'

—The French elections of a year ago have made it seem expedient to issue a supplement to Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains' (New York: F. W. Christern). It is a matter of forty-one pages, and may be cheaply had at a cent a page. The new members of the French Parliament furnish the greater number of fresh celebrities, and for the rest we have continuations of previous notices down to October, 1881, or termination by death, as in the case of Carlyle, George Eliot, Dean Stanley, Drouyn de Lhuys, Duvergier de Hauranne, etc. American events of the previous year caused the insertion for the first time of President Garfield and President Arthur. The latter is accused of having declared for General Grant, who was trying on (*posait*) his "third and illegal candidacy." More explicitly still, in the article on Garfield, it is stated that General Grant was, "contrary to the Constitution," running (*se portait*) for a third term. This is not quite accurate, but there can be no doubt, as stated, that Guiteau "se déclarait 'le stalwart des stalwarts.'" We regret to miss Mr. Blaine still from among the contemporaries. But the revelations concerning his South American diplomatic performances since the date of closing the Supplement can hardly have been overlooked by the vigilant editor, and must cause him to be recognized in the sixth edition of the Dictionary.

—B. Westermann & Co. send us the concluding parts, 31 and 32, of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas.' They embrace maps of the regions bordering on the upper Adriatic (S. W. Austria-Hungary, with Bosnia and Herzegovina nominally assigned to Turkey), the East India Islands, the Chinese Empire, and South America from Valparaiso to Cape Horn, together with a title-page of which even the ornamentation is made instructive by exhibiting various modes of projecting the globe. All the maps mentioned are noticeably fine and fresh. Vienna, Peking, Valparaiso, and Lima are among the side-maps on an enlarged scale, and the Dutch possessions in the East are magnified by comparison with the Netherlands on the same scale: the mother country is hardly larger than Atchin, the northern tip of Sumatra. This ever-improving work first appeared in 1817, when fifty plates were sufficient for the needs and knowledge of the time. Now ninety-five are not enough, for a Supplement in three parts and eight sheets delineates the Mediterranean basin with a liberal measure. This supplementary chart, by the way, acquires a present interest by reason of the bursting of the war-cloud at Alexandria, not to say also at Constantinople. Every country which could by any pretext take part in the campaign against Arabi is here represented, except the one which will bear the burden of the fighting—England—and the one which can exert the greatest moral influence on the course of events—Germany. It would be superfluous to praise an atlas rectified for more than half a century at short intervals, and produced by the foremost establishment of our time with all the resources of art and science. Unquestionably, the novelty of the edition now closed is the thorough overhauling of the South American maps, the weakest point in the series hitherto. The United States, in six sheets, has had the benefit of the numerous determinations of our national surveys. It should be added that the nomenclature of the work is in general that of the country depicted, with parallel names subjoined in certain cases. For the world at large, there is no better or cheaper atlas.

— The Boston Monday Lectureship has been transferred to Japan, where it has been heard on the question, "Does Death End All?" The *Chrysanthemum*, a monthly periodical of Yokohama, says the treatment was masterly, and must have been "productive of good to foreigner and native alike." But the Buddhist *Jiji Shimpo* was not so affected by it. A writer, who professes to be "a believer in Buddhism and an opponent of Christianity," asks in that journal:

"What is this whose Samson-like blasts and Demosthenes thunder shake the hall? Is it the personification of Hercules? Nay, it is the man called Joseph Cook! On the 3d instant he delivered a speech in the *Meiji Kŭaido* whereby I myself and the whole audience were astonished to stupefaction. After mature consideration of his speech I find him just like John's cousin, for the substance of his myriad words amounted to nothing more than the elaboration of the following points. . . .

"This is the substance of Mr. Cook's lecture, and thus shallow is his thought. In the first place he confounds emotion and intellect. For the worship of ancestors and the belief in immortality are the results of mere emotion. . . . Macbeth saw a ghost, therefore Mr. Cook believes in ghosts. Swedenborg saw lots of angels, therefore he believes in angels! In the second place, he confounds past and future. He holds that what was not yesterday will not be to-morrow. Why, 1300 years ago no one believed that the earth was round. But Copernicus found out by investigation that the earth was really round. What does Mr. Cook think of that! . . . How very stale his trite utterances, which a Spencer or a Bain could demolish with a blow! He ought to reflect a little more. In the third place, he confounds the general with the particular. The Christian is not the only religion which discusses the facts of the human soul. Why, even American Indians, to say nothing of Mohammedans and Buddhists, teach these facts of man's spiritual life. The Buddhist doctrine of rewards and punishments is certainly more logical than any other. Oh! there's nothing in Mr. Cook's assertions. The reason why so many were overwhelmed and fascinated was nothing more than the effect of his uncommon presence and eloquence."

—The easy reconciliation of religion and science exhibited in the funeral discourses over and concerning the late Charles Darwin shows to what an extent the rational and blameless life has achieved at least a post-mortem immunity from the theologians. In fact, so far as the scientist has any interest in this reconciliation, it may be said to lie in watching the process by which, one after another, the religious teachers justify their indifference to doctrines so abhorrent to them twenty years ago. The late lamented Lewis H. Morgan was, as is well known, an independent and valuable contributor to the Darwinian theory of the descent of man. This fact gave no trouble to the clergyman, the Rev. Dr. J. H. McIlvaine, a very intimate friend, who delivered the address at his funeral last December, as the following passage bears witness:

"I do not understand that his results, with reference to the length of time during which the earth has been inhabited by human beings, or with respect to the low condition out of which they have gradually risen, are in anywise opposed to Scriptural intimations. I cannot find any sufficient data in the Scriptures for a revealed chronology. Upon this point, as I understand, science is left perfectly free to discover by her own methods how long man has been on the earth. Neither, as I read the first chapters of Genesis, does it appear that man was created in a high state of development, though certainly in a state of innocence. There he is represented as without experience and without tools or instruments, and as not having commenced his work of subduing nature to his own uses and ends, through which only is human development conceivable. He does not appear to have been able to make his own first suit of necessary clothing—it had to be made for him. Nor does it appear that he had the speech-faculty in full development. Hence the creatures were made to pass before him that he might name them; which took place, as I understand, for the purpose of evoking his faculty of speech."

—No little interest has been manifested in New England in the case of Joseph Stickney, guilty of murder in Colorado under peculiar, if not extenuating, circumstances. What may be called his sociological *dossier*, drawn up by the hand of one of his relatives, has just been printed in the *Granite Monthly*, of Concord, N. H., for July. A chart shows his "ascendants" for seven generations, each individual being assigned a number, and 174 out of the 254 being described with more or less particularity in short biographies. There is no other country in the world, and perhaps no other section than New England, where so extended a pedigree could be produced for a common citizen, and with so little difficulty or so much certainty. The compiler calculates the

longevity of the ninety ancestors whose ages are known, and finds the average duration to have been sixty-eight years and five months. Only two are known to have died unnatural deaths, and only two to have drunk to excess. "None are known to have been insane, or to have died of consumption, or to have been divorced." Very few came under the censure of the law, nor can the nature or heinousness of their offences be now accurately judged. On the whole, therefore, the case of Joseph Stickney, on the Guiteau theory of defence, is one which clearly calls for hanging. If, nevertheless, "family influence" could be invoked to save him from this disgrace, the chart shows that his ancestors were also those of the Peabodies, Channings, Danas, Fessendens, Storys, Choates, Eliots, Otises, Bellowses, Winthrops, Tyngs, Buckminsters, Holmeses, Phillipses, Brookses, and many other great lines. Among the more remarkable names are No. 243, Tristram Coffin, the founder of the Nantucket family; No. 235, Rev. Nathaniel Ward, the "Simple Cobbler of Agawam" and the author in 1641 of the "'Body of Liberties,' the foundation of Massachusetts law"; No. 233, Gov. Thomas Dudley; and No. 115, Rev. John Woodbridge, an early master of the Boston Public Latin School. Ruth Eastman, among the female progenitors, stands out for precocity. "Her first child was born when she was 13 years, 4 months, and 26 days old; after marriage [she] played with other children." She was the great-grandmother of Senator William Pitt Fessenden.

—The Census Office has recently published, as a portion of the report upon "Power and Machinery Employed in Manufactures," a report by Mr. George F. Swain upon the water-power, actually in use and potential, of the South Atlantic watershed. It treats of the streams flowing into the Atlantic south of the James River, and opens with a brief account of the topography, climate, vegetation, etc., of the region; matters which are more or less germane to the subject, inasmuch as they determine the amount and character of the flow of the streams. This is followed by a discussion of the relation between the amount of rainfall and the flow, in which Mr. Swain attempts to obtain factors for deducing the annual flow from the rainfall. He expressly cautions the reader, however, against accepting his figures as more than the roughest approximations to the truth. The body of the report is taken up with descriptions of the several streams and their drainage-basins. The slope of the bed, as ascertained from levels, its lithological character, the topography of its immediate banks and that of its drainage-basin, with the climate, soil, and vegetation of the latter, are fully set forth. Tabulated with each stream are the utilized water-powers upon it, while eligible sites for further improvements are pointed out. One very important general fact, though not by any means a new one, is set forth very fully in Mr. Swain's report. That is, that along the line of junction of the older metamorphic rocks with the recent tertiary and quaternary deposit—a line which has an average position perhaps 100 miles from the coast—nearly every stream has falls or rapids; and that it is here, at the "fall line," that the most available water-powers are to be found. Below this line the streams are invariably sluggish. The Potomac passes this line in the twelve miles above Georgetown, D. C., where are found the Great and Little Falls; the James passes it at Richmond; the Roanoke at Weldon, N. C.; the Neuse at Smithfield; the Cape Fear near Averysboro; the Savannah at Augusta, etc. Above the "fall line" the currents of the streams are much more rapid than below, and increase, in general, toward the mountains, affording large numbers of available powers. This report will doubtless add greatly to the interest now being taken in cotton-manufacturing in the South, as it brings to light the vast amount of water-power now lying idle in a region which has been supposed to be rather deficient in that element.

—Recent numbers of the London *Spectator* have contained very interesting communications on the relation of exercise to brain-work. Nothing like a general rule can be evolved from them, because individual temperament, employment, and circumstances create an endless variety of cases that no rule could cover. The more witnesses, however, the greater the chance that the inquirer will find a hint suitable to himself, and it is every one's experience that such hints often determine the happiness of a lifetime. The author of 'The Duties of Women,' a great believer in physical exercise, thinks that it "need not and cannot well be taken *on the same days* when the heavy mental work has to be done." Mind and body may best be strained alternately, by days or by seasons. Especially does she hold that every woman should provide for some perspiring exercise—"a natural Turkish bath"—at short intervals. An Oxford man advocates pleasurable *change* as the chief element of recuperation, more important than the muscular exercise; for which reason he prefers horseback and bicycle riding to walking. His rule is—"One hour of some thoroughly good form of exercise every day, and every week several additional hours' 'change.'" Another contributor has "uniformly found that reducing the diet, and especially avoiding the too free use of heat-producing foods, if not an equivalent for the lack of exercise, at any rate enables one to pursue one's desk-work in comfort, with efficiency, and without harm accruing."

—No doubt there is sense in all these suggestions, and some are within the reach of every one. We should ourselves lay stress on the advantage of a thorough gymnastic training as the basis of all subsequent modes of exercise. The muscular tone of the system once established in this way can be maintained with a minimum of effort and time by the chamber use of clubs, dumb-bells, or even simpler contrivances. The back, the chest, and the abdominal organs, which are the chief sufferers from sedentary pursuits, can thus be directly addressed in the countervailing exercise. If to this can be added a short half-mile run in the open air, the account will generally be found squared daily for any but exhausting mental exertion. The rule, "impletus venter non vult studere libenter," is of course as good for exercise as for brain-work. Beyond this it is hazardous to dogmatize. Some cannot safely take a long walk on an empty stomach, or before breakfast; to others nothing is easier, more exhilarating, or apparently more harmless. Some walkers have only rambling thoughts while on the road; others do their best and closest thinking under such circumstances. Rousseau belonged in the latter class: his mind needed the motion of the body to stimulate it to its utmost. Yet he was not jaded by this two-fold activity, and was, moreover, alive to the passing beauties of the scene: he did not overlook the wayside periwinkle. With some the morning and daylight hours are best for intellectual performance; others require the silence of the small hours of the night. Any one who can order his habits to suit his idiosyncrasies, physical and mental, has no excuse for running down from lack of proper exercise or from over-exercise. Among all the felicities of Darwin's life, this ability was certainly one of the most enviable and the most profitable for mankind.

—The *Progrès Médical* of Paris has commenced the issue of a "Bibliothèque Diabolique" with a pamphlet of 38 pages entitled "Le Sabbat des Sorciers," by Bourneville and E. Teinturier. Considering the source from which it comes, we hoped that it might supply a real want in the history of superstition by examining the beliefs of the sixteenth century with the aid of modern scientific knowledge of hysteria and its allied nervous disorders. In this we are disappointed, for the *brochure* consists simply of a patchwork of extracts from the works of Bodin, Boguet, and other well-known demonologists, so carelessly edited that the sources are frequently not indicated, and we are left altogether at a loss to know whence are derived the illustrations which are lavishly given, except in the case of a folding plate at the end, which, we are informed, is derived from the veracious "Histoire des imaginations extravagantes de M. Oufle." The quotations thus put together supply a sufficiently comprehensive statement of what were believed to be the details of the witches' Sabbath, though the list of authorities cited might have been greatly extended, and the interest and value of the work would have been much enhanced by showing the practical unity of these superstitions in Spain, Italy, Germany, and England with those of France, to which the editors have confined themselves. Indeed, unless the editorship of future numbers is vastly improved, we can see little use in the series, for students of the subject are already familiar with the material presented, and the general public can take no interest in a mass of bald quotations without illustrative introduction or explanatory notes.

— The Société Bibliographique has done a useful work. It has published a 'Catalogue des Livres choisis à l'usage des gens du monde, contenant les meilleures productions de la littérature contemporaine,' a book of 183 pages, and costing only two francs, and yet one which the Society has been ten years in completing. The idea is like that of the proposed "A. L. A. catalog," and the experience of the Société Bibliographique resembles in all but one point what is rumored to have been the experience of the American Library Association. Numerous collaborators succeeded one another, leaving their unfinished work to successors who were compelled to recast it all, and every gap of any length required a fresh delay while the literature that had appeared in the meantime was examined and inserted. Whenever the Society found a man competent to give them any assistance, they applied to him to take charge of the section best suited to his special knowledge; and the response, even if it was in the affirmative, was not necessarily prompt. The one point of difference between the two societies is that the French catalogue after ten years is published, and the American catalogue after five years is in a fair way of being given up. The *Polybiblion* last May, in noticing this 'Catalogue,' gave a short bibliography of previous French attempts of the same sort. A dozen catalogues are mentioned, of which the most noteworthy was the R. P. Jean Baptiste Boone's 'Les mauvais Livres, les mauvais Journaux et les Romans, avec un catalogue de mauvaises publications périodiques et de mauvais livres, et une liste des romanciers du jour,' which reached a fourth edition. All of the others tried to print good literature. Boone alone had the courage to denounce bad books by name, and to run the risk of serving as a guide-post to those who demand nothing better than to have the way of perdition made plain before them. Probably he knew that such persons would get the knowledge which they

covet whether he gave it to them or not; that he was not really hurrying them forward in their path, and that he might be furnishing a beacon to some who were willing to be warned. The present list, however, takes the wiser course of pointing out the good books; the chief objection to be made to it is that there are not enough. Three thousand works would be a large library for one man; but this list, which is classified, is intended to serve many men of many tastes, and to show them which are the best books on a very large number of subjects. It is not credible that there are in French literature only 3,000 "best books." Perhaps a second edition, which will of course be needed in a few years, if only for the insertion of the literature of the demi-decade, will be fuller.

SANBORN'S THOREAU.

Henry D. Thoreau. By F. B. Sanborn. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

MR. SANBORN'S volume may be considered as a vindication, a criticism, a eulogy, or a biography; and in no one of these aspects is it a very successful literary performance. Thoreau's life was absolutely without incident, and where it might gain interest from an account of the lives of men with whom he was thrown, Mr. Sanborn fails to take advantage of his opportunities. He has a chapter, indeed, called "Friends and Companions," in which he undertakes to introduce the reader to Emerson, Hawthorne, Margaret Fuller, and Channing, but it is a bare introduction. We know very little more of them at the end of the chapter than we did at the beginning. Another chapter, on "Concord and its Famous People," produces exactly the opposite effect upon the reader from what the author evidently intended: the impression, namely, that Concord is a very stupid and provincial New England village, and that its celebrities must have owed their fame rather to the prevailing dulness than to anything that would elsewhere seem like remarkable brilliancy in themselves. As a critic, Mr. Sanborn fails, because he does not succeed in giving us a clear picture of Thoreau, either as an author or as a man. He has accumulated a great deal of testimony to show that his friends liked him; but this might be inferred from the fact that they were his friends, and also that they thought him a genius and poet and a remarkable man in many ways. Moreover, this we knew before. Not a single trait of Thoreau's character, except, perhaps, his capacity for enduring suffering, is brought out with any distinctness. This must be Mr. Sanborn's fault rather than Thoreau's, for every one is agreed that he was a man of marked character, whatever that was. Mr. Sanborn attempts to vindicate Thoreau from the charge of moroseness and aversion to human society—a difficult task at best, considering what his career was, and that he himself speaks of his life at Walden as a "protest against society." According to those who knew him best, wild animals were at all times more at home with him than men or women. Emerson, no bad observer, says: "Snakes coiled round his leg, the fishes swam into his hand, and he took them out of the water; he pulled the woodchuck out of its hole by the tail, and took the foxes under his protection from the hunters. He confessed that he sometimes felt like a hound or a panther." On this score, Mr. Sanborn's vindication leaves matters very much where he found them, and does not, after all, make us feel that Thoreau, as a casual companion, would have been at all an agreeable or sociable person to meet. A vindication which does not vindicate could hardly be of much use as a eulogy. Mr. Sanborn, in his desire to be fair, fails to inspire us with any enthusiasm for his subject. Surely it is unnecessary, in giving an account of his personal appearance, to say that it was a "common mistake" to take him at first sight for a peddler. This may have done something to make him seem more human in a New England village, but in the world of letters it is hardly of sufficient importance to excuse its introduction. But the truth is, that at bottom Mr. Sanborn himself thinks a little better of a genius for being as commonplace in appearance as possible. It makes him more Yankee, more true to New England village life. He accordingly quotes, with great enjoyment, the following description given by a friend: "The most expressive feature of his face was his eye, blue in color, and full of the greatest humanity and intelligence. His head was of medium size, the same as that of Emerson, and he wore a number-seven hat." The art of eulogy lies in knowing how to magnify a man's greatness and importance without seeming to do it; but the extreme of commonplace is as bad as that of exaggeration.

Mr. Sanborn makes an attempt in one of his chapters to analyze the causes and meaning of the Transcendental movement. This is really the most important branch of his subject; for, whatever else Thoreau was, he was a Transcendentalist. It is very necessary for any one who undertakes to explain Transcendentalism to the reader of the present day that he should appreciate much more fully than Mr Sanborn appears to do the difficulties the subject presents. Everybody is perfectly willing to believe that the Transcendentalists exerted a great and good influence upon their contemporaries; that they recalled a sordid and material generation to a recollection of the supreme importance of the things not of this world. But what any one who looks into the subject finds it difficult to believe is that their talk about the "Superhumanities" and "Stellar duties" was founded on any philosophical system, or grew out of any intellectual opinions really deserving the name. To the worldly-minded the movement was always rather a subject for merriment; but now that we are all willing to take it seriously, what is needed is that it should be made, if possible, more intelligible. Was it an intellectual revolt against Convention and Form, connected and allied with the great modern revolutionary movement in politics? Was it an accidental local fruit of German philosophy? Was it a sort of New England Christian Platonism? Mr. Sanborn does not throw any light on these points, except to suggest that at the bottom of it was "a certain inward tendency of high Calvinism and its counterpart Quakerism, always welling forth in the American colonies." He undertakes to show, by a few extracts from their writings, how such Calvinists and Quakers as Wheelwright, Sir Harry Vane, Anne Hutchinson, William Penn, and Jonathan Edwards "prefigured the mystical part of Concord philosophy." It is surely an instance of the sarcasm of destiny that Jonathan Edwards should be held in any way accountable for a movement which was a rebellion against everything he had taught, and the promoters of which in his day he would have had great satisfaction in driving out of Massachusetts. It is only on the principle that extremes meet that we can trace any connection between Emerson and Edwards. Mr. Sanborn's extracts only prove that in New England Christianity there was always a recognition of the existence of a principle of faith transcending human experience and knowledge. It is a good deal easier, to be sure, to show that this was true of the Quakers than the Calvinists. In the case of Edwards, the evidence produced by Mr. Sanborn is more than suspicious, for it consists of a description by him, when a boy of twenty, of the charms and attractions of a young lady to whom he was very much attached, and who seemed to him to have an interior beauty of character and mind quite transcending anything he had ever dreamed or imagined. John Woolman, as a Transcendentalist, does better:

"There is a principle, which is pure, placed in the human mind which, in different places and ages, hath had different names; it is, however, pure, and proceeds from God. It is deep and inward, confined to no forms of religion, nor excluded from any, when the heart stands in perfect sincerity. In whomsoever this takes root and grows, they become brethren. That state in which every motion from the selfish spirit yieldeth to pure love, I may acknowledge with gratitude to the Father of Mercies, is often opened before me as a pearl to seek after."

Belief in some such spiritual principle as this is, however, hardly separable from the idea of Christianity; and if all the sects which have recognized it could be considered in so far Transcendental, there would be hardly any need to try to account for Transcendentalism at all.

Mankind seems to be gradually settling down to the conclusion that the sum and substance of the Transcendentalist philosophy was that its votaries looked at the world essentially as poets. How valuable their verses may be as poetry is another question, which it is as yet perhaps too early to decide. Mr. Sanborn has a high opinion of Thoreau's poetical performances, but the specimens he gives are all more or less open to the charge of a want of originality. Mr. Sanborn quotes his lines on "Smoke":

> "Light-winged smoke, Icarian bird!
> Melting thy pinions in thy upward flight,
> Lark without song, and messenger of dawn,
>
> Go thou, my incense, upward from this hearth,
> And ask the Gods to pardon this clear flame,"

and naïvely asks, "What Greek would not be proud to claim this fragment as his own?" All the early specimens of his writing, both prose and poetical, given by Mr. Sanborn, are imitative; and in prose he seems to have followed the footsteps of Carlyle in adopting, in mature life, a manner of writing which has little or no relation to his early style. But, imitative or original, he was, like the rest of his school, an idealist; and in the last resort we believe it will be found that it was their idealism, their antagonism to the material, which in a material age and country gave the Transcendentalists their importance. They came to recall New England, and through New England the rest of the country, sunk in a sordid self satisfaction produced by its material prosperity, to the fact that there is something higher and better than money and money-getting, or the contented formalism of an outworn creed; that the pursuit of truth and beauty was all that really made man's life better than that of the beasts of the field. This was what the Transcendentalists taught and practised. They put aside worldly ambition and desire as truly as ever did any mediæval monk or Oriental ascetic, and thus gave, what was essential in their surroundings, a practical proof of their sincerity. The result was almost startling. Their Yankee audience at first ridiculed them as dreamers; but when they found that what the Transcendentalists actually recommended to them was dreaming, their ridicule changed to wonder, and finally to a sort of awe-struck admiration, something like that which we may imagine a Roman to have felt on learning that a Christian was capable of giving up his fishponds and nightingales'-tongues and his afternoons at the amphitheatre for the sake of what he called the "Truth," proclaimed by an obscure Jew. Yankee worldliness was of course different from the worldliness of the ancient world, and the Transcendental gospel was not a new religion, but the New England apostles of the ideal, like Thoreau, impressed the imagination of their contemporaries as, in a different day

and generation, the heralds of a new gospel might. Their message was the battle-cry of a spiritual warfare for whatever was true and lovely and of good report, against the sordid subservience to material convenience and utility which the intellect is always basely suggesting to the conscience and heart. The effect and value of a battle-cry cannot be measured by intellectual tests.

THE KANT REVIVAL.

Kant's Critique of Pure Reason. By G. S. Morris, Ph.D. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1882.

Kant. By William Wallace. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1882.

THESE two books, like so many others, probably owe their existence to the recent centenary of Kant's leading work. Mr. Morris's treatise, however, is announced as the first of a proposed series of "German Philosophic Classics for English Readers and Students," based on the principal works of Leibnitz, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel. Referring to the watchword, "Back to Kant," which is now heard throughout Germany, Mr. Morris, in his introductory chapter, expresses his conviction that an important result of this movement will be "a return to those successors of Kant in whom his thought is completed"—meaning by this the metaphysicians just named. This conviction seems to us as unfounded as it is odd and paradoxical. The return to Kant is the result partly of the influence of Schopenhauer, who destroyed the nimbus that hovered around the names of Fichte, Schelling, and "the plump and stupid Hegel"; and partly of the fact that the German philosophers of the present day, being chiefly occupied with definite problems of scientific psychology, find Kant's critical method much more useful and suggestive than the ultra-dogmatism of his successors. Kant was not originally a metaphysician, but only entered this field after an apprenticeship of many years in physical and mathematical science; and as the same is true of most contemporary German philosophers—Fechner, Helmholtz, Wundt, Lotze, etc.—the secret affinity is explained which draws the latter toward Kant. Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, on the contrary, entered philosophy from the theological arena, and thence reintroduced, in a new but aggravated form, many of those principles of dogmatism which Kant had so vigorously combated. Kant himself would have haughtily resented the imputation that these metaphysicians "completed his thought." Fichte's system he distinctly repudiated in 1799, and begged to be "preserved from such friends"; and as for Hegel's patronizing air of superiority, Kant would doubtless have heartily enjoyed Schopenhauer's caustic tirades. The Germans having almost completely abandoned the post-Kantian sophists, one cannot but regret every attempt to rehabilitate them in this country. There are, of course, numerous grains of gold scattered through these gloomy mountains of metaphysical ore, but it is hardly worth while to pick them out. The same amount of time and labor spent on psychological, biological, anthropological, and psychopathological works will give a student a hundred times as much insight into the problems of life and thought; and for the purpose of examinations the short summaries in the best histories of philosophy are amply sufficient.

Mr. Morris's introductory chapter of forty-three pages illustrates some of the demoralizing effects of a study of post-Kantian metaphysics We lack the space to examine such peculiar assertions as this, that agnosticism is practical materialism, or that spiritual forces are the only ones we can conceive of without self-contradiction; but the assertion that "Being is doing" can be corrected in a few sentences. "Being" is simply a wide, attenuated notion from which all positive attributes except mere existence have been abstracted; to add to this the pregnant quality of action, and to say that the concept is still the same, is extremely illogical. Experience certainly shows us no such thing; and in a treatise on a volume which, like Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason,' aims at the destruction of such arbitrary, *ipse-dixit* methods of philosophizing, and at showing the impossibility of a science of metaphysics, or of knowledge going beyond experience, it is discouraging to meet with such assertions. To a reader who will be on his guard in this respect Mr. Morris's book will nevertheless be of use in facilitating the study of Kant. The philosopher's reasoning is reproduced in clear language, chapter by chapter, and the criticisms appended are often incisive and instructive. A book like this, or Kuno Fischer's analysis of Kant's works, is almost indispensable to the average student of Kant, with whom it is a common experience to encounter pages which at first convey hardly any meaning, but which, after being perused in the language of a lucid expositor who is familiar with the whole system, at once become so clear that the reader wonders he did not see the point before. But these aids should never be read except in direct connection with the work on which they are based, so that the student may be able to judge for himself of the correctness of the interpretation of such passages as are rendered obscure by Kant's horrid terminology and his frequently inconsistent use of it.

Mr. Wallace's 'Kant' is intended less for the student than for the general reader. It endeavors to give, in a little more than two hundred pages, a summary of the leading facts of Kant's life, and the leading ideas of his works, avoiding Kantian terminology as far as possible. It need hardly be said that the biographical part is better done than the philosophical, for Kant's ideas do not easily admit of being squeezed into a nutshell, while on the other hand a good biography is sure to be entertaining, because Kant's life, uneventful as it was, was flavored by the oddity and regularity of his habits. Those who can readily follow all the chapters in this book will find no insuperable difficulty in understanding the much more complete chapter on Kant in Ueberweg's 'History of Philosophy,' but it does not follow from this that Mr. Wallace's book is not well worth reading. Most of it is expository, criticism being only occasionally introduced. A reference to Prof. Zeller's recent able criticism of Kant's ethical views would have made the chapter on these more suggestive and valuable; and in the chapter on Kant's æsthetic doctrines a few pages on the manner in which they have been adapted and modified by Schopenhauer would have reflected light on Kant himself. Kant's ideas on the beautiful and sublime have had an immense influence on modern æsthetic speculation; and imperfect as they often are, they are yet to a modern student extremely instructive, since they resemble Darwin's discussions in clearly pointing out the various problems involved, whether they are solved or not. The power of profound meditation has never been more beautifully illustrated than in this case; for Kant, as is well known, had very little direct knowledge of art, music, or even poetry. He was at one time offered a professorship of poetry, but declined it, as he probably felt that his greatest powers were not in that direction.

We must, however, defend Kant against an unjust criticism of Mr. Wallace's, who quotes as evidence of his limitations on the æsthetic side his statement that "the old songs from Homer to Ossian, and from Orpheus to the prophets, owe their brilliancy of style to the want of proper means to express their ideas." This is in reality one of the most brilliant aperçus ever made by Kant. What he means is, that the directness and pictorial concreteness of the language of the old poets are due to the fact that they reasoned not in abstract ideas, but in images. Modern poets of the highest rank do the same thing, but they do it consciously, while with the ancients it was unconscious and involuntary, owing to the fact, well known to all students of anthropology, that abstract ideas and dexterity in the use of them have only been very gradually developed in course of time. The language of savages is always more poetic or pictorial than that of civilized beings, excepting (for here, too, extremes meet) men of genius. According to Schopenhauer, all original thinking is done in images, and there can be little doubt that Kant was one of those who reasoned in this way. This seems to be disproved by the abstractness of his language in his principal works and his avoidance of illustrations; but the cause of this evidently was that Kant had inherited or imbibed the notion that illustrations are out of place in strictly scientific treatises. Those which he does introduce are always extremely apt and appropriate, while his popular treatise on psychology, which he called 'Anthropologie,' is so full of references to men and things that it reads more like Schopenhauer than like Kant, showing that whenever he thought fit he could readily give a profusion of those concrete images on which his abstract reasoning was based. His immediate successors, on the contrary, began with the dryest and most barren generalizations, and endeavored to deduce from them the world of men and things, as far as those dignitaries considered it worth while to condescend to such trifles.

THE MAGYARS.

Die Ungern oder Magyaren. By Paul Hunfalvy. Vienna and Teschen. 1881.

PAUL HUNFALVY'S ethnological and philological writings have placed him at the head of the critical school which began with the linguistic explorations of the traveller Reguly in the Ural regions, nearly forty years ago, and whose decision as to the origins of the Magyar nation has been generally accepted as conclusive. That the Hungarian language is kindred to the Finnish, and more closely related to it than to the tongue of any well-known people of Europe or Asia, had been discovered and proved generations before Reguly, but the links connecting the idioms of Finland and of the tribes that crossed the Carpathians under Álmos and Árpád, a thousand years ago, after long migrations from the Volga, were not sufficiently known before the investigations of that traveller, and the Finns could be considered an ethnic branch violently detached and carried away from a remote eastern home, and thus valueless for the discovery of the soil on which the common stem had grown up. Even as late as the third decade of this century, Csoma de Körös (Körösi Csoma, as the Magyars say), morally and intellectually one of the noblest sons of Hungary, spent years in the valleys and Buddhist mountain monasteries on the Himalayan confines of Thibet and India, following up deceptive philological traces in search of the cradle of "Árpád's nation." These romantic speculations have now been abandoned by Magyar scholars, as the formerly current identification of Hungarians and Huns has been, in spite of the popularity which Attila continues to enjoy in Hungarian ballads; and the most prosaic of all solutions of the vexed problem about the descent of the chivalrous nation is submitted to by the learned public at

Buda-Pesth almost without a protest. The people that boast of such names as Hunniades, Bethlen, Rákóczy, Kossuth, Petöfi, and Deák acknowledges as its nearest ethnic kindred the Voguls, who resemble the Calmucks; the Ugrians and Ostyaks, neighbors of the Samoyeds; the Siryans, Tcheremisses, Votyaks, Mordvins, and other barbarous tribes in the wilds of Russia, on both sides of the Ural Mountains. And what Paul Hunfalvy and Joseph Budenz have established at their centre of learning, Donner and his colleagues at the Finnish university of Helsingfors accept as no longer contestable.

The book before us, forming the fifth part of the interesting collection entitled 'Die Völker Oesterreich-Ungarns, ethnographische und culturhistorische Schilderungen,' was, unlike the author's larger 'Ethnography of Hungary,' written originally in German. It gives a succinct account of the results in this field of critical research, together with observations on the migrations of his nation toward its present land; on the various elements which successively entered into the formation of its nationality and language as now constituted; on its gradual religious, political, and literary development, and similar topics. The remarks concerning the very origins of the people contain what is comparatively most new. The Finno-Ugric family of the Uralo-Altaic, or Turanian, division of mankind had its abode, at a very remote period, in the basins of the Dvina, Kama, Volga, Ural, Irtysh, and Ob rivers, between Teutonic and Slavic tribes on the west and Turkic tribes on the east. The north was open to it to the Polar Sea; on the south, peoples of various races migrated past in a westerly direction. The Ugric branch of the family, to which the Magyars, Voguls, Siryans, and others belong, occupied lands between the Irtysh and Ob, in Western Siberia. Many of the commonest words of the Finno-Ugric languages testify to close relationship. Thus—to cite some of the most striking examples—the respective words in Magyar, Vogul, and Finnish for eye are: *szem, sem, silm;* for mouth, *száj* (pron. *sāy*), *sop, suu;* for throat: *tor-ok, tur, tur-kku;* for hand: *kéz, kat, kät;* for blood: *vér, ver, vir;* for heart: *szív, sim, syöm;* for name: *név, nim, nime;* for water: *víz, vit, vete;* for stone: *kő* (*köv*), *kav, kive;* for winter: *tél, tal, talve;* for ice: *jég, yang, jää;* for goose: *lúd, lunt, lintu;* for fish: *hal, kul, kala;* for woman: *nő, ne, nai;* for master: *úr, yor, uroh;* for one: *egy* (pron. *edy*, in one syllable), *äk* (*äkve*), *yhte;* for two: *két* (*kettö*), *kit* (*kiti*), *kahte;* for three: *harm, korm, kolme;* for four: *négy* (pron. *nědy*, in one syllable), *nelyä, n'ilä;* for five: *öt, ät, viite;* for six: *hat, kat, kuute;* for seven: *hét, sat, seitse.* The words for eight, nine, and ten differ widely—ten, for instance, being *tíz* in Magyar, *lau* in Vogul, and *kymmen* in Finnish. The words for eight and nine are compounds, almost evidently signifying *ten less two* and *ten less one.* These circumstances prove that the Finno-Ugric peoples originally counted only up to seven, as did the Turks, Basques, and others.

In this first period of their growth the Finno-Ugric peoples lived by hunting and fishing, as their common terms for things belonging to these occupations show. A considerable social advance is proved by their common words for father-in-law, son-in-law, bride, village, town, spinning, weaving, knitting, etc. There is, however, no trace of horned cattle in their common vocabulary—not even of the reindeer, the taming of which the Finns and Lapps learned later from the Scandinavians. Their oldest domestic animals were the dog and horse. After the separation of the Finnic and Ugric tribes, the former came under the influence of Teutonic neighbors, and the latter of Turkic. The Magyars, having left the common abodes of the race, learned from Turkic tribes adjoining them on the south the art of husbandry and the names of the ox (Magy. *ökör*, Osm. *öküz*), buck (*kos, kotch*), ram (*ürü* in both languages), hog (*disznó, donyuz*), hen (*tyúk, tauk*), apple (*alma*), barley (*árpa, arpa*), pea (*borsó, burtchak*), hemp (*kender, kendir*), hatchet (*balta*), kettle (*kazán, kazan*), gate (*kapu, kapi*), market (*vásár, bazar*), and other familiar objects, besides the names of the lion (*oroszlán, arslan*), camel (*teve, deve*), and other strange animals. Our author considers the Khazars as the nation from which the Magyars most probably borrowed the Turkic elements of their language, relying on the authority of Constantine Porphyrogenitus. According to this imperial writer, the Hungagarians (whom he calls Turks, once also Mazars) were friends and allies of the Khazars, and their wayvode Lebedias married a daughter of the Khazar Khan, shortly before the election of Árpád. A branch of the Khazars, the Kabars or Kavars, having been defeated in a civil war, fled to the Hungarians, and, pitching their tents among them, taught them the language of their race. On philological grounds, Hunfalvy believes the Tchuvashes, living on and near the middle Volga, to be the descendants of the once so mighty Khazar nation.

The name *Magyar* Hunfalvy derives from *ma*, or *mo*, which in Vogul signifies *country* (Finn. *maa*), and *gyer*, man, discoverable in the Hungarian diminutive *gyerek, gyermek*, little man, child, and corresponding to the Vogul *kär, kärem*, man. Thus the Moger or Magor of the early Hungarian chroniclers, now Magyar, signifies countryman, a term by which the Hungarians distinguished themselves from all foreigners. Magoria is to the chroniclers a part of Scythia, bordering on the country of the Jorians on the east. This is the territory of the Voguls and Ostyaks, in the West-Siberian Government of Tobolsk, known in the Middle Ages as Jugoria, the land of the Ugors, or Ogors. From the name of this people is derived the name Ungri, which the Byzantines, about 1000, applied to the latest conquerors of Pannonia, whom they also designated as Turks, Huns, and Mazars, and from *Ungri* spring the modern *Ungern*, or *Ungarn, Hongrois, Hungarians.* Ibn Bastah, an Arabic author who wrote in the beginning of the tenth century, calls the Magyars by their own name, modified into *Madjars.* His description of them, however, which places them north of the Black Sea, refers to a period preceding the conquest of their present land, achieved at the close of the ninth century. According to Leo Grammaticus, some Hungarian hosts appeared on the lower Danube fifty or sixty years before that conquest. Constantine Porphyrogenitus, speaking vaguely as to time, finds the Magyars established in Lebedia, which, according to his description, must have been west of the Volga and of the eastern Bulgarians, who dwelt on both sides of that river. Further east, between the Volga and the Ural river, lived the Petchenegs, and near them the Uzes, or Cumans; and south of the Bulgarians the Khazars, from the Don to the Caspian. The Khazars and Uzes, united, drove the Petchenegs from their land; the latter invaded Lebedia, and forced the bulk of the Magyars to migrate westward toward the Pruth and Sereth, rivers of Moldavia, whence they marched, across the Carpathians, into the basin of the Danube and Theiss. A part of the Magyars, however, moved eastward "toward Persia"—says Constantine—that is, beyond the Volga, where missionaries from Hungary still found a Magyar people in the earlier half of the thirteenth century, shortly before the great invasion of the Mongols. This invasion obliterated what was then called Magna Hungaria.

Atlanta. By Jacob D. Cox, LL.D., late Major-General commanding Twenty-third Army Corps, U. S. A. [Campaigns of the Civil War.—IX.] Chas. Scribner's Sons.

General Cox has given us a clear and straightforward account of the memorable campaign of Sherman against Atlanta, which terminated in the capture of that city and opened the way for his subsequent "march to the sea." The author, himself a distinguished participant in the movements he describes, shows great familiarity with all the details of the campaign, and a minute comprehension of the varied topography of the field of operations. His narrative is careful and painstaking, and his style lucid, though he is likely to become wearisome to other than professional readers, from the particularity with which he describes the positions and movements of the troops. The advantage of this particularity, even to the student of military history, is partially neutralized by the very indifferent maps which accompany the text, and which are, in this, as in some other volumes of this series, unworthy of the books they are intended to illustrate.

In the spring of 1864 the contending armies in Georgia were about to enter upon a death struggle. During the winter the Confederate Government and General Johnston had used every effort to repair the losses of the preceding campaign, and to set on foot a force which could make headway against the Federal armies, now combined under General Sherman and threatening the conquest of Georgia and Alabama. By the first of May some 65,000 or 70,000 men had been collected by the Confederates, of which 50,000 were with Johnston at Dalton, and the remainder were gathering to his assistance. Against this force Sherman was about to advance with 100,000 men, and Blair was coming up with 9,000 more. General Cox, in discussing the strength and losses of his opponents, lays too much stress on the imperfect field returns of the Confederates as compared with the fuller and more accurate reports of the Union officers. The poverty that sometimes placed a bottle of ink and a sheet of paper out of the reach of a returning officer had its effect, no doubt, but not to the extent, nor with the results, imagined by General Cox. The returns, when made, show for themselves, and to add "twenty per cent." to them, to put them on the basis of the Northern reports, is, to say the least, a very questionable proceeding in an historian. General Cox sweepingly avers of the Confederates, "that from a very early period of the war a systematic habit was formed of underestimating their own numbers and their own losses by way of exaggerating the odds at which they were fighting, and of keeping up the popular illusion that the preponderance of strength in the North was made up by superior military qualities in the South." But human nature was much the same on both sides, temptations to exaggerate were not wanting on the part of the North, and we shall never get at the facts in any given case by assuming habitual misrepresentation.

Sherman's campaign was a masterly one. He had, it is true, more than three men for every two opposed to him, and his preponderance in equipment was still greater; but he was far advanced in a hostile territory; he was compelled to maintain and defend a long line of railroad, his only avenue for supplies; he had before him a veteran and vigilant foe in a mountainous country, affording great facilities to its defenders and presenting corresponding difficulties to an invader. He first advanced against his enemy at Dalton, and finding him too strongly posted

to be driven, dislodged him by a well-executed movement by the right flank, through Snake Creek Gap toward Resaca. He quickly followed this up by another movement of the same flank, which compelled Johnston to fall back over the Oostanaula, nor was the latter able to make a stand until he had retreated south of the Etowah to the vicinity of Dallas and New Hope Church. In two weeks the Federal commander thus forced his adversary back for fifty miles, without a general engagement and without suffering heavy loss. Sherman now attacked the Confederates in position at New Hope Church and Pickett's Mill, on May 25 and 27, but was repulsed on both days with severe loss. His large superiority, however, soon enabled him by a movement—this time of his left flank—to force Johnston back, first to Lost Mountain, and then to Kennesaw. Impatient of the tenacity with which Johnston here held him in check, Sherman again tried, on June 27, a general assault of the Confederate lines, but everywhere met with a bloody repulse, and for the future desisted from such assaults upon entrenched positions. Recurring once more to his flanking operations, he pushed forward his right flank toward the Chattahoochee, while he held Johnston with his main body. The Confederates, to protect their communications, again fell back, and on July 9 finally crossed the Chattahoochee.

Important events now followed in rapid succession. Sherman passed the Chattahoochee with little opposition, while Johnston prepared to dispute the further advance of the Federal army, by taking a position on Peach Tree Creek, in front of Atlanta. On July 18 he was removed from command, the Confederate Government being greatly dissatisfied with his continued retreat, and fearing that his defensive tactics would result in the speedy fall of that city. Hood was put in his place. This officer, more dashing than discreet, at once exchanged a policy of cautious defence for one of offence, and on July 20 and 22 made vigorous efforts to overthrow first the right and then the left wing of the Federal army. These attacks, though inflicting severe damage on Sherman, were more exhausting to the Confederates. They (in conjunction with the successful operations of the Confederate cavalry) merely postponed the fall of Atlanta for a few weeks, until Sherman could gradually extend his right completely around the city, and place it firmly on the Macon Railroad in the rear. Hood, no longer able to keep his communications open, was forced to evacuate on September 1.

General Johnston's course during this campaign, as well as that of the Confederate Government in removing him from command, has been the subject of much diverse and bitter criticism. We have space but for a few words on the subject. That General Johnston had ability of a very high order for conducting the defensive operations of a small force against one so overwhelming as to preclude aggression, seems to be beyond question, as witness his skilful retreat from Manassas in 1862, and his still more masterly defence of, and retreat from, Yorktown; but his predominant characteristic as a commander was caution, and he was not so well fitted to command when disparity of numbers and resources were to be neutralized by boldness of design, rapidity of movement, and fierceness of attack. Many a commander, inferior to General Johnston in intellectual calibre, has won renown by holding, with smaller resources, such a country as North Georgia against an invading host. Nor can the attitude assumed by General Johnston in his correspondence with the Confederate President and Secretary of War be thought worthy of his position and fame. The action of President Davis, however, in displacing him at the very crisis of the campaign was a tremendous blunder. Rare and extreme circumstances can alone justify a change of commanders in the midst of active operations. In this case the result was a series of events that rapidly precipitated the downfall of the Confederacy.

General Cox's account of the cavalry operations of this campaign is inadequate. The minor errors of the book are few. A curious one occurs on page 98, where General Polk is spoken of as Bishop of Tennessee and brother of President Polk.

Facsimiles of Examples in Delineation, Selected from the Masters for the use of Students in Drawing. By Charles H. Moore, Instructor in Drawing and Principles of Design in Harvard University. Cambridge: Moses King.

"HITHERTO, as a rule," says Mr. Moore, "examples of more or less inferior kind have been the only ones within reach of those who have wished to learn to draw; and the loose and meaningless habits of execution, and the uncultivated taste, which are so frequently met with, are but the natural result of their use. But now that the mechanical methods of reproduction have reached so high a degree of perfection, there is no longer any reason why students of drawing should not be supplied with the very best models."

To train the eye and the hand, and at the same time to lay the foundation of a pure and elevated taste, is, then, the object of this collection of designs. All who have had experience must agree with Mr. Moore that confusion of purpose, infelicity of selection, and mediocrity of invention, have presided heretofore over the manufacture of drawing-books and cartoons, and the teaching which has been based upon them. To confront the pupil, on the other hand, with masterpieces which ennoble even the failure to imitate them; to choose them with a sure sense of the peculiar discipline of each; to arrange them according to their progressive utility and their mode of production or reproduction—this is a service long needed and now executed by Mr. Moore with characteristic insight and refinement. He is himself familiar by actual practice with numerous vehicles of design; he has served his apprenticeship in copying the old masters; his own work is highly prized by lovers of art; and he has a perfectly clear conception of the task he has undertaken.

The sixteen plates of facsimiles made by the Forbes Albertype process vary in interest, and do not equally betray at a glance the special instruction intended. Parenthetically, we should observe here that they are not to be given to beginners, but to those who have already attained a precise command of simple lines. The first is Holbein's pen-sketch of Sir Thomas More's family, and until attempted it will probably seem the easiest of the series. In fact, the pupil who passes from it *cum laude* will be prepared to attack anything that comes after. More figures are introduced, for the sake of a like firmness and expressiveness of line, in bits from Dürer's woodcut designs from the Apocalypse and the "Great Passion." A woodcut after Titian, vouched for by Mr. Moore as in character of line remarkably like Titian's own pen-drawing, is followed by a portrait of a Doge, etched by Tintoret. Two red-chalk drawings from nature, of berry-vines, by Leonardo da Vinci, exhibit and will exact qualities of the highest draughtsmanship. In five etchings from Turner's 'Liber Studiorum,' rocks (as in "Dunstanborough Castle"), the strand (as in the "Smugglers—Flint Castle"), the pool (as in "Near Blair Athol"), tree forms (as in the last-mentioned plate and in the "Cephalus and Procris"), and the sweep of mountain, gorge, and valley (as in the astonishing suggestions of "Ben Arthur"), are all held up for imitation or despair. One sample of Prout's architectural drawing invites the crayon or the lithographic pencil; a softer chalk is required for Ruskin's Venetian stilted archivolt and arch from San Michele at Lucca; while John Lewis's etchings of horse, donkey, and sleeping lion and lioness can hardly be followed except with the needle, unless the pupil prefers the option, held out for all the plates by Mr. Moore, of endeavoring to render their "characteristics in a comparatively free manner, as one might from nature." In the case of the smaller Lewises, at least, a slavish adherence to the lines we should regard as worth little except as a lesson in the technic of etching. The lion's mane is a different exercise, and as profitable, maybe, as the Doge's beard.

These plates are tastefully issued in a portfolio, and accompanied with handsome, though not very extended, letter-press. They will educate those who do no more than study them carefully without a pencil. The plan is so sound, and Mr. Moore so competent a guide, that we wish he might do something to raise the standard of primary instruction in drawing, which is lamentably deficient wherever it has fallen under our observation, in schools public and private.

The Culture and Management of our Native Forests. By H. W. S. Cleveland. Chicago, 67 Washington Street. Pp. 16.

THIS is a paper read last winter before a committee of the Massachusetts Legislature, and its object is to show that our natural forests may be greatly improved in value and beauty by a little judicious care and management. American writers on forestry, looking rather to the wants of the treeless West than to the requirements of the Eastern part of the country, have heretofore generally confined their attention to explaining the necessity and methods of planting trees, and little has been said of the importance of caring for the forests which nature spreads with such lavish hands over all the Atlantic margin. In any of the Eastern States, except, indeed, along the immediate sea-coast, trees will spring up with astonishing rapidity, if the ground can be protected from fire and the attacks of browsing animals; and it is to these self-planted woods that we shall have to look mainly in the future for our supplies of lumber. Forests, no doubt, and very extensive ones, will in time be planted on the Western prairies; but nature plants better and cheaper than man, and a planted forest can hardly compete as a money investment with a self-sown one.

The growth of a forest is one long struggle between the individuals composing it for mastery in the race for life. In the long run, the strongest species or individuals conquer and crowd out the weaker; but this process of natural selection is very slow, and a great deal of energy is consumed in it. In other words, in every natural forest in a well-watered country there are ten times as many trees as can possibly reach maturity, and the destruction of the superfluous trees by their stronger or more fortunate neighbors is only obtained at the cost to the survivors of rapid growth and early maturity. But nature can be greatly aided in its selection of the individuals to reach maturity; and here forestry should step in, and thin our woods and prune and direct the growth of our most valuable trees. Such methods are well understood in Europe, where timber commands prices which justify the cost of the labor necessary to assist nature to produce the finest possible trees in the shortest time; but in this country the value of forest products has not yet warranted the expense which a scientific management would impose on landowners. The time, however, cannot

be distant when it will be as profitable for the farmer to thin and prune his trees as it now is to manure and cultivate his corn or potatoes; and instruction in the methods of woodland management, based on experience and the study of the laws of nature, is certainly one of the most urgent needs of American agriculture. Mr. Cleveland's pamphlet is suggestive, and prepares the way for a more detailed work on the same subject.

The Finances and Public Works of India, from 1869 *to* 1881. By Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., and Lieut.-General Richard Strachey. London. 1882.

THIS is the joint work of two brothers. Sir John Strachey was for many years at the head of the finances of India, and his term of office is chiefly remarkable for an enormous blunder which marked the close of it. At a time when the expenses of the war in Afghanistan averaged £750,000 a month, Sir John calculated in his budget that the expenses for the year would amount to £1,000,000, adding that he saw "no reason to suppose that the estimate erred on the side of being too low." General Strachey was for many years at the head of the Public Works Department in India, and, as in the case of his brother, his term of office was signalized by an enormous blunder, for which the Indian taxpayer has had to pay very heavily. The great strategical railway which is to unite Calcutta with Peshawur had been constructed as far as Lahore on the broad-gauge system. At this point General Strachey, in defiance of the unanimous opinion of the railway experts, insisted upon carrying it on upon a narrow gauge. The consequence was that the extension, having been completed at great cost, was found to work so badly that the narrow-gauge railway had to be destroyed, and the whole reconstructed on a broad gauge. These two eminent administrators now come forward to assure the British nation that under their wise management of the finances and public works of India the people of that country have been redeemed from a condition of poverty to one of almost unparalleled affluence.

Nobody can read this book and doubt the perfect sincerity of its authors. Their panacea for the ills of India is a very simple one, and they are entirely convinced of its efficiency: it is to borrow enormous sums of money and construct therewith canals and railways all over India. They claim to have restored India to a state of affluence because they have carried out this policy to a large extent, though not to that enormous extent which a far-reaching wisdom would have enjoined. At the same time, from the midst of a huge and bewildering chaos of figures, these broad facts are clearly to be recognized: During eleven years of peace, the ordinary debt of India has been increased by £60,000,000—from £97,000,000 to £157,000,000; £142,000,000 have been expended on canals and irrigation-works which are called "productive," but which as yet have not returned enough to pay the costs of their annual maintenance; £15,000,000 have had to be expended in famine relief, notwithstanding which 8,000,000 of the people of India have succumbed to hunger; £18,000,000 have been spent on the futile war in Afghanistan; and the excess of exports from India over imports, during the same time, has exceeded the gigantic sum of £120,000,000. There are people, Sir John Strachey admits, who, fixing their attention upon these facts, are loth to admit the marvels which he and his brother profess to have achieved. They declare that the people of India "are becoming poorer and poorer, more and more exposed to ruin and death by famine; that crushing taxation goes on constantly increasing; that an enormous and ruinous tribute is exacted from India to be spent in England; and I know not what else. I have," adds Sir John Strachey, "neither the time nor the inclination to reply to statements of this sort." Sir J. Strachey, however, has not adhered to this intention: the present book, which contains 450 pages, is a very labored, and quite ineffectual, answer to "statements of this sort." For neither he nor his brother perceives the very obvious fact that, while a large extension of public works is a legitimate index to a nation's prosperity when they are freely constructed out of the surplus capital of the nation itself, they denote nothing of the kind when constructed by a foreign despotism by means of imported capital. On the contrary, works constructed in this manner, while at the best they can benefit a portion only of the community, represent additional taxation imposed upon the community as a whole.

We will illustrate our meaning by the case of the East Indian Railway—one of the "guaranteed" railways, as they have been called. By its contract with the East Indian Railway Company, the Government of India provided, free of charge to the company, all the land on which the railway is laid, and guaranteed from the revenues of India five per cent. interest on the capital of the company, payable in sterling in London. The net cost to the state—*i. e.*, to the people of India—is estimated to have amounted to not less than £12,000,000, when, by the terms of the contract, the Government of India was compelled to buy the railway outright. The price paid was £125 for every £100 of capital stock, or £32,750,000 for the whole stock of £26,200,000. Now, whence did the Government of India obtain all this money? They deducted it from the scanty subsistence of the ryots all over India, nineteen-twentieths of whom no more benefited by the construction of this railway than if it had been built in the moon. Whatever profits may accrue in the future to the state from the working of this railway, the wealth of the present generation has been destroyed to that extent by the fact of its construction. No compensation can ever be made to them, and they will bequeath by so much a scantier patrimony to the generation which succeeds them. It is freely admitted upon all sides that there is no capital available in India for the construction of these huge and costly railway-lines. The people live from hand to mouth, and possess nothing which is not required for the needs of the day. Capital must, therefore, be imported, and the interest on all such capital has to be paid by the very people who, in order to pay it, must deduct the amount from their already scanty subsistence. Thus the primary effect of the state undertaking to construct canals and railways in India is to intensify the prevailing impoverishment of the people. And when such undertakings are pushed on to excess by administrators of the Strachey type, the first failure of the harvest discloses the frightful abyss to which the people have been drawn. Stripped by the demands of the Government of all their little savings, dependent in each year for what they can obtain from the soil during that year, if the harvest be blighted before it is gathered, they have no alternative but to lie down and die.

An Etymology of Greek and Latin. By S. C. Halsey. Boston: Ginn & Heath. 1882.

THOSE who are watching the tendency of methods of classical instruction will be interested in this, the second of Messrs. Ginn & Heath's publications for the use of young students in classical philology (the first having been Prof. F. D. Allen's 'Early Latin,' published two years ago). The subject of the new book assures it a welcome. It has evidently been made with painstaking labor, and is exceptionally free from that class of errors which is to be expected in a work that aims to put a large and difficult subject within the reach of beginners. On the other hand, its defects are of a kind much more easily avoided—namely, want of a clearly-conceived purpose, and errors of proportion. The important thing in a book of this kind is not so much to teach the student that such and such phenomena are facts, and that such and such words are related, as to give him sound and clear ways of looking at things. It is greatly to be feared that the young student of the 'Etymology' will not get very sound and clear ways of looking at phonetic change, for example, from the six and a half pages into which the whole of that large subject has been crowded. For the "rules" of assimilation and dissimilation of consonants, the learner is referred to the grammars, in most of which, in the nature of things, a treatment in keeping with a purpose like the present is not to be expected. The very word "rule," indeed, is of ill omen in a book upon comparative philology, though it is in perfect harmony with a form of statement like the following (under the head of vowel-change): "The object of dissimilation is to prevent," etc. The subjects of reduplication, nasalization, consonant-insertion, and inorganic vowels, are entirely omitted. No explanation is granted of the meaning of the phenomenon of vowel-increase, though the tables are given at some length. The subject of rhotacism is stated without explanation, illustration, or limitation of range, in the words, "Often *s* passes into *r*." On the other hand, the views of the new school are stated at much greater length. To students of some advancement, such a statement is the most important part of the book. But it is intended by the author—and very properly—that the subject he is treating shall be approached by beginners by the methods of the old school; and for that reason the young people for whom the book was made are entitled to demand, at whatever sacrifice of other things, a clear and sufficiently full presentation of the views of that school—to say nothing of the views held in common by both schools. It is to be doubted, too, whether the author has done well in ignoring the distinction expressed by the convenient terms, "cognate" and "derivative," and in giving no clew in his large enumeration of English words to any differences of experience among them.

In spite of these and similar imperfections, however, the book will be a useful one, and, improved as it doubtless will be in later editions, it should have an honorable career.

Mountain Scouting. By Edward S. Farrow, U. S. A., Assistant Instructor in Tactics at the U. S. Military Academy. New York: Metropolitan Publishing Co.

'MOUNTAIN SCOUTING' is something after the manner of Francis Galton's admirable little work on the 'Art of Travel,' but is more limited in its scope and far less carefully prepared and printed. It is designed primarily as a handbook for young officers going for the first time to the frontier, and abounds in practical suggestions with regard to camping, mule-packing, marching, Indian-fighting, cooking, living off the country, etc. Much of the information has a smack of real life about it, as, for instance, this: "To prevent a mule from braying when silence is necessary in a hostile country—tie a heavy rock to his tail." That, one feels at once, is drawn from the author's personal experience. A portion of the book is confessedly a compilation; but a great deal, such as the "diamond hitch" in mule-packing with an aparejo, has probably never been

printed before. Its value, therefore, to those who intend roughing it in the West, is considerable, but would have been greatly enhanced by a more systematic arrangement, or at least by the provision of an index. It seems singular that an instructor in tactics at West Point should be so inconsequent as to give, under the heading of "Rice pudding," instructions about fortifying one's camp; so credulous as to repeat, as a fact, the long-exploded story of old hunters, that the big-horn "frequently leap from great heights, landing on their horns"; or so innocent of zoölogy as not to know that the so-called "jack-rabbit" is not a rabbit, but a hare.

The vocabulary of the Chinook jargon, the common language of intercommunication between the many little Indian tribes of the Northwest, should have been given in Chinook-English, as well as in English-Chinook, since probably the majority of people learn a new language largely by ear. In such an uncouth dialect as this, especially, the written signs very inadequately express the sounds for which they stand. A stranger would first familiarize himself with the words he hears, and then learn their meaning. He might commit the little vocabulary at the end of this book to memory, and yet not be able to make himself understood; so that, if only one vocabulary were to be given, the Chinook-English would be the more useful of the two.

The Land of the Bey: Being Impressions of Tunis under the French. By T. Wemyss Reid. London: S. Low. 1882. 8vo. Pp. xii.–312.

Mr. Reid went to Tunis apparently as the special correspondent of the *Standard*, arriving in the city October 17, 1881, a few days after its occupation by the French. His stay in the country was very short (seventeen days in all), and he saw nothing of the military operations connected with the virtual annexation of the Regency. As a contribution to the history of this questionable transaction, therefore, his book has little or no importance. Its only value consists in the fact that it is a series of bright sketches of life and incidents in Tunis at a time of great interest. All alike, natives and foreigners, were naturally in a state of great excitement, and the latter never left their quarters without the risk of meeting an assassin in any scowling Arab who passed them. Under these circumstances, it was somewhat startling to Mr. Reid, on returning to his room at the hotel one day, to find it occupied by an English lady and her daughter, "a pretty young girl of seventeen," who had chosen this time to visit Tunis because "it was such a romantic place." In blissful ignorance of any cause for alarm, "they were quite prepared to go for a walk by themselves into the very midst of the native quarter"! Over the beauty of the bay of Tunis our author is very enthusiastic. The city itself, however, differs but little from other Eastern cities. The narrow, squalid streets, the bazaar with its tiny shops and impassive merchants, the strange parti-colored throng of passers-by, the strings of heavily-laden camels and mules, are well described, but seem perfectly familiar. There are also the same sharp contrasts between the exterior and the interior of the houses of the rich. Mr. Reid was invited by a General Ben Ayad to witness some of the native dances. Entering from "a little courtyard surrounded by buildings apparently of the utmost squalor," he found his way up a staircase, dimly lighted by a single oil-lamp, into what appeared to be a deserted house.

"Suddenly a door was thrown open, and, as if by magic, the scene changed. We saw before us a vast and brilliantly-lighted apartment, the extreme length of which could not have been less than sixty feet, nor its breadth less than forty. Brilliantly illuminated both by gas-jets and countless candles, its richly-tiled walls and gaily-painted ceiling fairly glittered with light. It was furnished with huge looking-glasses, set in swinging frames like those used by ladies in their dressing-rooms, and wardrobes and cabinets of large size. The wood-work of all these was of the most brilliant vermilion-red, lavishly picked out with gold, and the general effect of this barbaric splendor was so grand that I was filled with surprise as I found myself in this noble hall, and felt fairly dazzled by the magnificence of the scene."

At the Bey's palace he saw a curious ceremony, which very likely now has for ever ceased:

"A melancholy-looking man in tattered garments, beating a large drum—like himself, considerably the worse for wear—crossed the courtyard, and, climbing the lion staircase, took up his position in front of the door of the throne-room. He was followed by a second performer on a kind of flute, from which he drew forth weird and ear-piercing strains. The door was thrown open, and two old heralds in scarlet and gold took their places on either side of it. Then, when the musical performance, which had lasted some considerable time, had ceased, one of the heralds, a venerable Turk, proclaimed in Turkish—and apparently by a series of dismal howls which reverberated through the corridors and courtyards of the palace—the titles and glories of the Sultan."

If we are not mistaken, a very similar ceremony takes place on Friday in every mosque in Algeria, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of the French to prevent it. A short visit to the ruins of Carthage was the only excursion at any distance from the walls which Mr. Reid dared to make. "The whole site of the city is strewn with the broken fragments of pottery, mosaic, sculptured marbles, pillars, and tiles. Everywhere, too, huge fallen masses of masonry are lying prone upon the earth." The most perfectly preserved of these ruins are the cisterns, "vast subterranean structures, with heavy, vaulted roofs." The great mounds have been partially dug over, and some valuable treasures have been found, but they have not yet "been explored with modern thoroughness." An attempt to reach the sacred city of Kairwan failed, though our author got as far as Susa. The French were evidently not anxious for the presence of an English special correspondent with the army. But they had still more objectionable visitors than he, as the following passage shows: "Tunis has lately witnessed a remarkable influx of mysterious Germans—gentlemen, for the most part, of a decidedly military bearing. . . . These gentlemen are by no means obtrusive in their demeanor. They frequent none of the hotels; they might even seem to be anxious to escape the observation of the French authorities. . . . They show a most unwearied assiduity in collecting facts, both political and military, with regard to the past and the present of French rule in Tunis." In the closing chapter Mr. Reid treats exclusively of the political situation, but not in a manner to furnish much enlightenment. Showing the extent of English interests in the country, however, he states that there are 10,000 British subjects, chiefly Maltese, resident in Tunis.

Brushland. By John Darby. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

It would probably surprise the author of this book to be told that his farming is better than his English, or his fine English; but so it is. The supposititious dialogues with "my publisher" and with "Broadcloth," the classical allusion, the mystical philosophizing, are the rubbish which the judicious critic condemns as remorselessly as our amateur cultivator did the daisies and brambles of his Jersey farm. His excuse for writing is his success in redeeming a small portion of the uninviting but really fertile southern section of New Jersey; he, a Philadelphia physician, directing, and with and through his tenants executing, his schemes of drainage, repair, and scientific planting. There is undeniable romance in such a recovery of the soil from waste and ruin, and health and profit in the process. The narrative seems as truthful as it is whimsical, and the book will take its place in the rapidly-growing library of New Jersey evidences. No one who has given any attention to the subject is disposed to regard lightly any prophecy of the future wealth and productiveness of the land of the vine, the cranberry, of all fruits, of glass, and of pottery—of clay, sand, marl, the scrub-oak, and the scrub-pine; a Western flatness with the undeveloped richness of the prairie, and with more than the prairie's capacity for the growing of timber; the dismal tract lying between the two greatest markets and the largest urban populations on the continent; the cause of the most unfounded prejudices against the State on the part of travellers who, like a certain ex-Secretary of the Treasury, take the census from the car-windows.

Essays and Dialogues of Giacomo Leopardi. Translated by Charles Edwardes. With Biographical Sketch. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. Pp. 216.

This well-translated and tastefully-bound volume is, in view of the increasing interest in the writings of the apostles of pessimism, also opportune. Like the rest, Leopardi loved paradox, was not free from affectation, and realized the full value of his miseries as a "whetstone to his wit." There was also an adverse fortune as well as moral weakness; but the third and better element of pessimism was not lacking in him. There are abundant indications of the deep instinct that teaches men that despair, if it be genuine, reveals, if it does not sometimes make, character. It must be confessed that this tonic effect of objectifying and painting their wretchedness is not manifest in the pessimists of the present century.

There are many striking observations, with much that is labored and commonplace:—The first readers of any great book, Homer for instance, never appreciate it. It is the twenty-seven centuries of admiration that really impresses us. Because we cannot dissociate the two, we are ever mistaking the halo of fame for merit, and passing by books that are really better. Again, it may be that, from any of many other causes, it is our mind that is exalted rather than that the book is good. A book that makes a good first impression is cheap. Hence, literary fame is a matter of chance and often of mediocrity. Talent is a misfortune, for it may lead to that most absolute isolation which is found just ahead of our fellows; it may lead us to the illusion of living for posterity, who will, in fact, be as much meaner than we as we are than our ancestors, while at best it may barely get us a living by serving as a deformity one begs alms for showing. The best thing it can do is to devise a method by which the author is outstripped, forgotten, and perhaps, like Bacon, despised. The truest philosophy is abstinence from philosophy, and perhaps to become "only a trunk which feels and suffers," for the greater the mind the more the *ennui*. Our age is so mechanical that we may yet have even safety-valves for egotism: paths of honor, glory, virtue, etc., traversed by steam-power, etc.; and, as a pig's soul was said to be only a function or element like salt, which keeps the pork fresh till it is wanted for the table, so the human soul, if it would have a higher quality, must seek it by imitating the birds, which have the most perfect senses, are the most constantly active, and have the greatest mo-

tion in several elements, and whose song, of which the lately-evolved human habit of laughter is a ghastly analogue, is about the only real thing of joy in the universe.

Eau-de-Nil: A Chronicle. By E. C. Hope-Edwardes. London: R. Bentley. 1882. 8vo, pp. viii.-319.

If it were not for one thing, this book might be dismissed with the remark that it is a commonplace narrative of a very familiar journey. Miss Hope-Edwardes has no mishaps nor adventures, not even the doubtful discovery of a buried tomb, to record. Accompanied by her brother, she went a little beyond the first cataract of the Nile in the winter of 1880–81, making the various excursions prescribed by the guide-books to the ruins on the river banks. We will do her the justice to say, however, that she does not inflict many descriptions of these places upon her readers, nor does she have a great deal to say about the dynasties or other subjects so dear to the Egyptologist. The one thing which gives the book any value is the very graphic picture which she draws of the persons forming the crew of her dahabieh. Having evidently a more than ordinary faculty for winning the confidence of her companions, and aided by a slight knowledge of Arabic, she used to the best advantage her many opportunities for talking with them. Parts of these conversations, "from notes taken at the time, or immediately afterwards," are given, and form by far the most interesting part of the book, as they present a clear and presumably truthful idea of the life of the Nile boatman, together with his opinions on many important subjects. Whether her boat's crew was an exceptionally good one or not, we do not know; but, judging from her account, the men seem to have been good-natured, faithful to their duties, honest as regards their employers, and by no means lacking in intelligence. Especially attractive was the steersman, Rais Abdallah, "a charming creature in appearance and manners," the story of whose life is given at some length.

Miss Hope-Edwardes apparently saw little of the suffering among the people which has so clouded the enjoyment of many recent Nile travellers. Beggars were of course numerous wherever the boat touched. Sometimes they were very amusing. One was a boy

"about ten years old, very ragged, and with a bright Murillo style of face. He went through every sort of infirmity in pantomime: first dragging himself along the ground with apparently no legs; then suddenly going blind, and feeling his way up to us; then ravenously hungry, eating the ground—with admirable change of countenance; and between each, asking for baksheesh with the most winning smiles and gestures. But we had to be firm, as there was a pack of wolves watching, who would have left us no peace if we had once yielded. At last his patience failed, and he changed suddenly, drew himself up, pulled a purse out of some deep recess in his bosom, opened it, and showed us some coins: shook it defiantly at us, and stalked grandly away, and a minute or two after we saw him peeping very cautiously round a corner to see what effect he had produced."

The following incident shows to what an extreme length the Eastern custom of offering refreshment during any business transaction is carried in Upper Egypt: "When St. L. went to the post-office to send a telegram he was also immediately accommodated with a chair and a cup of coffee, the clerk taking another; and so they went leisurely to work." There are few political allusions in the book, but several times the present Khedive, Tewfik, was brought into the conversation by the author's companions, and always in terms of praise. This was chiefly because of his reduction of the taxes. For instance, Abdallah, whose home was on an island at the foot of the first cataract, says: "I have a little land—hardly any, but those maize-cakes you had came off it, and there are two or three date-palms. I pay tribute for it. It used to be five guineas a year; now Effendina—may Allah lengthen his life!—has made it two guineas and a half."

Eastern Proverbs and Emblems, illustrating Old Truths. By the Rev. J. Long, Member of the Bengal Asiatic Society, F.R.G.S. London: Trübner; New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

The compiler of this volume assures us in his preface that the materials from which it has been drawn are scattered through more than a thousand volumes, some of them very rare and to be found only in Indian or Russian libraries, or in the British Museum. The marks of diligence are upon every page. But diligence is not sufficient for the making of a good book. This one contains many admirable things, and yet, as a whole, might have been much better. Its contents are divided into three parts, "Proverbs and Emblems chiefly Moral," "Proverbs and Emblems Moral and Religious," and "Proverbs and Emblems Religious." These divisions are quite arbitrary. Not only is the character of the proverbs under the different heads very similar, but the same proverbs turn up again and again under them. The compiler has not been so strict as he might have been in the construction of his title—'*Eastern* Proverbs and Emblems.' When these are Russian he justifies himself easily, but when Italian, the only justification can be that we are all Eastern in the last analysis. Still, the proverbs here are mainly Eastern, and few better can be found anywhere. They are convincing proof that the Eastern mind was very apt at this gnomic wisdom.

If only Mr. Long had been content to give us the proverbial wisdom of others and had spared us his own lucubrations! On the contrary, every set of proverbs is introduced with a verse from the Hebrew or Christian Scriptures, and then we are treated to a homiletic commentary of the most trivial and inane description, into which are dragged as many Scripture texts as have even the remotest or most fanciful connection with the matter principally in hand. Anything drearier than the outcome of this method, followed up through several hundred pages, it would be difficult to conceive. But the intelligent reader, after becoming well apprised of Mr. Long's personal quality, will skip his homilies and be only grateful to him for the proverbs he has brought together.

Practical Dog Training; or, Training vs. Breaking. By S. T. Hammond. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company.

It was for years the generally accepted theory that the education of pointers and setters could only be accomplished by the assistance of frequent and vigorous beatings, with an occasional charge of fine shot at long range in the finishing branches. Later the use of the cord was for some time much advocated for field instruction; whippings became rarer and shootings were almost dispensed with. Now Mr. Hammond boldly advocates the plan of teaching a dog "all it is necessary for him to know without a single blow being struck or a single harsh word being spoken," and claims that by adopting his method you can "invariably succeed in turning out a well-trained, well-behaved dog." Every one interested in dogs should read Mr. Hammond's book, as the same general rules of instruction will apply to any well-bred, intelligent animals so far as improving their general conduct and agreeableness goes. Mr. Hammond begins his dogs' training in the early days of their puppyhood, and is very sensible in preferring descendants of well-bred field performers to mere winners at bench shows. The education goes on slowly but persistently in a way to enlist the affection of the pupil in assistance of his instinct, and to teach him to obey from love and desire of reward instead of from fear. Mr. Hammond asserts that aside from the greater humanity of his method, the results obtained are much more favorable than by any other. The printing of the book is execrable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, T. History of Shorthand: Its Prospects in Europe and America. London: W. H. Allen & Co.
Appletons' Dictionary of New York and Vicinity. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Baer, Mrs. B. F. Irene; or, Beach-Broken Billows. W. B. Smith & Co. 25 cents.
Björnson, B. The Bridal March, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Buckhout, Mrs. B. M. Aftermath: From City and Country, Berg and Thal. W. B. Smith & Co. $1.
Clark, S. S. A Text-Book on Commercial Law. Clark & Maynard.
Lubbock, Sir J. Ants, Bees, and Wasps. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co.

YALE COLLEGE

Catalogue for 1881–82, under "Sheffield Scientific School," says: "For preparation in algebra and geometry, the recently-published text-books of Prof. Newcomb on this subject (Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1881) may, without indicating undue preference, be especially recommended."

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Register for 1882–83, under "Requirements for Examination": "3. In *Mathematics*, Solid Geometry, and Conic Sections, as much as is contained in '*Newcomb's Elements of Geometry*'; Advanced Algebra, as much as is contained in 'Olney's University Algebra,' or in '*Newcomb's Algebra*.'"

NEWCOMB'S
Mathematical Course.

By Simon Newcomb, Prof. of Mathematics U. S. Navy, Supt. of the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac, Member of the National Academy, Corresponding Member of the Institute of France, etc.; one of the authors of Newcomb and Holden's 'Astronomy,' etc., etc.

READY:

ALGEBRA, for Schools. $1 20.
ALGEBRA, for Colleges. $1 75.
GEOMETRY. $1 50.
TRIGONOMETRY. $1 50.
TRIGONOMETRY, with Log and other Tables. $2.
LOGARITHMIC and other Tables. $1 40.

IN PREPARATION:

PLANE GEOMETRY & TRIGONOMETRY. (*In Press.*)
ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY (in 1882).
CALCULUS.

☞ *Copies of any of the above sent, postpaid, to teachers for examination, upon receipt of half the advertised prices.*

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 20, 1882.

The Week.

At the Stock Exchange, buoyancy and advancing prices were the characteristics of business, and, for the first time in over a year, the public at large were buyers in an important way of stocks the value of which is chiefly speculative. This indicates that after a year of poor crops and comparative depression, caused by the liquidation of the great speculation which followed the resumption of specie payments, the prevailing opinion is that the business of the country will now take a fresh start toward activity and prosperity. The crop news during the week has been of the best, and the indications are that, whether the Egyptian troubles spread or not, this country will have in the coming year the best foreign market for its exportable surplus that it has had for years. An event of the week was the enactment of the Bank Charter Bill, the main purpose of which was to extend the charters of the national banks with the least possible friction or disturbance. The bill was encumbered with several objectionable sections. One of these relates to the issue of gold and silver certificates, and compels the banks to sever their connection with any clearing-house which does not permit settlement of differences to be made in silver certificates. As the latter are not a full legal tender, and any one receiving them can only pay them to the Government for customs duties, and as the section relating to them is obscurely drawn, it is likely to fail of its purpose; but that there might be no apparent opposition of the New York banks to a law of Congress, the New York Clearing-house met and rescinded that part of its resolutions of 1879 which seemingly conflicted with the new law. Another section of the new law forbids the over-certification of checks, and was directed against a custom which all the banks having Stock Exchange accounts have safely practised for years. This action may lead to the establishment of a Clearing-house for Stock Exchange transactions; but for the present the banks "accept" checks, where before the custom was to "certify" them. The foreign demand for American securities has increased during the week, and none of the foreign markets have been unfavorably affected by what has occurred in Egypt. British Consols have been very firm, and have advanced slightly.

The appropriation of $15,000 to enable the President to carry out the United States Statute relating to the selection of persons for the civil service, moved by Mr. Bayne in the House the other day, was contemptuously rejected, only five Republicans voting for it. Since then the eyes of the majority seem to have been opened by the comments elicited by this very remarkable performance, and on Thursday the appropriation was made by an almost equally large majority. The contempt of a considerable body of Republican legislators for the law of the land seems, in fact, to be fully as great as for civil-service reform and party professions thereon. Here is the statute, passed as long ago as 1871, which they have of late been deliberately and insolently refusing to give the President the means of executing:

"The President is authorized to prescribe such regulations for the admission of persons into the civil service of the United States as may best promote the efficiency thereof, and ascertain the fitness of each candidate in respect to age, health, character, knowledge, and ability for the branch of the service in which he seeks to enter; and for this purpose he may employ suitable persons to conduct such inquiries, and may prescribe their duties and establish regulations for the conduct of persons who may receive appointments in the civil service."

The Pennsylvania Independents have promptly declined to be caught in the trap set for them by Mr. Cameron. At the same time they tried to deprive the Stalwarts of the political capital the latter expected to make out of an unconditional rejection of their proposition for reunion, by submitting a counter proposition which had the merit of fairness and was put forth as an ultimatum. It was to the effect that both the Stalwart and Independent tickets should be withdrawn, and that the several candidates should "pledge themselves not to accept any subsequent nomination by the proposed new convention." This proposition was signed by four of the Independent candidates. It must be observed, however, that the mere withdrawal of the candidates on both sides, and the mere defeat of Mr. Cameron's effort to make General Beaver Governor of Pennsylvania, do not meet the programme of the Independent movement. If the whole thing were to end there, it would fall very much short of the requirements of the times. Those requirements have been far more broadly and correctly appreciated by Mr. McMichael, the Independent candidate for Congressman-at-large, who refused to subscribe to the proposition signed by his fellow-candidates, and wrote a separate letter, in which he defined his position and purposes as follows: "I will not withdraw or retire unless events hereafter give assurance that the necessary reform in the civil service shall be adopted, assessments made upon office-holders returned and not hereafter exacted, boss, machine, and spoils methods forever abandoned, and all our public offices, from United States Senators to the most unimportant officials, shall be filled only by honest and capable men, who will represent the people, and not attempt to dictate to or control them."

The Civil-Service Reform Association has replied to Mr. Hubbell's letter in a way which would cover anybody else with confusion. In his letter of June 22 he loudly demanded that a test case as to the legality of assessments on office-holders should be at once made up and tried. He "disdained to seek shelter behind any cover," and was ready for "any form of action in any tribunal." This challenge the Association accepted, and proposed to go before the Circuit Court without further delay. Mr. Hubbell, however, immediately backed out, and expresses no further interest in a judicial decision. The Association replies to his argument, based on the "voluntary" character of the payments, by calling his attention to the fact that the statute prohibits all payments, whether voluntary or involuntary. Mr. Hubbell is, however, so entirely shameless as to be beyond the reach of argument. Nothing short of criminal proceedings is likely to have any effect upon his mind.

The altercation between Mr. Hewitt and Mr. Robeson in the House of Representatives on Monday is another symptom that the temper of that body has grown too ugly for useful discussion and good legislative work. The first attack made by Mr. Hewitt on Mr. Robeson was, no doubt, fully justified. It is no unusual thing for a Senator or Representative, when revising the stenographic report of his speech, to cut out surplusage and repetitions, or interpolate here and there sentences that may be necessary to the clearness or continuity of the argument. Such things are frequently done without being noticed or commented upon. But when the interpolation consists in a personal attack upon a member of the Senate or the House which appears in print in the *Congressional Record*, and thus goes before the people without having been pronounced on the floor, the case is different. The gross impropriety of such a proceeding is obvious, and it might be characterized even by a stronger term. This is the thing which Mr. Robeson had done, and Mr. Hewitt, when he found himself personally attacked in the printed report of Mr. Robeson's speech, while Mr. Robeson had not uttered a word of that attack on the floor, was perfectly justified in inviting the attention of the House to it, and in asking to have that part of Mr. Robeson's speech expunged from the record. But he would have done better not to permit himself to be betrayed into a personal altercation with that gentleman. Mr. Robeson's standing before the country has for a long time been such, and it has been recently so much impaired by what he called his "vindication," that a parliamentary tilt with him cannot be creditable to anybody.

Mr. Elmore's letter to Mr. Randall with regard to the Crédit Industriel, and the support given it by Mr. Blaine, contains one important bit of testimony, which shows very clearly the real object which lay behind all Mr. Blaine's South American diplomacy. At one of the interviews at the State Department, at which Mr. Randall and Mr. Elmore were present, the question, it seems, arose as to what the United States would do in case Chili should insist on taking territory. While they were talking, Mr. Blaine sent a messenger over to the Navy Department, and in a few minutes a memorandum was brought in, which he handed to his visitors. It proved to contain a list of the vessels which the United States then had in the Pacific. Mr. Randall said: "This is too small a force for any demonstra-

tion against Chili." Mr. Blaine replied that the force did not signify, as "they were quite sufficient to make Chili understand what she might expect."

There is a good deal of excitement in North Carolina over a proposal made by a negro named Harris to have a "joint discussion" with Governor Jarvis before the people of the State. The suggestion was audacious enough in itself, but was made more dreadful still by the fact that Harris sent his message to the Governor by a white man, who is said to have been during the war a "gallant Confederate soldier." According to the Raleigh *News*, Harris "claims" that the people are ready for absolute equality, but the *News* says he is mistaken; that they are willing to have equality, but not so much equality as this. Governor Jarvis, at any rate, is not ready for it, for with a great deal of quiet dignity he told the messenger that "he had no reply to make." As it takes two to make a joint discussion possible, the North Carolina whites have this matter entirely in their own hands. When such revolting proposals are made them, all they have to do is to refuse, and no joint discussions will ever take place. In a community so intelligent as North Carolina, quiet will undoubtedly be restored as soon as this is generally understood.

The trouble over Walt Whitman's 'Leaves of Grass' has reached Philadelphia, where the Society for the Suppression of Vice and Immorality are endeavoring to have its circulation through the mails stopped. On the other hand, the Reverend Mr. Morrow, a Methodist clergyman, has come to the rescue of the book, which he says is the result of a "theory" of the author on the subject of the true function of poetry, and, though "robust and virile," is not an obscene publication; and he defends the book in a discourse of considerable length. There are two observations to be made with regard to this—that the law for the protection of the mails cannot be enforced if the character of the literature circulated is inferred from the "theory" which the author gives out as the explanation of it. In law the theory is mainly inferred, like any other intent, from the publication itself, and the explanations of the author are of comparatively little value as evidence. Another point is that public discussion of the question at issue does not advance matters much, for the poems which the District-Attorney is asked to look after are so "robust and virile" that few newspapers have dared to publish them. For the public to make up its mind, it is necessary to see the poems, and a discussion without copious quotations is consequently barren. If Mr. Morrow will read to his congregation some of the verses which he defends, the pewholders will then be in a position to judge whether they want to hear anything further about the "theory." Any one who takes up the cudgels against Zola or Whitman is obviously handicapped unfairly unless their defender will give extracts. Motives of delicacy forbid quotations to those who think them very disgusting; but the believers in their "theories" need not feel any restraint.

There was a very diverting scene at the prayer-meeting in Plymouth Church on Friday when Mr. Beecher made some remarks on the year's work. Mr. Thomas G. Shearman, famous ten short years ago as Fisk and Gould's lawyer during the disgraceful prostitution of the courts in their behalf, for which Judge Barnard was afterward tried and convicted, was present and humorously accused his pastor of conservatism. Mr. Shearman, who was then as now a church-member in good and regular standing, had at that time one of the most robust consciences in the State of New York, which enabled him to engineer some of the worst legal outrages ever perpetrated, without winking. Mr. Beecher, therefore, who is his pastor and friend, evidently trusted to the shortness of the public memory—which, alas! is very short—when he told on Friday an anecdote of Mr. Shearman's having been so scrupulous, when he was first Clerk of the Church, "that having been brought up a Baptist, and not believing in infant baptism, when it became his duty to record the baptism of children he came to Mr. Beecher and asked if he could conscientiously record such baptisms and become privy to them." We are copying the *Tribune's* report. Now, we greatly fear the advice the pastor gave in this very delicate case was the beginning of Brother Shearman's fall, for he was told, evasively and jesuitically, as it seems to us, that "he was a mere historian, and in recording facts was in no sense privy to their commission." We do not know in what year this solemn scene took place, but we cannot doubt that the violence which Mr. Shearman was then led, through his pastor's demoralizing suggestions, to do to his convictions about infant baptism, prepared him for that exceedingly paying but by no means scrupulous practice which he afterward carried on in Fisk's Opera House. Mr. Beecher has undoubtedly ruined one of the most sensitive things in the way of a moral sense ever produced on Long Island. Had Shearman retained his pristine conscience, he never could have borne even the approach of men holding such broad views about baptism, both infant and adult, as Fisk and Gould.

The last news from Egypt, though very confused, seems to indicate that Arabi Bey has still a small force—about five thousand men—with him outside Alexandria; but desertions from him are going on, and it is more than probable that if he has to move, his men will disperse, as the British have offered rations to those who return to their duty, and the Khedive has issued a proclamation ordering them to go home to their villages. This *débandade* will be precipitated by the rapid arrival of troops from England, and probably also from France, as, according to the latest news, the French have consented to share with England the task of protecting the Canal. It is not probable that the troops in following Arabi's fortunes really looked forward to active service against European troops. The prospect which opened itself to them was the one which brings about nearly all military revolts—that of reducing the Government to submission, getting rid of the European officials, and ruling the country in their own fashion. Mutineers are seldom long-headed politicians. The Conference has, it is reported, decided to ask the Sultan to send troops to restore order, but only for three, or at most six months. Whether his sovereign pride will permit him to interfere under these conditions remains to be seen. If he does, we may be sure it will be with a secret determination to stay as long as he can, and we shall probably witness again the process of bullying him into the performance of his contract, he all the while hoping for a quarrel over himself among the Powers. The situation is full of the seeds of future complications. The main hope of avoiding them must be based on the fear of them by which all the parties concerned seem to be agitated.

The instructions of his Government to Admiral Seymour were read in the House of Commons on Thursday, and do much to excuse his apparent supineness, and to account for Arabi's escape. They appear to have been based on the assumption that the fleet was simply assisting the Khedive in restoring his authority, and, therefore, was to do as little damage to his premises as possible. After the Admiral had silenced the forts, he was not to "dismantle them or disable the guns," but was to "open friendly communications with the Khedive," and land sailors and marines, "in concert with the Khedive," for "police purposes," and if any foreign men-of-war present wished to coöperate in these gentle and humane measures, they were to be invited to do so. Unfortunately there seems to have been no sort of relation between these instructions and the facts of the situation to which they were to be applied. They supposed the Khedive to have some sort of force at his command, which the British sailors and marines could strengthen. The fact was that he had no force but himself, was the next thing to a prisoner before the bombardment began, and actually a prisoner after it began. Coöperation with him, therefore, in any military sense, was impossible. Fleets and armies coöperate with other fleets and armies, and not with solitary middle-aged individuals. The order not to dismantle the forts, or disable their guns after silencing them, we do not well know how to characterize. Bombarding a fort with the concentrated fire of the most powerful artillery of modern times is so rough a proceeding, that a warning to the commanding officer to handle the fort tenderly after it has been silenced seems too naïf to be genuine, and yet genuine we suppose it is. The order that the sailors and marines, too, were to be landed as a police force only reveals still more plainly that the Ministry thought they were going to deal with an *émeute* and not with a war, but their thinking so was on its face absurd and unaccountable. Rioters do not hold forts, or if so, do not need to be expelled from them by a fleet of iron-clads. Certainly any rioters who stood a bombardment of many hours from a British fleet of the largest size ought not to be pursued by police, but by soldiers

After these instructions, it is not surprising that Mr. Gladstone should have accounted for his failure to take precautions against the awful scenes which marked the evacuation, by saying that the "Government could not have anticipated them." If they thought their attack on the forts was merely a little police duty, their surprise was natural enough. What they have to explain is, however, their failure to consider that any operation which called for the guns of a whole fleet was war, and war on a considerable scale, and their failure to perceive that there can be such a thing as limited war—or war that is to be fierce in the morning and mild in the afternoon. The officer who resisted the fleet in the forts was, it was plain to be seen, a desperate, and reckless, and very ignorant man. None but the desperate, reckless, and very ignorant would have attempted such a feat with the means at his disposal. Moreover, his rule in Alexandria had been marked a month previously by a massacre of Christians which he took no pains to prevent; and this in time of peace. There was, therefore, every reason to fear that, if maddened by defeat, and driven from the city, he would permit or perpetrate similar crimes. This would have been true even if he were not an Oriental Mussulman—a kind of man which the Gladstone Ministry certainly, that almost rode into power on a wave of horror excited by the doings of the "unspeakable Turk" in Bulgaria, had no excuse for not understanding. The almost bestial ferocity which lies sleeping under even the most polished Mussulman exterior is, in fact, something of which no class of men in our day have had more experience than British officials, both civil and military.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* suggests that the true way to protect the Suez Canal is not by attempting the all but impossible task of guarding it from one end to the other, but by getting hold of the Government of Egypt. It has, in fact, to be protected by that now well-known rule of modern warfare, which bids you reduce the enemy's fortresses and take his capital by destroying his armies in the field. When there is no force outside of them left they fall inevitably. In like manner the way to secure the Canal is to destroy the power, whatever it be, which menaces it, or, in other words, to seize the Egyptian Government. This, we presume, the British will now do. It would show extraordinary incompetency or timidity if they allowed Arabi and his force to escape from the trap which he has deliberately prepared for himself and walked into. Much of the trouble has been due to their failure to convince Arabi at the outset that they would not permit him to set up as a dictator. Had he been told so in peremptory language six months ago, things would never have reached their present pass, and an enormous loss in property, to say nothing of the loss of life, would have been prevented.

Of course, after Arabi has been deposed, and order restored by England, the other Powers, and particularly France, will have somehow to be satisfied. Now that the bombardment has taken place successfully, and England has got all the glory of it, there are some signs that the French are annoyed by the timidity of their own Ministry, and more or less with England, and that there will be some rough places in the negotiations for the final settlement. But these will undoubtedly be overcome without trouble, because the Gladstone Ministry is in no Jingo mood, and has no ulterior designs, although it almost certainly would not have entered into the joint control with France, and would not have told her to work her will with Tunis, as Lord Salisbury did. Thus far the military part of the enterprise has turned out most fortunately for the Cabinet. It has cleared them of the charge of timidity and irresolution which had begun to rest heavily upon them, and has put the British people in good humor with them; and these things they sorely needed.

The resignation of Mr. John Bright from the Cabinet on account of his conscientious objections to war, and to military meddling with foreign states, is probably as fitting and honorable a close as could come to a long and illustrious political career. For close it is, we greatly fear. He is over seventy, and is not robust, and could hardly have held any position in the present Ministry which was not, like the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster, a virtual sinecure. But he would have cast a shadow on some of the best years of his public life had he allowed himself to become in any way responsible for the extension of English influence at the cannon's mouth. A strictly defensive war he might have stomached—though of this we are not quite sure; but a bombardment of the aggressive-defensive kind he could not connive at and remain the John Bright of the forty glorious years of English history in which he has played so great a part.

Lord Granville's expression of regret in the House of Lords that England should be compelled to "use force against the weak," apropos of the bombardment of the Egyptian forts, is a curious illustration of the way in which a certain kind of cant survives for indefinite periods the facts to which it owed its origin. Reluctance to attack the weak was a product of mediæval chivalry, and was cultivated in the days when fighting was considered a good thing in itself, and valued much for its spectacular effects. It lingers still in the duelling and boxing rules, which place the combatants as far as possible on terms of strict equality, and it every now and then comes up in attempts to justify misdirection of political sympathy, as when during our rebellion English Tories used to pretend that they sided with the South because it was the weaker party, and thought Captain Winslow acted unfairly because in the fight with the *Alabama* he protected his engines and boilers by hanging his chain cables over the side. But it has no place whatever in modern political ethics. Nations do not now fight for fun, or to show how brave they are. They fight to have their way about something. So far, too, from regretting that an enemy is weak when they attack him, they openly rejoice in it. In fact, they try to weaken him, or wait till they think he is weak, before they attack him. Just as it is a fatal fault in a modern general not to be strongest at the point of collision with the enemy, it is a fatal fault in a modern statesman to go to war unless he has allies, or has some advantage over the enemy in numbers, or resources, or armament. Finally, it is nearly always the weak whom modern Powers go to war with. They seldom attack their match, and always do so with great reluctance. In fact, they consider it barbarous to do so. Their improved weapons are nearly always used against communities which do not possess them. All England's wars since 1815 have been against the very weak. She keeps Ireland because Ireland is weak, and holds India because the Hindoos are weak, and bullies Turkey because Turkey is weak. Weakness among nations has a touch of immorality about it, because national strength comes from national virtue. It is the product of industry, order, forethought, love of country, determination, and persistence. It is these things which make nations able to thrash the weak; it is the absence of them which prepares the weak for the thrashing. The fittest survive, even more surely among nations than among individuals.

The Sultan must be the most bewildered of all the actors in the Egyptian trouble. He finds all the Powers full of respect for his sovereign rights until he wants to enforce them, when they peremptorily forbid it. When he proposed, some months ago, to interfere in Egypt by sending his troops and iron-clads to Alexandria, France and England warned him that he must not attempt anything of the kind. Then they summoned a Conference at Constantinople to settle by European concert what should be done in Egypt, and invited him to be represented at it. But as some previous conferences have resulted in stripping him of territory, under pretence of making him stronger, he naturally declared that there was no need of a conference at all, and that if they held one, he would have nothing to do with it. The Conference, however, was held, and he probably supposed that it was really going to settle what should be done in Egypt. What then must have been his surprise to hear that while the Conference was still sitting England had begun proceedings in Egypt on her own account, and was fighting Arabi Bey without the slightest reference to what anybody else thought about it. He naturally supposed that this would be a good time to call attention to his "sovereign rights," and telegraphed to London to ask to have the bombardment stopped, because it was a serious violation of these sovereign rights to bombard one of his cities without notice to him. But Lord Granville made answer that the bombardment could not possibly be postponed, and that he must not give himself the least concern about his sovereign rights, as they would be scrupulously respected. This must lead him to inquire more seriously than ever before what his sovereign rights are. Whatever they are, they are evidently of no earthly use to him.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 12 to TUESDAY, July 18, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the Senate, on Wednesday, the consideration of the River and Harbor Bill was concluded. Mr. Morrill's amendment, providing that one-half of the money appropriated shall be expended before June 30, 1883, the remainder to be spent in the discretion of the Executive, was lost, by a vote of 16 to 45. The vote on the bill was then taken, and it resulted, yeas 39, nays 23.

The Internal-Revenue Bill came up in the Senate on Thursday, and the tariff debate began. One of the significant features was a high-tariff speech by Senator Voorhees, of Indiana, who, some time ago, was declaring for free trade. Senator Morgan also spoke, opposing the introduction of a subject for the consideration of which the Tariff Commission had been created. On Friday Senator Bayard made a speech, in which he pointed out in what respects the bill falls short of what a measure for the relief from burdensome taxation should be, under existing circumstances.

After a discussion lasting from 2 until 4:30 o'clock, the Senate on Saturday passed the one-hundred-million-dollar Pension Bill without objection.

A proviso has been added to the first section of the Internal-Revenue Bill, by the Senate Finance Committee, by which manufacturers of matches can remove them to warehouses under bond, after August 15, 1882, without attaching the stamps required by law.

During the debate in the House of Representatives on Wednesday afternoon, on the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill, which contains an appropriation of more than $500 to pay one of the new stenographers, a bitter attack was made upon Speaker Keifer's summary and unjust removal of certain competent stenographers. The wrangle continued for about two hours. On Thursday an amendment, appropriating $15,000 to enable the President to carry out the provisions of the civil-service-examination section of the Revised Statutes, was adopted by more than a two-thirds vote. The bill was then passed.

The House indulged in a long and unseemly wrangle, on Friday, over the bill making an appropriation for the expenses of President Garfield's sickness. Mr. Kasson, of Iowa, came to the rescue with a proposition to close the debate by unanimous consent. The Senate amendments were then voted down, and the items of compensation were passed substantially as originally recommended.

The House voted on Saturday to non-concur in every one of the 150 amendments made by the Senate to the River and Harbor Bill. The House will sustain the Committee of Commerce in its announced policy of reducing the aggregate of the bill by about $2,000,000. The Committee expects to strike out the provisions of the bill making appropriations for surveys for the Hennepin Canal and the Delaware and Chesapeake Canal. The House also refused, on Saturday, to agree with the Senate amendments to the Legislative Bill in regard to the equalization of the pay of employees of the Senate and House.

On Monday the bill providing for a third grade of letter-carriers and for promotions was passed by the House. The Senate bill to provide additional industrial schools for Indian youths, and authorizing the use of unoccupied military barracks for such purposes, was also passed by the House.

An angry colloquy took place on Monday afternoon in the House, between Mr. Robeson, of New Jersey, and Mr. Hewitt, of New York. Mr. Hewitt rose to move to strike from the *Record* a part of Mr. Robeson's recent speech, which charged Mr. Hewitt with falsehood in making certain statements as to Mr. Robeson's actions. Mr. Robeson rose in great excitement and accused the member from New York of using still worse language than he himself had employed. In the course of his remarks he again defended his administration of naval affairs. The angry dialogue was stopped by a point of order.

The House voted on Monday to permit the Secretary of the Treasury to sell the old Post-office property in this city, for not less than $600,000, at public auction.

The bill to enable national banks to extend their corporate existence has been approved by President Arthur and is now a law.

Senator Ben Hill, of Georgia, is worse, and his death is looked for at any time.

Senator Joseph Brown, of Georgia, has given $50,000 to the University of that State at Athens, the interest of which is to be used for educating poor young men.

Mr. Robert R. Randall has been permitted by the Foreign Affairs Committee to file a sworn statement, supplemental to his testimony in the Peruvian Investigation. In the statement he reaffirms that Mr. Blaine, when Secretary of State, not only countenanced but warmly approved the programme of the Crédit Industriel, which, to a certain extent, implied an American protectorate.

The Tariff Commission has issued a circular, inviting correspondence from all associations, corporations, and individuals interested in the subject of its inquiries, and desiring to furnish information or testimony for its consideration in the discharge of its duty.

The special Grand Jury of the Criminal Court of the District of Columbia was given its instructions by Judge Wylie on Wednesday, and straightway began the consideration of the new evidence in the Star-route cases. On Friday they entered the court-room and announced that they had considered the evidence presented to them and had found no indictments. They were then dismissed. On Thursday, Judge Wylie made an important decision, admitting evidence of matters anterior to the date of the conspiracy as set forth in the indictment.

Through Mr. George Bliss, its counsel, the Government has agreed to submit a part of the Salisbury and Parker Star-route cases to arbitration, the arbitrators to be Second Assistant Postmaster-General Richard A. Elmer, Mr. George Bliss, or some one named by him, and Mr. Robert G. Ingersoll, or some one named by him. It is reported that the Government expects to secure the repayment of about $150,000 by this arbitration, which could not be recovered in any other way, except by long litigation.

It is understood that the Civil-Service Reform Association, of this city, will endeavor to present, as soon as possible, to the United States Grand Jurors, the names of office-holders who have contributed to Mr. Jay Hubbell's campaign committee in violation of the statute against political assessments. The counsel for the Association have written another letter to Mr. Hubbell, in which they point out that he has failed to follow out his own proposal, that a test case be brought before a circuit court; and that the discussion as to whether the contribution is voluntary or not is legally of no consequence, as, in either case, payment is prohibited.

A meeting of the Republican State Central Committee of Pennsylvania was held in Philadelphia on Wednesday, nearly 100 members being present, for the purpose of taking steps to secure harmony in the party. The Regular candidates expressed, by letter, the desire to submit their claims to any test deemed wise by the Committee. The Chairman was then empowered to submit four propositions to the Independents, any one of which would be acceptable to the Regulars. The propositions are: That both tickets be submitted to the popular vote of the party at the primaries, the one securing the most votes to be the ticket of the whole party; that a ticket, open for any candidate, be selected by primary elections; that a new Convention, under the rules adopted by the Continental Conference of Stalwarts and Independents, be called; that a new Convention be held under the rules adopted by the Republican Convention of May 10.

The Independent candidates held a conference in Philadelphia on Thursday, and declined to consider the four propositions. They then prepared an ultimatum to submit to the Regulars, which was signed by four of the five candidates on the ticket, the exception being Col. William McMichael, who is named for Congressman-at-large. The ultimatum sets forth that the Independents believe that the propositions of the Stalwarts would not secure the desired unification of the party, and declares that they will only compromise on the basis of the withdrawal of the candidates of each faction, and a pledge from the candidates that they will not accept renomination. Col. McMichael wrote a letter, in which he said that he would not withdraw "unless events hereafter shall give assurance that necessary reforms in the civil service shall be adopted; assessments made upon office-holders returned and not hereafter exacted; boss, machine, and spoils methods forever abandoned; and all our public offices shall be filled only by honest and capable men who will represent the people, and not attempt to dictate to or control them."

Chairman McKee, of the Independent Republican State Committee of Pennsylvania, has issued a call for the meeting of that body on July 27, to consider the four propositions of the Stalwarts, which the Independent candidates, speaking for themselves alone, rejected. It is believed that the Committee will also reject the propositions, and probably refuse to sanction the ultimatum of the four candidates.

At a meeting of the Democratic State Committee of Virginia, in Richmond, on Wednesday, it was agreed not to call a Convention to nominate a Congressman-at-large, nor to endorse any candidate for that position. This practically commits the Democrats to the candidacy of ex-Auditor John E. Massey, at one time a leader of the Readjusters, but now a personal enemy of Senator Mahone.

The Democratic Territorial Convention of Arizona, which met on Wednesday, condemned the Republican government of the Territory for quartering hostile Indians within its borders. They demand that the Indians be removed or disarmed and turned over to the War Department.

The National Educational Association and the American Institute of Instruction held their annual meetings at Saratoga last week.

The great iron-workers' strike is now over in the St. Louis district, and all the forges and mills are at work. The employees consented to resume work, under the Cincinnati agreement, until a settlement of the existing difficulties at Pittsburgh can be effected.

Fifty-one families of Russian refugees, who came to this country a few months ago, returned to Europe on Friday, having failed to get work.

Crop reports for the past week are more encouraging for the corn prospects in Illinois. The Kansas wheat crop has been harvested, and surpasses the estimates made by the State authorities. It is the largest ever harvested there.

A terrible storm passed over Texarkana, Arkansas, on Wednesday evening. Half an hour later a large brick building fell upon a neighboring saloon, burying more than two score of people in the ruins. Few of them were rescued alive.

It is stated in Washington that the bouquet which Mrs. Scoville endeavored to convey to Guiteau on the day preceding his execution has been analyzed, and that enough arsenic was found in it to kill several men. Mrs. Scoville emphatically denies that she poisoned the flowers. There is also an apparently well-founded belief in Washington that the body of Guiteau still rests in the grave under the floor of the United States Jail, and has not been removed to the Army Medical Museum.

General O. O. Howard, Superintendent of the West Point Military Academy, will be relieved by Col. Wesley Merritt.

Mrs. Lincoln, widow of the late President Lincoln, died in Springfield, Ill., at 8:15 o'clock on Sunday night. She had been ill for a long time. She was a member of an old Kentucky family, and was born in 1821. Her maiden name was Mary Todd. She was married to Abraham Lincoln in 1842, when he was an attorney of some prominence in Springfield.

Bishop Scott, senior Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, died at his home near Odessa, Delaware, on Thursday, at the age of eighty.

José Domingo, a Carlist exile from Spain, who settled in New Orleans forty years ago and accumulated a great fortune, died on Sunday, July 9. His will leaves the bulk of his wealth to ex-Secretary of the Navy William H. Hunt, now Minister to Russia. Domingo was an old friend and admirer of Mr. Hunt.

Lewis H. Redfield, one of the oldest printers and journalists in the country, died in Syracuse on Friday, at the age of eighty-nine.

FOREIGN.

After the first day's bombardment at Alexandria, Egypt, a quiet night was spent by the British fleet in the harbor. When Wednesday morning dawned, the wind was blowing strong, in the enemy's favor, and the sea was rough, causing the war ships to roll so violently as to interfere with the efficacy of the heavy guns. At 6:30 o'clock the order was given to load with common shell. The *Inflexible* and *Téméraire* opened fire on the Moncrieffe fort, which had been repaired during the night. Only a few shots had been fired, eliciting no response from the forts, when a flag of truce was seen displayed in the town, and a steamer approached the fleet, also showing a similar ensign. The signal was given to cease the cannonade. The *Bittern* was sent to communicate with the Egyptians. The Military Governor of Alexandria conducted the conversation for the Egyptians, and Lieutenant Lambton for the British. Lieutenant Lambton informed them that he had not come to offer conditions, but to receive proposals. He said, however, that Fort Mex must be occupied by English troops and Fort Marabout be destroyed. The Egyptians replied that the latter fort had already been deserted, but they would give no answer as to Fort Mex. The Military Governor made no proposals, and Lieutenant Lambton steamed back to the Admiral's ship, about 3 o'clock in the afternoon, and informed him that the evident object of the flag of truce was to gain time. At 5 o'clock, the Egyptians having hauled down their flag of truce, the *Invincible* fired a nine-inch shell at Fort Mex, which was very effective. A white flag was again hoisted, and Admiral Seymour sent a message to the Egyptians that he accepted the flag of truce, but that it would be the last truce to which he would agree. During the afternoon several large fires broke out in the town. The loss of life up to that time among the Egyptians was estimated at about 2,000.

During Wednesday night the conflagrations in the city were seen to be spreading rapidly. At daylight on Thursday a flag of truce was discovered flying on the Ras-el-Tin palace. Four of the British fleet then steamed into the inner harbor, under the white flag. The real meaning of the fruitless negotiations of the day before then became apparent. Arabi Pasha merely wanted time, and during the afternoon and night the whole civil population and Army had withdrawn, and were in full retreat toward the interior. Released convicts and lawless Bedouins remained behind for a few hours. A reign of terror ensued. The European quarter of the city was fired and sacked. Christians were banded together in many strong buildings for self-defence, but they were overpowered and massacred by hundreds. One band of a hundred succeeded in fighting its way to the beach, whence the boats of the fleet removed them. The atrocities committed by the plunderers were terrible. The French Consulate was burned to the ground. Marines were landed by Admiral Seymour, with Gatling guns, to disperse the plunderers. The force was meagre and it had to proceed with great caution. There was some short, sharp fighting, but the Arabs continued looting the town until Friday noon. Admiral Seymour was informed that a large force of Egyptian soldiers were encamped outside the town, ready for attack. With his small force he could not be very aggressive, but the marines spiked a number of guns and held the Arsenal and Custom-house gates. Orders were given them to shoot plunderers on the spot, and the execution of the order had a good effect.

The Khedive was found safe in his palace. During the bombardment he was in great peril. Just before his flight, Arabi gave orders that the Khedive be murdered. A party of soldiers entered his apartment to commit the deed, but after long parleying their loyalty was bought by promises of money. They then escorted him to the Ras-el-Tin palace, and 700 British marines mounted guard. All the Ministry except Arabi Pasha presented themselves to the Khedive, and pledged their loyalty. He immediately took measures to reëstablish order, with the assistance of the cavalry and infantry guards who remained loyal to him. The leading Pashas were summoned to the palace, and the Khedive coöperated with Admiral Seymour. The American Admiral was requested to assist in restoring order, and he landed sixty marines, who shared in patrolling the streets. The fire raged during Friday, and two-thirds of the city was destroyed. It was learned that Arabi's forces had become greatly disorganized, two-thirds of them having deserted during the bombardment. Arabi himself, it was said, had fled from the city by a boat on the canal, but his whereabouts was unknown. By 11 o'clock on Friday night the fire had ceased to spread, and nearly all plundering had ended. The English Consulate and the quarter containing the great grain and cotton stores were not burned.

On Saturday confidence was so restored among the people that cafés and shops began to reopen. It was possible to walk the streets without a military escort. The day was spent by Admiral Seymour in organizing a police force. Thirteen hundred Christian refugees were discovered who had been saved in a Coptic church during the massacre.

Admiral Seymour issued a manifesto on Monday, announcing that he had undertaken, with the consent of the Egyptian Government, the restoration of order. Nobody was allowed to leave the town after sunset. The Admiral also made an offer of rations to such Egyptian soldiers as would return to allegiance to the Khedive. The total British force in Alexandria is now more than 6,000 men.

Arabi Pasha on Monday assumed a defiant attitude. He said in reply to a letter from the Khedive that he did not intend to make war, but as the Powers were determined to force an attack, he thought it better to fight at once. His army is strongly posted. He has issued a proclamation declaring that the Arabs must pay all taxes to him, and has appointed Ali Feima, a notorious Anglophobist, to the command of the Suez Canal. On Monday night the Khedive sent a messenger to Arabi with a formal dismissal of him from the Ministry. Arabi's army is now intensely discontented, and starving women and children surround it.

Monday night passed quietly in Alexandria. The fires in the city were all extinguished. The execution of three plunderers, during the day, in the Grand Square, had a good effect. On Tuesday native police were organized to act under the military police.

On Saturday, rioting broke out in Cairo, despite the endeavors of the authorities to maintain order.

In the House of Commons, on Thursday afternoon, the instructions to Admiral Seymour, which were as follows, were read: "That as soon as the opposition of the forts had ceased he should not dismantle them or disable the guns; that he should open friendly communications with the Khedive, and, in the absence of the native authorities from Alexandria, should land seamen or marines for police purposes, and that he should inform foreign commanders of these measures. The Admiral was also instructed to invite the Khedive to assert his authority in restoring order. The landing of a British force for police purposes was to be in concert with the Khedive or any native authority in Alexandria, and any of the European men-of-war were to be invited to coöperate." Protests were made from the Conservative benches against the feebleness of these instructions.

At Constantinople, the Conference of the Powers continued its sittings during the week. On Friday night the conclusion was reached that the Porte should be invited to send Turkish troops to Egypt to restore order and reëstablish the Government. On Saturday an identical note to that effect was presented to the Porte. The conditions of Turkish intervention in Egypt are understood to be as follows: The occupation of Egypt is to be limited to three months, at the expiration of which the Khedive can demand a prolongation. The cost is to be defrayed by Egypt. No European Commissioners are to accompany the Turkish troops.

The French Cabinet has resolved, at the invitation of England, to protect the Suez Canal jointly with that country.

Secretary of State Frelinghuysen believes that the American residents at Alexandria have suffered no harm, as they are all on board the ships or in the interior.

It was announced in the House of Commons on Saturday that Mr. John Bright had resigned the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster and, consequently, his seat in the Cabinet. During all the discussion on the Egyptian crisis Mr. Bright had been absent from the House, and his resignation was generally expected, on account of the opinions he has uniformly held on the subject of war, and armed intervention in the affairs of other countries. The London *News*, commenting, said: "By resigning, Mr. Bright has been honorably true to the convictions of his whole life."

The royal assent was given to the Repression Bill on Wednesday afternoon. On Friday morning, sixteen counties in Ireland, eight cities, and four baronies were proclaimed under the Act.

The Arrears of Rent Bill was considered by the House of Commons in Committee on Wednesday afternoon. On Friday the first four clauses were adopted without division.

The weather in Ireland threatens the utter destruction of what promised to be one of the finest harvests ever reaped there. The heavy and almost incessant rain has laid low many flourishing fields. Potatoes have been seriously injured.

The body of the Scotch Earl of Crawford and Balcarres, which was stolen some months ago from the family vault at Danecht House, Aberdeenshire, was found, on Tuesday, in the grounds of the House. A man suspected of connection with the theft has been arrested.

An explosion of gas occurred on the Rue Louis Philippe, Paris, during a fire on Wednesday, by which twelve houses were destroyed, twenty persons killed, forty injured, and one hundred rendered homeless.

In Paris, on Thursday night, the new Hôtel de Ville was inaugurated with a grand banquet, which President Grévy attended. The old City Hall was destroyed by the Communists in 1871.

The Fête of the Bastille was celebrated in Paris and throughout France on Friday.

An epidemic of cholera has broken out at Hong Kong.

THE RIGHT AND WRONG OF THE EGYPTIAN QUESTION.

THE concern of the Egyptian people in the conflict between Great Britain and Arabi Bey and his mutinous troops, which has ended so disastrously at Alexandria, is after all the main point of interest for foreign bystanders. If Arabi had been heading a revolt of the taxpayers against being compelled by foreign force to pay an enormous debt to foreign money-lenders, contracted by a reckless, extravagant, and dethroned prince, the sympathies of the civilized world would have undoubtedly been his due. There is no warrant, either in international law or in sound policy, for going to war to compel governments, and especially despotic governments, to repay money borrowed from foreign speculators. All civilized governments have, at one time or another, either expressly or by implication, repudiated the notion that any man who chooses to invest in the public debt of a foreign country has a right to call on his government to enforce payment either of his principal or his interest. And it would be very bad policy indeed for any government to hold out to investors and money-dealers the hope of any such aid, for it would destroy all caution on their part in dealing with weak or semi-barbarous powers. It would furnish speculators with a kind of security they ought not to have, and cannot have without gross injustice to those who live by their own industry. To tax the latter for a war waged to extricate the former from ventures which they must have known were risky when they engaged in them, would be great injustice.

It is safe to say, too, that if there ever was a body to which the maxim *caveat emptor* ought to apply, it is the foreign holders of the bonds issued by the late Khedive. Any one who bought them without perceiving the gulf to which Ismaïl's extravagance was leading, richly deserved to lose his money. Any one who perceived it, but bought them just the same, deserved it still more richly. Consequently, if the interference of France and England with Egyptian finances was simply an attempt to save foreign bondholders from loss, and if the enforcement of their claims was visibly increasing the burdens of the unfortunate Egyptian taxpayer, there would be nothing to be said for it. In fact, as a movement, even in form, for their protection, there is little to be said for it.

But, fortunately, there is not the smallest foundation for the belief that it has made any difference for the worse to the taxpayer. There is not the smallest reason for believing that Ismaïl's foreign loans have had any influence in increasing the peasants' burdens. The rule of native Egyptian, as of all Mussulman finance, is very simple: it is to take everything visible the taxpayer has got beyond a bare livelihood. In Egypt, owing to the gentle, uncomplaining character of the fellah and the wonderful fertility of the soil, it has long been the custom to apply more pressure than is usual in Oriental countries. Before the establishment of the European Control not only did the amount of the taxes depend largely on the caprice of the collector, but the fellah was flogged to make him pay. If there had been no foreign debt and no European Control, he would have been taxed and flogged just the same. There is no bottom to the maw of an Oriental court. The truth is, the European Control greatly improved his condition by making the amount of the taxes certain, by stopping torture in the collection, reducing the theft and corruption in the financial administration, and introducing a proper system of accountability.

This must be borne in mind, after admitting all that can be said against any foreign interference on behalf of foreign creditors, and against the undoubted impropriety of foisting on the Khedive, as the Control did, a large band of very highly-paid European officials. In fact, whatever may be said for Arabi's revolt, it cannot be said that it was in any sense an attempt at political revolution on behalf of the people. In so far as it was political at all, and not a mere military mutiny, it was a rising of office-holders who found themselves cut off from their usual "divvies" out of the huge corruption fund which the revenues of every Mussulman country compose. The feelings which animated him and his confederates were precisely those which would animate the Pashas at Constantinople if the receipt and disbursement of the taxes were taken out of their hands. They would grumble and curse, and declaim about "national independence," and, if they dared, would revolt, massacre, and pillage.

Behind the financial question there is, however, as far as England and France are concerned, a much weightier one, on the moral bearings of which it would be impossible to pass without going much further back than it is possible to go in a world in which life is so short, and all interests, individual as well as national, so complicated. An orderly and tranquil Egypt has become a political necessity to England, on account of the Canal. It has become a necessity to France on account of Algiers, and we do not think we are too charitable when we say that it was the desire of securing this which led them to overlook the obvious and well-settled objections to interference on behalf of foreign creditors. A return of the turbulent old Egypt, ruled by a succession of military adventurers, rent by *émeutes*, massacres, and civil wars, and fanaticized by dervishes and "false prophets," is something to which we cannot ask them to submit without asking them also to cease caring, the one for her empire in India, and the other for her empire in Africa. To ask this is to engage in what is called an "academic discussion," which, however profitable it may be for moralists and speculators, is not the business of statesmen. We are the less disposed to ask it, too, at the moment when Europe, after six hundred years of horrors, has plainly begun to roll back the tide of Mussulman barbarism, which has converted so many of the fairest lands on the globe into wastes which no civilized man ever traverses without shame and indignation. In dealing with Mussulman patriots and statesmen, too, they are dealing with savages like Arabi Bey, who, after amusing Western sympathizers with the jargon of transcendental politics, which they have acquired to perfection, are ready to slaughter a village full of women and children, as at Batak, in Bulgaria, or fire a great city and let cutthroats loose on the flying householders, as at Alexandria.

SAGES.

THE attempts made to explain the meaning of Mr. Conkling's speech at Utica are natural, but at the same time unsatisfactory. The *Herald's* Washington correspondent declares that in Washington, where the matter has been most carefully considered, his friends think that it means that he is going to run for Congress, and that the speech is a "back-handed blow" at the Republican party. This must mean that he is going to run either as a Democrat or as a Half-Breed, for he is not the man to deal back-handed blows at the party from which he expects the nomination; but the idea of Mr. Conkling going to Washington as a Judas is so painful that almost any other plausible explanation ought to be readily accepted by his friends.

We, therefore, venture to suggest that the true explanation of Mr. Conkling's speech is not that he is going to come out as a Judas, but that he is merely going to set up as a Sage. That there is an opening for a Sage in the party, and that he may really do the party much good, is evident to any one who will reflect for a moment on the origin and functions of Sages. The idea of the Sage in politics at present suggests to the mind a venerable man, who has had a long and active political career, but has retired to domestic life, and is spending his declining years in watching the struggles over the primaries and conventions which he no longer tries to fix, the slates that others must make up without help from him, and the platforms which younger and more energetic men must render as meaningless as he and his friends did the platforms of his day. He occasionally holds forth to the younger men, giving them his ideas on the progress of events and the probable future course of politics, and he is always listened to with great respect and attention, and his speech or interview is published in all the newspapers, and the announcement generally made, too, that the Sage is going to run either for Congress, for Governor, or the Presidency, which the Sage, however, never does. We have in this State, for example, three well-known Sages—Mr. Tilden, Mr. Weed, and Mr. Seymour. The South has its Sages in Jeff. Davis and Alexander H. Stephens. The belief that Mr. Tilden will return to public life is so deep rooted that not even the repeated admission by his friends that he is incapacitated by old age from anything of the sort, or as his enemies put it, that he is a "mummy," can prevent the chances of his nomination for high political office being canvassed every year or two. Mr. Seymour's plea of physical incapacity has scarcely relieved him from the danger of being forced into public life; and nothing short of two or three paralytic strokes or dementia can really be considered as guaranteeing a Sage against this sort of interference with his chosen occupation.

When we say that Mr. Conkling's speech shows that he wishes to become a Sage, we judge from internal as well as external evidence. A Sage's speech usually consists of three parts: in the first he dwells upon the great pleasure it gives every politician who has devoted himself to public life, far from the congenial scenes of his childhood and youth, to get back among his friends and acquaintances, and see the old familiar faces and grasp the honest old hands once more. Then he goes into some general consideration of the condition of the country and of parties, showing that progress is being made all the time, and that there is reason to look forward to the future with the cheerful anticipations that have been warranted by the experience of the past. The Sage is always something of a reformer, but by no means a doctrinaire or a theorist. He does not believe in any particular reform, but in a sort of great political law of progress, which carries the country on to a higher and higher pitch of prosperity every year, without the need of any individual effort at improvement or any noisy struggle. In the third place, the Sage, if he understands his business, turns to consider the dangers to which the country is exposed, and these he always finds consist in the habit of spending too much money. He therefore recommends frugality and economy, and usually congratulates his hearers that they at least are prudent and saving, however wasteful others may be. All these marks of the Sage we find in Mr. Conkling's speech. For twenty-two years, he said, he had been banished from Oneida County, but at last he had got back—got home, got back to Utica—and, as Mr. Conkling feelingly said, there is no place like home. "Time, with his frosty fingers, has silvered many a brow, and the turf and the snows have hidden all but the memory of many a friend who once bravely and gayly trod with us the pathway of life," but the survivors "come with a warm welcome to a private citizen having no claim on your regard, except his warm and abiding attachment to your interests and your homes; except his attachment to our beautiful city, and to the neighbors and friends to whom for long, long years he has owed so much. Under these circumstances, you will let me believe, without other thought, that your presence here means the personal kindness of valued neighbors and valued friends. It could mean nothing which would be prized so much, nothing which could be held in memory so long and so pleasantly."

After this comes the allusion to the country, which has attracted such widespread attention: "The old party issues have largely passed away—passed away, at least, as dividing party lines. We are in a period of peace and great prosperity, but let us not forget that prosperity often tests and tries the wisdom of nations and of men more even than adversity."

Then we have the warning voice raised on the subject of economy: "The tendency is to spending largely, the tendency in Government is to profuse, perhaps lavish, appropriations of the public money. In the affairs of Government, and in the affairs of business, unless I greatly mistake, the lesson, the need, and the admonition of the hour is frugality, foresight, and care. We have more need of the brake than of steam in a good many ways just now." For Utica, however, the danger is less, because "Utica, I am glad to know, is prudently planning and saving up her sons' capital, energy, enterprise. Utica capital is building homes for labor and planting fields for labor here, going not so much as formerly for investment and for speculation far away. All this is well." This was the whole of the speech, and if these are not the words and thoughts of a Sage, and if they have not all been uttered before now by Samuel J. Tilden, Horatio Seymour, Thurlow Weed, Jefferson Davis, Alexander H. Stephens, and their fellow-Sages, not once but on many occasions, we are very much mistaken.

It is all the more meritorious in a Republican to become a Sage because it is not so easy as for a Democrat. The Democrats have inherited a great stock of gnomic wisdom from the "earlier and purer days" of the country relating to such matters as centralization, the three departments of government, "each independent within its own sphere," and the necessity of government being divorced from connection with private business, which Republicans care little or nothing about, and in which the history of the party prevents their taking much interest. This fact would probably make it very hard for many of the most eminent Republican leaders on retiring from politics to set up as Sages, much as they may some day like to do so. It is impossible to imagine Mr. Blaine as a Sage, or Mr. Robeson, or Senator Logan. It needs a man who has been generally looked upon not merely as a brilliant orator or dashing administrator, but as one accustomed to the expression of what is believed in political circles to be thought. Nothing the younger politician so admires in an older one as thought, provided it does not interfere with his regular pursuits, and the character in politics he most reveres is consequently the Sage. The Sage need not be a good man—neither Jefferson Davis, nor Mr. Tilden, nor Thurlow Weed is believed to be perfectly good; but he must be a deeply thoughtful man, and that Mr. Conkling should now in his retirement be preparing to think is a most significant fact. That no Sage should be able to do this without having it generally believed that he must be going to run for office, is one of the risks of the occupation which the true Sage cannot avoid, though it must sadden him.

THE SUSPENSION OF THE PARNELLITES.

LONDON, July 6, 1882.

THE Parliamentary crisis which had been for some time expected has just come, and for the moment passed. History never exactly repeats itself, and the circumstances of this obstruction and suspension have differed in several material points from those of the winter of 1881. On that occasion the Irish Opposition, numbering between thirty and forty members, had resisted the introduction of the Person and Property Protection Act by obstruction which was not only systematic, but open and undisguised, consisting in repeated motions for adjournment, on each of which every member spoke at the greatest possible length. This course was peremptorily stopped, after a sitting of two days and two nights, by the Speaker's interposing and putting the question. Next day, men's minds being much excited both by this event and by the arrest of Mr. Davitt, the Parnellite party disobeyed the authority of the Chair, and were suspended one after another for so doing. This time the tactics of the Irish section have been more discreet. In resisting the progress through Committee of the Prevention of Crime Bill they have not used dilatory motions, but occupied themselves with devising an endless string of amendments, and discussing each of these at very great length. Of course such discussion necessarily involved a good deal of irrelevancy and repetition, but the subject is a wide one—everything relating to the condition of Ireland could, with a little skill, be dragged in and made to appear pertinent; and though a speaker may be called to order for wandering, or perhaps even for a wearisome iteration of what he has said before, a following speaker commits no breach of order when he repeats what his predecessor has said. The impatience and irritation of the English members continued to increase, not merely because they were tired of listening to dull and seemingly purposeless debates, but also because every now and then some terrible murder was reported from Ireland, with the invariable addition, "No clew to the perpetrators." This sense of double helplessness—helplessness in the presence of obstruction at Westminster, helplessness in the presence of crime in Ireland—worked on the passions of the English members till most of them became ready for anything which would break the toils in which they found themselves caught. The announcement that an all-night sitting would be held was welcomed as a sign that the end was near, and it was, as you know, on the morning after that all-night sitting that the Chairman of Committees, Dr. Lyon Playfair, reported sixteen members as guilty of obstruction, and in the evening of the same day nine members more, the persons reported being in both cases suspended forthwith, by a vote of the Committee and of the House, for the remainder of the sitting.

The details of the "scene," as the newspapers call it, you have probably read altogether. They were much less dramatic than those of last session, and have made a less profound impression in the country. That is naturally the case when a thing has happened before; it is an unfortunate result of these irregular and violent remedies for evils grown intolerable, that the remedy seems on every fresh occasion less irregular, and is resorted to more readily and lightly. No example could show more clearly the dangers of that excessive regard for established forms and unwillingness to reform them in proper time which has often been remarked among Englishmen. For the last ten years or so the defects of our Parliamentary procedure have become gross and patent, yet it has been found impossible until now to get them adequately dealt with. The consequence is that when systematic obstruction is resorted to, and public affairs become serious, extreme and exceptional measures have to be taken to overcome it, the adoption of which gives a far greater blow to the traditional respect for Parliament and its usages than a gentler cure, earlier applied, would have done. This has befallen us. We have had what critics call our second Parliamentary *coup d'état*. It has been received with less surprise, and less regret that it should have been necessary, than the first one, and a third will be still easier and still more probable. Another disagreeable result is the great bitterness which crises like this stir up in men's minds. The English members, including a large majority of Liberal as well as Tory members, had grown so angry and impa-

tient that when the explosion came, and they found themselves able to crush their opponents, they could hardly control themselves, and have not been since in any mood to listen fairly and calmly to argument. The clauses of the bill which remained to be discussed when the Irish members were suspended on July 1, were of secondary importance; the two sittings allotted to them were amply sufficient to dispose of them. But had they contained the most serious provisions, it would have been easy for the Government, had it so willed, to hurry them through a passionate House, which called only for swift action.

To prevent a recurrence of obstruction, and enable the remaining stages of the bill to be promptly despatched, the Government revived what are called the "urgency resolutions" of last session, by which the Speaker is armed with almost dictatorial powers for expediting business and closing discussion. They had often been asked to do so earlier, but feared that the Irish Opposition would consume as much time in discussing whether urgency should be granted as the passing of the bill itself would require. And this would no doubt have been the case but for the suspension of the twenty-five members, which showed Mr. Parnell's friends that such stringent measures might be taken as would render resistance hopeless. Accordingly, when urgency had been voted, most of them retired, announcing that they would take no further part in the debates on the bill. The ground alleged for this was the manner of the suspension, which is objected to as being an unfair and unexpected extension of the rule which permits the Speaker or Chairman to name a member guilty of obstruction. Here some of the persons named were not present, and had not been present for some hours; they had, therefore, no opportunity of defending themselves, and as the offence was past, they might have supposed it had been overlooked. The action of the Chairman is, therefore, impeached, and several notices have been given to have it condemned by the House—notices, however, for which time for discussion is not likely to be found. In defence of the Chairman, it is alleged that what he named and was entitled to name the offenders for, was not so much obstructing at any given moment as participation in a conspiracy to obstruct—a conspiracy whose purposes might be carried out equally well while some were absent taking rest and preparing themselves to return and support the others. Such an act, it is urged, is really worse than the isolated obstruction of a particular member. Is it to go unpunished? or is it to be punishable only when each member is caught in fulfilling his own part of the work, not at any time when the existence of the conspiracy has become apparent? Whatever conclusion public opinion may form, there is of course too strong a tendency to support the Chairman to make any direct censure on him possible. His task during these two months has been a very arduous and exhausting one, and has sometimes appeared likely to prove too much for his physical strength. Even, therefore, if he had not shown great fairness and courtesy in the general discharge of his duties, there would be a disposition to stand by him.

The conduct of the Irish Nationalist members through this long battle has been much blamed, and has no doubt increased the bitterness between the countries and the difficulty of establishing a *modus vivendi*. But Englishmen, as is natural, do not quite realize the difficulties in which these members were placed. A bill was brought in which, though no doubt aimed only at criminals, did subject ordinary citizens to some—perhaps unavoidable—restrictions. It was, no doubt, an indignity to Ireland that it should be proposed, even if an indignity which the increase of undiscovered crime rendered necessary. If the Parnellite members were to retain their hold on their constituents, they must oppose it, and oppose it strenuously and untiringly. This the opinion of their own friends in Ireland demanded, and they had to choose between offending those friends, and being assailed as cowards or traitors, and irritating English members and incurring some Parliamentary penalties. Of course, they chose the latter alternative. But it may be asked whether they need have gone so far; whether it was necessary to carry resolute opposition into obstruction; whether, in defending what they think the national cause, they need have made so many personal attacks on English officials, and shown so constant a desire to insult England and all that belongs to her. They hold such behavior to be good policy, as hastening the creation of a separate Parliament for Ireland, but do not reflect that by making the English think that such a Parliament would be a wild and dangerous body they also impede their own plans. Be this as it may, any one can see how easily those who resolve to fight hard end by thinking every weapon and engine of warfare legitimate; and, after all, that is what their constituents expect from them. Y.

ENGLISH NEWSPAPERS ON INTERVENTION IN EGYPT.

LONDON, July 6, 1882.

THE existing state of journalistic opinion in England is so far an essential factor among the elements of the Egyptian question, on the eve of active European intervention, that it is worth while estimating it with some precision. At the present time there is a remarkable *consensus* of opinion among the leading journals, both Liberal and Conservative, though there are one or two noticeable exceptions. Even the *Times* is not out of harmony with its penny contemporaries, though it does its best, as usual, to preserve its balance of mind and not to commit itself too far for retracing its steps. The Liberal *Daily News*, the most conspicuous supporter of Mr. Gladstone's Government, after much vacillation, seems finally to have taken its side strongly against English intervention in any case; but its Egyptian correspondents all point in the other direction, and its articles on Egypt are just now little better than a cento of worn-out truisms on non-interference with patriotic movements in other countries. No attention is paid to the special facts and history of the case, or even to the evidence of the journal's own correspondents, who have demonstrated over and over again the imposture of the so-called "national movement." There is no paper of repute, on either side in politics, which writes with equal ignorance and weakness on this subject

The *Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Spectator* are the Liberal organs which take the broadest and most intelligent views of Egyptian affairs, and of the proper attitude of England toward them. The *Spectator*, indeed, has for a long time past, and long before the present revolution in Egypt, consistently adhered to the view that England has a peculiar relation to Egypt which calls for and justifies its overwhelming political preponderance in that country. The *Pall Mall Gazette* has recently been engaged in a controversy with Mr. Frederic Harrison, who has made himself the mouthpiece of a society calling itself the "Anti-Aggression League," and which has adopted a most uncompromisingly pacific policy in reference to Egypt. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, as edited by Mr. John Morley, is a strong supporter of Mr. Gladstone's Government, and, in fact, the disruption which generated its rival, the *St. James's Gazette*, was brought about by differences of opinion in respect to Lord Beaconsfield's energetic foreign policy. Nevertheless, the practical conclusions of the *Pall Mall* and the *St. James's Gazettes* in favor of active intervention in Egypt are now identically the same, though, of course, supported by opposite classes of arguments.

It is indeed important to notice the very different considerations urged in the Liberal and in the Conservative journals which combine to support English intervention in Egypt. Conservative writers dwell most prominently on the imperilled honor and dignity of England; on the importance of the Suez Canal; on the traditional policy of the country; and, with some hesitation, on the claims of the bondholders. Of course they say nothing openly about annexing the country, and scarcely venture to hint even at temporary occupation. But their antecedents in Afghanistan and at the Cape have so discredited them in the constituencies that their Egyptian policy is looked upon somewhat askance. Nevertheless, they are doing their best, with Lord Salisbury's help, to turn the occasion to party account. They are holding rousing patriotic meetings, with the view, as they say, of "supporting" the Government, and, of course, without any party aims. Indeed, they deprecate the suggestion of making such a topic a party question. But Lord Salisbury and his friends lose no opportunity of reminding the Government of their "pledges," and "guarantees," and notes, and despatches, and of watching over the fulfilment of engagements with the most friendly, not to say officious, vigilance.

The more intelligent Liberal writers no doubt find themselves in considerable difficulties. The Liberals, with Mr. Gladstone at their head, turned out their predecessors, led by Lord Beaconsfield, on the question of non-annexation and non-aggression. No act of Lord Beaconsfield's Government was more severely commented upon and condemned in Liberal circles than the movement of Indian troops to Malta in order to bring pressure to bear on the enemies of Turkey. Indeed, it is said to have been on the very question of the proposed annexation of Egypt that Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry was, at one juncture in the Anglo-Turkish war, nearly breaking up. It now unluckily happens that the form to which all political and diplomatic events connected with Egypt tend is that of a European occupation mainly conducted by England. It is true, the English Government can establish by incontestable proofs that they have labored in season and out of season to come to terms with France in order to agree on a conjoint active policy; that they have encountered the evils and risk of any amount of delay for the purpose of bringing about active and effectual Turkish intervention; that they have exhausted the resources of diplomacy and international concert in the endeavor to have as many partners as possible in their enterprise; and that only when they found no one else willing and competent, they addressed themselves to the task of restoring and securing order in Egypt. This is all true, but it unfortunately takes much longer saying than repeating the commonplaces that all intervention is wrong, that nations should be left to govern themselves, that England should never have mixed itself up with Egypt, and that if Englishmen choose to live in Egypt, they must take what they get. But these commonplaces do not touch the Suez Canal problem, nor do they harmonize with the recognized Liberal policy of gradually cutting short the Turkish Empire and preventing any

province, which, like Egypt, has once escaped from the mire, ever wallowing in it again.

A.

FIFTY YEARS OF REFORM IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 29, 1882.

ON the 8th day of June, 1832, the great Reform Bill became the law of the land. Fifty years have passed since that date. We can now, therefore, form a fair judgment of the working and results of a measure which in the eyes both of its advocates and of its opponents constituted a turning-point in the history of England. Looking back from the vantage ground of half a century, we can see many things which were concealed from the view of the combatants in the great Parliamentary battle. The retrospect is curious. It is full of historical interest, but it also affords instruction quite as valuable for Americans as for Englishmen.

One point becomes to a candid observer as clear as day. The policy of 1832 has been as fully justified by its results as can be any act of statesmanship. The Whig leaders proved right both in their assertions and in their denials. They asserted that the reform of Parliament, the abolition of rotten boroughs, the making the representation of the people a reality, was to strike at the root of the evils from which England suffered. They based this assertion on their conviction that "reform" would afford the means and be the cause of every kind of political and social improvement. Who cares now to deny that this assertion was true, both in spirit and in letter? The emancipation of the West Indian slaves, the Factory Acts, the amendment of the Poor Law, the reform of municipal corporations, the mitigation of the criminal code, the foundation of a system of national education, the repeal of the Corn Laws—these and a host of minor improvements, such as the establishment of the penny post or the abolition of the press-gang, were all the more or less direct fruits of Parliamentary reform. But the indirect consequences of the change which identified the sentiment of Parliament with the sentiment of the bulk of the nation have been even greater, though less immediately notable than its obvious results. The policy of 1832 was at bottom a policy of conciliation. From that date to the present day English statesmanship has seriously attempted to reconcile every class of the nation by obliterating the distinctions or divisions caused by unjust or impolitic legislation. Churchmen and Dissenters, Protestants and Catholics, manufacturers and artisans, the Church and the people, have drawn nearer and nearer to one another, partly through the destruction of the legal barriers of privilege by which they were divided, partly through the spread of sentiments which were, so to speak, hemmed in by walls of legal and social difference. The work is not complete, it will not be completed for years. But no one who is not a confirmed pessimist can deny that a policy of justice, of humanity, and of sympathy has assuaged the bitter passions of class hatred which, by the universal testimony of persons belonging to every kind of religious or political school, distracted English society from, say, 1815 to 1850.

On this point I have dwelt before in my letters, and shall dwell again. Nothing appears to me to be of greater consequence than to realize the good effects produced in England by half a century of beneficent legislation. The Whigs were right in asserting that Parliamentary reform would be the source of improvement and prosperity. They were right also in denying that reform meant revolution. On this point the present generation hardly does justice either to the wisdom of Whig statesmanship, or to the apparent justification for the fears of Tories who believed that 1832 would be to England what 1789 was to France—the beginning of an era of violence, of revolution, and ultimately of tyranny. Wellington, Canning, Peel, and hundreds of their now forgotten followers were men of parts and of courage. Their anticipations of disaster were based on the apparent lessons of history. The Tories of 1832 could many of them recollect the great French Revolution; they all of them had come to manhood during a period of reaction; they all of them had before their minds pictures of the Reign of Terror and of the despotism to which democratic violence gave birth. Lord Grey, Lord Althorp, and Lord John Russell were honorable men; but so were the Constitutionalists who hailed with delight the assembly of the States-General. When Bristol was in the hands of a mob, when Nottingham Castle was wrecked by the populace, when even moderate men talked about Hampden and the duty of refusing to pay the taxes, when the bull ring at Birmingham was crammed with hundreds of excited artisans who cheered Lord John Russell's denunciation of that "whisper of a faction" which ought to be overpowered by the voice of the nation, who can wonder that not only fanatics of Toryism like Wetherell and Croker, but calm administrators such as Wellington and Peel, believed that the "reformed Parliament" would herald in the rule of an English "Convention" doomed to inflict on the country all the horrors and calamities of a revolutionary era?

The Tories of 1832 were mistaken. Their error was natural. It is worth while to see wherein it consisted. Their mistake was, as we now can perceive, threefold. They underrated the self-control, the common sense, the political sagacity of their countrymen; they forgot the essential difference between Englishmen trained to public life by centuries of freedom and Frenchmen who knew so little of real politics as to take Rousseau and Plutarch for authorities in matters of government. They overrated the extent of popular discontent and disaffection. As experience proved, no class of Englishmen hated the existing state of society with half the intensity with which every class of Frenchmen detested the *ancien régime*. The Tories of 1832, lastly, underrated their own self-control and good sense. Under Peel's guidance, Toryism was transformed into Conservatism, and revolution was arrested because there was not even a beginning of reaction. Peel opposed reform, but Peel was indirectly at least as truly the author of the success which followed reform as he was of that policy of Catholic emancipation or of free trade for which he has, in popular tradition, received a credit that far more truly belongs in the one case to O'Connell and in the other to Cobden. When Peel announced that the Conservatives accepted the Reform Act, when Lord Russell had the wisdom to proclaim the "finality" for the moment of the change made in the constitution of Parliament, the policy of the Whigs received its real justification. By one of those odd turns of fate with which history is filled, the party which carried reform lost popularity from the very minute when reform triumphed, and this loss of popularity was, as we can now see, the surest proof that the policy of reform was sound. The wants of England had been met and satisfied, and the country, wishing neither for revolution nor for reaction, turned of necessity to the one consummate administrator who could make Parliament an instrument of good government. Peel was, in more respects than one, the agent who carried into effect the policy of the men whom he nominally opposed. If any one says, as some Conservative writers are inclined now to say, that the success of the Reform Act was due quite as much to the moderation and temper of the Conservatives as to the energy of the Whigs, he says what in one sense is true; but those who credit the Tories of 1832 with the success of a measure opposed by every Tory from Wellington downward, must in fairness remember that the Whigs who predicted the success of reform ought to be credited with knowledge of the temper which the Tories were in the long run likely to show. To know, or rather to feel, that English noblemen would never fall into the mistakes of French *émigrés*, that Peel and his followers would never be disloyal to the Constitution established by law, was to perceive one of the most essential facts of the situation. If the Tories had as a body followed Eldon, Lyndhurst, or Croker along the path of reaction, reform might, it is likely enough, have ended in a revolutionary catastrophe.

The policy of 1832 has, in spite or perhaps because of its brilliant success, been the constant mark of severe criticism. It is worth while to examine with care the nature and worth of the most obvious objections brought against the Reform Bill.

Reform, it is alleged, has excluded from Parliament every man of genius who is not also a man of wealth or rank. The measure which improved the representative character of the House has lowered its intellectual ability. The elder Pitt, Burke, Canning, Macaulay, or Praed would not now find the field for his political talents. The large constituencies prefer tried politicians or local magnates, and have neither the wish nor the discrimination to encourage or patronize youthful genius. The facts alleged by the critics of reform are, I think, in the main true. I say "in the main," because it is not yet proved that a young man of great talents may not, even without wealth or political connections, win a seat in Parliament if he devotes himself to a political career with the same energy with which his friends labor for success at the bar or in literature. There is every reason to suppose that men like Mr. John Morley and Mr. Frederic Harrison, might, if they chose to give all their talents to politics, find constituencies capable of perceiving how valuable these talents might be to the popular cause. Professor Bryce's election for a London constituency outweighs a hundred lamentations over the alleged incapacity of artisans or shopkeepers to recognize character and ability. I may further add that ordinary electors are much less exacting than were the old patrons of boroughs. It was considered a matter of honor that a member who voted against the wishes of his patron should at once apply for the Chiltern Hundreds. All England would be indignant if the Birmingham Caucus (for which, I admit, I entertain no great admiration) were to imitate the noblemen who during the last century exacted from their nominees obedience to a "mandate" quite as "imperative" as any issued by French Democratic electors. The plain truth is, that if the system of rotten boroughs occasionally placed a young man of genius in Parliament, it gave him a seat on terms which made his presence in the House of Commons a doubtful benefit to the nation. Burke was the dependent of Lord Rockingham, and probably never wrote or spoke with perfect freedom until he ceased to sit in Parliament. Macaulay was of too robust a character to be dependent on any man, but he held his seat when he first entered the House at the will of Lord Lansdowne. Moreover, for one man of genius sent into Parliament by an enlightened patron to serve the public, we may safely reckon that there were ten who were nominated by the owner of a borough because they were fit tools to do his dirty work. Lord Shelburne was a

man of enlightenment. There was no person for whom he had a more genuine admiration than for Bentham; yet, though his lordship had four seats in his pocket, he could not spare one for the man of genius whom he himself termed the "Newton of legislation."

Moreover, the state of things which led the owners of boroughs to pick out youths of talent who were ready to serve as the rhetorical gladiators of a faction in the party conflict of the day, was, it may be suspected, in itself transitory. There were signs before 1832 that the rotten boroughs were becoming the property of rich men who used Parliamentary influence to promote mercantile speculations. The critics who look with regret on indefensible anomalies which occasionally produce some slight amount of practical advantage, always assume that a bad system would not, as time went on, have grown worse. No assumption is more baseless. Evil produces evil, corruption is the parent of corruption. If the unreformed Parliament could by any miracle have been kept unreformed up to the present day, we may be quite sure that the House of Commons of 1882 would have exhibited all the vices of the House of 1832 in an exaggerated and fully-developed form. The rotten boroughs would long ago have become the property of companies or of promoters. We know well enough what are the uses to which the votes of members who owed their seats to the chairman of a railway company would have been put. We may console ourselves for the possible loss which may be incurred through some unknown Burke being compelled to write for the press instead of addressing the House of Commons, by the reflection that we have escaped, at any rate to a certain extent, the risk of seeing the House crammed by men who represent nothing but the wishes of stock-jobbers or of directors. Even as it is, the influence of the money market on Parliament is fully as strong as is consistent with the interests of the public.

Under the working of the Reform Act, everything, it is sometimes said, has improved except English statesmanship. Our leading men lack the nerve, the decision, the courage of their fathers. Lord Palmerston was the last of the body of manly and stalwart statesmen nourished under the system which the Reform Act abolished. The statement is too vague to be very satisfactorily dealt with by argument. I am inclined myself to hold that it does contain an element, though a very slight element, of truth. Increase of knowledge, the general diffusion of sympathy, the democratic and humanitarian spirit of the age, lead in the affairs of public life sometimes to the reality and much more often to the appearance of weakness. Pitt carried through the Act of Union with a vigor which would hardly be exhibited by Mr. Gladstone or Sir Stafford Northcote. He was hampered by no squeamish scruples as to the mode in which he obtained a majority in the Irish Parliament. He did not perceive all the evil certain to result from defying popular opinion: he carried his measure. We now know that the mode in which the Union was achieved deprived an act in itself of sound policy of nearly all the benefits for the sake of which it was carried by a Parliamentary *coup d'état*. Vigor without knowledge has a fine appearance, but it generally leads to results at least as bad as those produced by humanity without strength. Grant, however, that the politicians of 1800 possessed qualities, good no less than bad, not to be found in their descendants. This concession goes but a very little way in condemnation of the Reform Act. The amendment in any system of representation can, of its very nature, accomplish at the best but one object. It may bring parliament into harmony with the nation; it may to a certain extent facilitate the approach of men of genius to the service of the state; it may, in short, create a representative assembly which represents the feelings and the talents of the nation. No assembly—we may fairly say no government whatever—can by any device known to man rise much above the moral and intellectual level of the people from whom it springs. This general truth is specially true of representative government. A nation full of dishonesty, of incapacity, of lawlessness, cannot form a representative assembly filled with all human virtues. A people of knaves or cowards will assuredly elect a parliament of rogues and poltroons. The best that can be hoped for from constitutional mechanism is that it shall produce parliaments of members not markedly inferior to their electors.

The question to be asked with reference to the Reform Act is, not whether the *morale* of English statesmen has or has not changed during the last half century, but whether the House of Commons has fairly reproduced the virtues no less than the vices of the country. The answer cannot be doubtful. The humanity, the moderation, the general spirit of fairness which have on the whole characterized the last two generations of Englishmen, have in the main also characterized the English Parliaments which have sat since 1832. If these Parliaments lack something to be found in the unreformed House of Commons—and the truth of this hypothesis is by no means made out—the want arises not from the constitution of the electorate, but from the state of the English nation, or rather of that wider world of which England is after all but a part. I am no special admirer of our own time; the age has its fair share of special vices connected with two general phenomena of which I trust to write to you on some future occasion—namely, unlimited freedom of discussion and the gradual disintegration of beliefs. But to lay these faults to the charge of reform is scarcely less absurd than to attribute them to the rule of a Queen. In 1830 France reformed herself after her manner by the "three glorious days" of barricades. In 1832 England began to put her house in order by passing the Reform Act. Is it France or England which took the true path of permanent progress? Few of your readers will hesitate to affirm with me that the "glorious days" were at best but a generous error, while the Reform Act was a prudent step toward infinite improvement. If this be so, the act and its authors need no further apology against the attacks of critical ingenuity.

A. V. Dicey.

Correspondence.

LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We of the old colony feel much honored, I am sure, that your journal should devote so much attention to the discussion of the true landing date of the Pilgrims at Plymouth. But we have some objections to urge to the view which you take. If I correctly understand the object of your elaborate editorial discussion of the subject on Thursday last, it is threefold—viz., to prove (1) that the design of the celebration of the 22d December has always been to commemorate the landing of the colonists from the *Mayflower*, and not from the shallop; (2) that that landing took place on the 22d December, old style; and (3) that in honor thereof the celebration has always taken place on the 22d December, *new style*.

You will pardon us, I hope, that we do not all of us see at once the harmony of these propositions, if true; while, as we doubt their truth, we hope your charity will be extended at least long enough to look candidly at the evidence to be presented on the other side.

1. Some of us deny that any landing took place from the *Mayflower* on the 22d December, old style. It so happens that, while a great deal of uncertainty surrounds the exact dates of the early events of the colony, no uncertainty at all attaches to those of that particular date; but there is, on the other hand, the most absolute certainty that no landing whatever then took place. Of course it is not necessary to inform the *Nation* that but two original authorities exist giving testimony upon the matter in question—viz., Bradford's 'Journal' (first printed in 1856), and what is commonly called Mourt's 'Relation' (1622), which in this part was really written also by Bradford. Nathaniel Morton, in his 'Memorial' (1669), and Prince in his 'Annals' (1736), made use of both; but even the latter omitted much, while no subsequent writer has so much as pretended to offer original testimony as to the subject. Bradford is, therefore, the sole witness. And what says he? In the 'History' he condenses so much as to say nothing at all on this point. But in the 'Relation,' after stating in detail that they arrived in Plymouth Harbor with the ship on Saturday, 16th December (of course all his dates are in old style); that on the 18th (Monday) an expedition "went a-land," and, after exploring all day, "went abourde againe" at night; that the party explored again on the 19th (Tuesday), and that on the 20th (Wednesday) they went ashore again, and, after careful examination of all the good spots they had seen, concluded, "by most voyces," to settle "on the maine land, on the first place, on an high ground" (Burial Hill and parts adjacent), where a part encamped, and the rest returned to the ship, intending all (who could work) to go ashore the next morning, he thus proceeds (p. 23)—viz.:

"The next morning being Thursday the 21. of December, it was stormie and wett, that we could not goe ashore, and those that [had] remained there [on shore] all night could doe nothing, but were wet, not having dai-light enough to make them a sufficient court of gard, to keep them dry. All that night it blew and rayned extreamely; it was so tempestuous that the Shallop could not goe on land so soone as was meet, for they had no victuals on land. About 11. a Clocke the shallop went off with much adoe with provision, but could not returne it blew so strong, and was such foul weather, that we were forced to let fall our Anchor, and ride with three Anchors an head."

Now please to notice what Bradford, at the time and on the spot, wrote as to the day when the *Nation* assures us that the whole *Mayflower* company landed on the rock:

"Friday the 22. the storme still continued, that we could not get a-land, nor they come to vs aboord."

Surely this is proof enough that, whenever the landing from the ship—if there were any—did occur, it was not on this day.

2. But, further, some of us deny that there ever was any "landing"—in the sense here put upon the word—from the *Mayflower* in the harbor of Plymouth. Without asking space here to establish it by citations, I hold myself ready to prove that what actually took place was this—viz.: that, as has been seen from citations already made, parties went from the ship on land to explore and to labor—after the first two days, a portion passing the nights upon the shore; that substantially this continued *for at least a month;* in all probability no female from the ship during all that time setting foot upon the shore; and that it was not until *Wednesday*, 21-31 *March*, that "the Carpenter that had beene long sick of the scurvey" was able ('Relation,' p. 35) to fit up the shallop "to

fetch all from aboord," and the ship was cleared, the whole company transferred, and the colonizing made complete.

But if no one comprehensive "landing" ever took place from the *Mayflower*, and if no communication was found possible between ship and shore, on the 22d December, old style, the hypothesis of the *Nation* seems badly to need readjustment.

3. A few words further touching the *Nation's* extraordinary idea that, since 1769, the posterity of the Pilgrims in Plymouth have been —with the exception of the last few years, when they have been observing the 21st—keeping the 22d December, *new style*, in memory of the fact that they have supposed their fathers to have landed there from the *Mayflower on the 22d of December, old style.*

In the first place, the descendants of the Pilgrims have long been sufficiently familiar with the facts of chronology to be aware that if they desired to honor the day which in 1620 was known to their fathers as the 22d of December, it would be needful for them to celebrate what in these days is accounted to be the first day of January.

But to us who have been all our lives studying this history on the ground, it is clear that nobody in Plymouth ever undertook to celebrate any event which was supposed to have taken place on the 22d of December, old style. What the Old Colony Club on 22d December, 1769, supposed itself to be especially commemorating was what happened in Plymouth harbor on the 11th December, 1620, old style. They made a mistake of one day, because in the new-style calculation, on which only seventeen years before they had entered, they were, as required by statute, adding *eleven* days to all previous dates of that century to bring the beginning and the end of it into chronological harmony: and it did not, at the moment, occur to them that the involved *principle* would require only ten days to be added for the previous century. But what they had in mind was the landing from the shallop, and not any imagined later landing from the ship. This will appear from careful examination of the records of the club; from Belknap's 'American Biography' (1798, ii., 204); from Thacher's 'History of Plymouth' (ed. 1832, pp. 179-198; ed. 1835, pp. 180-195); but more particularly from certain other testimonies. One is from the discourse delivered at one of the early celebrations (that of 1806) by the distinguished American annalist, Dr. Abiel Holmes, whose care and accuracy in regard to all such matters were second only to those of his master, Prince. He says ('Discourse,' etc., p. 16):

"There [on Clark's Island] they [the shallop's company] kept the Christian Sabbath. The day following [Monday, 11th Oct., O. S.], *you remember* it was [he was speaking to the antiquaries of the Old Colony], they sounded the harbour lying before us and came on shore. *The feet of the Pilgrims then first stepped on that* ROCK, *which your filial piety has sacredly preserved;* and which will be at once a memorial of the event and a monument of their honour to the latest generation."

That I do not misinterpret him here will be obvious from his 'American Annals' (i., 163, note,) where he says, after speaking of the shallop landing:

"The 22d Dec., new style, corresponding to the 11th, old style, has long been observed at Plymouth, and occasionally at Boston, in commemoration of the Landing of the Pilgrims."

Judge Davis—than whom no learned antiquary ever had a more deserved celebrity—in his edition of Morton's 'Memorial' (1826, p. 48) bears the like testimony.

Is it asking too much most respectfully to request the *Nation* to adjust its historical judgments to these facts in the case—and the unnamed many which they sample—and not to lend the great influence of its assertion to the subversion of those faithful annals of the past toward which all true scholars are toiling, and as to which they may invoke its aid?

I have the honor to be, faithfully, yours,

HENRY M. DEXTER.

GREYSTONES, NEW BEDFORD, MASS., July 10, 1882.

[Our "view" of Forefathers' Day, as applied to the anniversary of the Landing of the Pilgrims in 1620, was expressed in these words: "Whether that disembarkation was made in one day, or occupied several days, is not so material. It is the idea of a general landing of men, women, and children that has made any one day remarkable; and the stream of literature sets in one plain direction—to the 'consecration' of the landing of the Pilgrims from the *Mayflower* on the 22d of December, 1620." And now, after a careful and candid study of the "evidence presented on the other side," we find nothing to shake that view, but, contrariwise, we find suggestions to strengthen it. Our correspondent asks us to "notice what Bradford, at the time and on the spot, wrote as to the day when the *Nation* assures us that the whole *Mayflower* party landed on the rock." And in return we must ask him to notice that the *Nation* did not "assure us that the whole *Mayflower* party landed on the rock" on the day named, and that it merely repeated the traditions of the landing as they were connected with Forefathers' Day. It is proper to state that the lines to which our attention is called are taken from that well-known work commonly entitled Mourt's 'Relation,' and that it is not absolutely certain that they were penned by Bradford. We are surprised that our correspondent should find it "clear that nobody in Plymouth ever undertook to celebrate any event which was supposed to have taken place on the 22d of December, old style." The article which has drawn out his communication furnishes evidence, as we believe, that the celebrants had in mind an event—to wit, the landing from the *Mayflower* —indicated by tradition as occurring on that very day. And we really doubt if even one in one thousand among those engaged from year to year in the celebration at Plymouth and elsewhere had any thought that the "shallop" landing on the 11th was in the remotest degree connected with the day which was commemorated.

"The descendants of the Pilgrims have long been sufficiently familiar with the facts of chronology to be aware that if they desired to honor the day which in 1620 was known to their fathers as the 22d of December, it would be needful for them to celebrate what in these days is accounted to be the first day of January." So says our correspondent, with admirable exactness. And yet, in his very next paragraph, he says that when they undertook to honor the day known to their fathers as the 11th of December "they made a mistake of one day"! The first settlers, most assuredly, were familiar with the facts of chronology; they were acquainted with the chronological styles, as well with the new as with the old. Their residence in Holland had necessarily made them familiar with both styles; doubtless they taught their children the lesson of difference—that with dates of the seventeenth century it was ten days. The lesson endured from generation to generation. Prince's 'Chronological History of New England' (published in 1736) was a common book in the Old Colony. Twice on one page has Mr. Prince occasion to note the difference in date for events occurring in 1620, as (Part I., p. 68) "May 25, or June 4, N. S.," "May 31, or June 10, N. S." And under 1618 we find "December 10, or 20, N. S.," the very date of the Sunday in 1620 spent by the "shallop" party on Clark's Island. We regard as improbable the supposition that any mistake was made by the Old Colony Club in its first public celebration of the day of the landing, and as even more improbable the supposition that, if any mistake had been made, it could have stood for a twelvemonth uncorrected. If the descendants of the Pilgrims "desired to honor the day which in 1620 was known to their fathers as the 22d of December," they would have taken the day as it was marked in the calendar, without concern for new or old style. The act of Parliament for the correction of the calendar provided that certain feast-days, holidays, fast-days, meetings of assemblies, etc., etc., were to be kept and observed "on the same respective nominal days on which the same are now kept and observed." And so we find that the anniversary of the "Powder Plot" was marked for the 5th of November, and the "Restoration of King Charles" for the 29th of May, the same in the new as in the old-style calendars, with many other events "too numerous to mention." No change of "style" would have required a change of the date of Forefathers' Day.

The 11th of December, 1620, presents no event worthy of special observance. A very small minority of the immigrants, with a party of the ship's officers and sailors (after spending sixty hours on an island in the harbor of Plymouth, within gunshot of the main shore), "sound the harbor," "march into the land," and "return to the ship." Forefathers' Day, in the almost universal acceptation of the term, means something else. It presents for commemoration the Landing of the Pilgrims—the landing of men, women, and children—"landing from the *Mayflower* on the rock of Plymouth." Tradition has fixed upon the 22d of December, 1620, as the date of the landing; and if, in regard to that date, history and tradition run counter, the sentiment attaching to the 22d remains undisturbed. An extract from Palfrey is to the point: "The *twenty-second* day of December has taken a firm hold on the local thought and literature, which the *twenty-first* will scarcely displace."—ED. NATION.]

HOW TO STOP POLITICAL ASSESSMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Abuses are never voluntarily given up by those who profit by them. Indulgences and dispensations were not abolished by the popes, nor absolute government by kings, nor slavery by slaveholders. The extortion of "free gifts" from a hundred thousand men, women, and boys, employed by the United States, will not be voluntarily abandoned by Jay Hubbell and his consorts. Abuses must either fall by attacks from the outside or they will stop when they become unprofitable. And here the friends of reform have got the better of the extortioners at last. They have succeeded in forcing Hubbell

to proclaim openly through the land that assessments have been laid by the Republican party committee for as many as sixteen years, and that not one person has ever been removed, or otherwise troubled, for failing to come to time with his "voluntary contribution." The Civil-Service Reform Association can do nothing better than to publish that letter in a hundred thousand printed copies, and send one to each officer and employee of the United States. That will, in Mr. Hubbell's classic phrase, tend to "confuse their minds" to such a degree that nobody will contribute at all.

If this is not sufficient to make assessments unprofitable, and thus to bring them to an end, I think that the wealthy and influential friends of decency in the methods of government ought to associate for the purpose of finding employment at once for any person who loses his employment in a Government office for failing to give a percentage of either his time or his wages to the bosses. But if such an association be deemed too costly an undertaking, I know of a cheaper method still—a pledge by all wealthy Republicans of the country who are not connected with the Machine, not to contribute a single copper to any electioneering fund, local or national, until this whole business of assessments is given up for good.—Respectfully, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., July 9, 1882.

THE "KAHAL" OF THE RUSSIAN JEWS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the April number of the *Century* a Mme. Ragozin undertook to justify the barbarous outrages which are being committed on the Jews in Russia on the ground that the Jews live under certain institutions which are endangering the life, health, and prosperity of the Christian subjects of the Czar. As the most abominable and most provoking of these institutions she designated the "Kahal," pointing it out as the particular, if not the principal, cause of the atrocious outbreaks against the Jews. That Mme. Ragozin has, with her ridiculous as well as malicious story of the terrible "Kahal," imposed alike on the editor of the *Century* and the American public, the following frank and simple declaration will prove. It is issued by the representatives of the Jewish congregations who were called to St. Petersburg in the spring of this year by the Imperial Government to advise in regard to the Jewish question, and has been published in the *Golos* and other Russian journals:

"By ukase of the Senate of May 21, 1786, it was prescribed that there should be established in every Jewish congregation a supervisory board of three to five persons under the Biblical title 'Kahal'—*i. e.*, public meeting to equalize the taxes among the Russian Jews, and to see that they met their fiscal tax-obligations. By imperial ukase of December 9, 1844, the institution of the 'Kahal' was abolished everywhere except in Riga and some cities of Courland.

"In spite of this, however, the malicious calumny, that there exists among the Russian Jews a secret Kahal institution, which tries by various illegal means to sustain the exclusiveness and particularism of the Jews, and to aid them in the attainment of various aims hostile to the other classes of the population, is still persevered in.

"In the hope of putting an end to this wholly unfounded calumny, based exclusively on forged documents composed by a Jewish renegade, we, the undersigned, representatives of the different centres of the Jewish settlements in Russia, rabbis, members of ecclesiastical and synagogue administrations, etc., consider it a sacred duty, calling the Omniscient Lord to witness, to declare publicly, before all Russia, that there exists in the life of the Russian Jews neither a public nor secret Kahal institution, and that such an organization, and all the attributes assigned to it, are entirely foreign to the life of the Jews."

Will the *Century* please take notice of this declaration, in justice to the Jews, on whom Mme. Ragozin's article was a gross libel?

Ismar S. Ellison.

Buffalo, July 10, 1882.

Notes.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, will publish, in two large volumes, 'The Military Telegraph during the Civil War in the United States,' by Wm. R. Plum, formerly an active member of the Telegraph Corps.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce that they will issue, by subscription, a fourth volume of Knight's 'American Mechanical Dictionary,' bringing this admirable work down to date.

'England, Picturesque and Descriptive,' by Joel Cook, the American Correspondent of the London *Times*, is in the press of Porter & Coates. The edition will be limited; the illustrations abundant enough; the size quarto.

The second edition of 'The Revolt of Man,' which appeared anonymously in "the Leisure Hour Series" (Henry Holt & Co.), will bear the author's name, Walter Besant.

Dr. Robert Young, of Edinburgh, offered to buy of the assignees of the late American Book Exchange "the unauthorized and imperfect plates" of his 'Analytical Concordance.' The offer was not heeded, and a new edition has been printed from the plates in competition with the authorized edition published by Funk & Wagnalls. Dr. Young asks the coöperation of the American press in protecting him in his rights by giving publicity to these facts. The outrage of pirating cyclopædias and works of kindred magnitude and laboriousness cannot, indeed, be too strongly denounced.

Prof. George Ebers complains in *Das Magazin* that his 'Daughter of an Egyptian King' has been dramatized and is to be played at Detmold, without one word of consultation with him, although long passages are taken bodily from the romance and simply turned into verse. 'Uarda' has been represented at the Victoria Theatre in Berlin again without his knowledge, and very badly. Nor could a notice on the title-page of 'The Sisters' that the right to dramatize it was reserved save that story either from stage piracy. A petition for a change in the law which makes such treatment possible has already been sent to the Reichstag.

Under the title of 'Familiar Studies of Men and Books' (London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford), Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson has gathered into a volume ten essays on men of letters—if John Knox may be called a man of letters. Mr. Stevenson's nationality makes his paper on Burns—intended as a corrective of Principal Shairp's monograph—as sympathetic as it is penetrating. To us the most interesting essays are those on Thoreau and Walt Whitman. The latter originally appeared in the *New Quarterly Magazine*, and was noticed at length in the *Nation;* it seems to us to be one of the few sane criticisms of this poet. Excellent also is a paper on Samuel Pepys. Among the other authors considered are Victor Hugo, Villon, and Charles of Orleans.

The shorter essays reprinted from the *Times* in Mr. James Payn's 'Some Private Views' (London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford) will be new to most American readers, and two of them at least, on "Whist-players" and on "Invalid Literature," are quite in Mr. Payn's best manner; but those from the *Nineteenth Century* are more familiar, and will be remembered as having called forth much comment and discussion when they first appeared. They are all lively, and they could have been written only by a very clever man with a wide knowledge of men and books. The examination of the pecuniary advantages of the literary calling, and of the average chance of a bright young man's success in it, is more pertinent to the rigid conditions of life in England than it is to our flexible society, in which both the physician and the lawyer hold higher social positions than in England, and in which the journalist has a recognized rank. The sequel to this essay, however, the discussion of the whole art of story-telling, with its bundle of practical hints for the 'prentice novelist, has a more than local value.

Mme. Th. Bentzon's translation of Mr. Aldrich's 'Queen of Sheba' is one of the latest volumes in the "Collection Michel-Lévy," which is the French equivalent for our cheap libraries, though the volumes are 12mos and are mostly copyright. They cost a franc and a quarter each.

In 1846 the French daily papers announced as soon to be performed a play by Victor Hugo on "Mazarin," but it has never been acted. It seems that four acts are written, and that the poet intends revising and completing the play shortly for publication, under the title of "Les Jumeaux."

'Voltaire: Bibliographie de ses Œuvres' is the title of a work by M. Georges Bengesco (Paris: Ed. Rouveyre et G. Blond; New York: F. W. Christern), which is to fill three volumes, now ready for the press, and which is to do for Voltaire what M. Paul Lacroix and M. Émile Picot have already done admirably for Molière and Corneille, and intend doing also for Lafontaine and Racine.

Every one who watches literature must have noticed the increasing frequency of the practice of adding bibliographies to lives of men and to other works, especially to treatises on scientific subjects. The custom has at last reached legislative bodies. *Polybiblion* points out that the *Journal Officiel* of May 11, in its "Documents parlimentaires," gives (p. 1149) a "Bibliographie relative à la question du régime des boissons," and that a bibliography of works on the situation of the clergy had already appeared (p. 745) in a report of M. Corentin-Guyho on a proposed law concerning the clergy.

A new edition, in five volumes, of Thomas Bewick's 'Quadrupeds,' 'British Birds,' 'Æsop's Fables,' and posthumous 'Memoir,' is to be brought out at the instance of his surviving daughter Isabella (aged 92). It will be throughout of Newcastle manufacture, and will be printed, so far as the cuts are concerned, from the original blocks—the family treasure. But 650 copies will be printed. Bernard Quaritch is the publisher.

The Circular, just issued, of the Local Committee for the Meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Montreal next month, informs the members of the Association that its sessions, beginning on August 23, will be held in the buildings of the McGill University. The Queen's Hall, University Street, will serve for the public evening meetings. The address of the retiring President, Prof. George J. Brush, of New Haven, will be given on the first evening of the session. On the second evening following, the President of the Association, Principal J. W. Dawson, of Montreal, will hold a reception in the new Peter Redpath Museum, which will then be formally opened. The customary excursions to neighboring places will be an agreeable feature of the coming meeting of the Association. Several eminent scientific men from abroad have already signified their intention to be present and take part in the sessions of the Association: among them Dr. William B. Carpenter, Mr. Herbert Spencer, Dr. Samuel Haughton, of Dublin, and Prof. A. Renard, of Brussels.

—The Philological Association had an interesting meeting at Cambridge last week—a substantial address from the retiring President, Prof. F. D. Allen, of Harvard University, on the University of Leyden; valuable papers from Prof. W. D. Whitney, whipping in erring Germans to true views of "surds and sonants" and "the origin of case-endings"; a capital paper of original research, by Dr. I. H. Hall, into the bibliography of the Greek New Testament as published in America; an interesting paper by Prof. W. B. Owen, of Lafayette College, on the influence of the Latin syntax on the Anglo-Saxon Gospels; and other papers on Greek, Latin, and Anglo-Saxon subjects. The Philological Society of England has asked the American Philological Association to unite with it in preparing a list of words in amended spelling, so that the "joint scheme might be put forth under the authority of the two chief philological bodies of the English-speaking world." The invitation was favorably received, and a committee appointed, with power to act for the Association within the limits of former reports adopted by the Association. The committee consists of Prof. F. A. March, of Lafayette College; Prof. W. D. Whitney, of Yale College; Prof. F. J. Child, of Harvard; Mr. J. Hammond Trumbull, of Hartford; Prof. T. R. Lounsbury, of Yale; Prof. T. R. Price, of Columbia; and Prof. W. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin. The Spelling Reform Association held its sixth annual meeting in Sever Hall, Harvard University, immediately after the adjournment of the Philological Association. The convening members were mostly philologists. They were not very numerous, and they did not claim that anything very astonishing had been done during the past year. They thought, however, that there had been substantial progress. A league was started of persons agreeing to use simplified spelling, beginning with such amended words as are given in the dictionaries: *program*, *iland* for *island*, *sovran* for *sovereign*, *rime* for *rhyme*, *ake* for *ache*, as in Worcester. Prof. Scott, of Columbia College, was appointed to prepare a list of such words. Prof. W. D. Whitney was the first signer of the League.

—The 'Constitution, Standing Rules, and List of Officers and Members of the Philosophical Society of Washington, April, 1882,' makes a large exhibit of membership, the total number enrolled being 246, of which 149 are active members. The scientific meetings of the Society are held bi-weekly in the Army Medical Museum, and the character and dignity of many of the papers presented (very often the results of the labors of scientists in the employ of the Government are embodied in papers read there for the first time) should suffice to warrant their initial publication in a series of memoirs, which, however, the Society would seem not to have the means of issuing. The only publication of the Society is its Bulletin, or Proceedings, in which only now and then is a paper published in full, being usually given by title simply, or in brief abstract. The officers of the Society are: President, William B. Taylor; Vice-Presidents, J. K. Barnes, J. E. Hilgard, J. C. Welling, J. J. Woodward; Treasurer, Cleveland Abbe; Secretaries, M. Baker, T. N. Gill.

—The *North American Review* for August contains an article by Mr. Archibald Forbes on the Army of the United States, in which the condition in life of the American soldier is contrasted with that of the English, to the disadvantage of the latter. The former gets better pay, better rations, and a better provision for retirement, and last, but not least, a better prison. According to Mr. Forbes, "over two per cent. of the actual enlisted strength of the American Army" are in Fort Leavenworth prison, and it is by no means a bad place for a soldier who does not like military life. His hair is not shaved, as a British soldier's would be; he has an airy barrack-room for quarters, far more comfortable than the tent or hut which he would probably be occupying with his company:—

"Here he has his bed from the first night, and the liberty of unrestrained conversation with his fellow-prisoners His food is the liberal ration issued to the American soldier, better indeed than the ration which the latter eats in remote stations, and supplemented in season by the produce of the prison garden tilled by the prisoners themselves. He eats this food in the company of his fellows, in a spacious dining-hall, equipped in a fashion so civilized as would shame a British barrack-room. The labor to which he is put is some handicraft the practice of which meanwhile has a rational interest for him, and the conversance with which, acquired in prison, may furnish him with an honest livelihood when again he shall be a free man. He is treated in every way as a rational being, rather than, as is the case with a British military prisoner, as a dog that has misbehaved and that is ever watching for a chance to misbehave again. He is allowed an individual freedom of action that is simply startling to the British observer of him; said freedom of action complicated only by the outer wall and by the bullets in the rifles of the prison guard. Occasionally, although rarely, he 'plays the fool,' and declares that he will work no more. Still he is treated, not as the misbehaving dog, but as the normally rational being suffering under a temporary aberration. He is brought into the presence of the Governor, who 'has a talk with him,' pointing out to him the folly of his conduct, and the consequences thereof. Save in exceptional instances, this expedient restores him to reason; if it does not, a course of dark cell and bread and water produces the result, and he returns to the shoemaker's shop or the smithy a wiser and probably a better man. By good conduct he can shorten considerably his term of confinement. When that expires, he goes out into the world supplied with a suit of decent clothes—for it is held cruelty to stamp him with a convict brand—the possessor of a small sum of money, and of a railway warrant for his conveyance to the place of his enlistment. Yet further to mark his rehabilitation, if his prison conduct has been exemplary, he receives a certificate that entitles him to reënlist in the Army, if he should have the inclination so to do."

Most of the inmates are deserters, and considering the liberal inducements which the Government service holds out, it may be doubted, on Mr. Forbes's showing, whether the régime at the Fort Leavenworth prison is not open to the charge of being a little too pleasant and comfortable, considered as a means of repressing the crime of desertion. It recalls a little too much the discipline of the famous brig on board of which every tar was furnished by the kind commander with a copy of the *Saturday Review*. Mr. Forbes considers that our Army is managed throughout with a stricter view to business principles than that of Great Britain, and cites many illustrations of the bad effect in the latter produced by "influence"; but surely "business principles" do not require that even an exemplary deserter should receive a certificate entitling him to reënlist, with a railroad pass to his place of original enlistment. Mr. Charles W. Elliott contributes a rather startling article on "Woman's Work and Woman's Wages," in which he insists that much of the hardship which women suffer comes from their being "so ignorant as to believe that brain-work needs and should have high wages; hand-work small wages." The poor things believe it, we suppose, because they are told so by the wicked men, who, as they still do most of the brain-work, have a sinister interest in keeping up this economic delusion as long as possible. The "cure," according to Mr. Elliott, is that "the strong must care for and help the weak, the wise the foolish, the old the young, and the young the old, and if this does not come to pass, Christianity is a delusion, and Civilization a failure, and Society a ruin."

—The Imperial Academy of Sciences, Vienna, announced in 1870 its intention of awarding a gold medal for every original discovery of a comet. The stimulus to the advancement of cometary astronomy resulting from these awards is well known. The Academy withdrew its offer in 1877, and the most calamitous outcome of the discontinuance appears to have been that Mr. H. H. Warner, of Rochester, should have considered himself called to establish a similar prize—after his own fashion, however, and chiefly as a pharmaceutical advertisement. Mr. Warner and his "consulting astronomer" have undergone such severity of ridicule in this matter that recently, after the distribution of a series of two-hundred-dollar prizes, a new scheme has been circulated, from which the objectionable features of business advertising are subtracted, but from which it is nevertheless apparent that Mr. Warner still retains somewhat of the proprietary right in comets and such like. Very possibly Mr. Warner thinks he has quite as much right to define all the conditions under which his award shall be made as to say who shall have his druggist-stuffs and who not; indeed, the one would seem to be to him about as much of a business barter as the other. But, as we may now credit him with a genuine wish for the furtherance of cometary astronomy, it seems as if he ought to know that the imposition of a condition restricting the announcement of discovery of a comet cannot be otherwise than fatal to his scheme. Very fortunately, however—and this Mr. Warner ignores—all this matter of the early announcement of cometary discoveries was long ago adjusted very perfectly, in the shape of an agreement among astronomers the world over that the collection and transmission of such immediate announcements should be confined to acknowledged centres. Obviously, the Smithsonian Institution is the only appropriate centre for this purpose in the United States; and the folly of insisting upon the diversion of these announcements from their wonted channel is already apparent from the fact that the announcements of discovery of some recent comets—despatched to Rochester by the discoverers in order to fulfil the conditions of Mr. Warner's prize—never reached European astronomers at all. In point of fact, the only scientific condition which can be imposed with reference to the discovery of a new comet is simply that pertaining to the first observation—viz., that it be sufficiently precise to be serviceable in determining the elements of the comet's orbit; the astronomer securing such observation being entitled to the award of whatever discovery prize there may be.

—It is a constantly fresh surprise that when there is a lion in the path he can be made to run away by so slight an expenditure of courage and energy. The catalogue of the British Museum has been a lion in the path for more than a quarter of a century; or, to change the metaphor, it has been an elephant on the hands of the Trustees; and yet when a man of enterprise became principal Librarian, it was found to have no greater staying qualities than Jumbo. How to print the Museum catalogue has been the standing question for discussion in literary journals, at library conventions, and when two or three bibliographers were gathered together. All the commonplaces about a printed catalogue being antiquated as soon as it is issued, about the enormous expense, much better put into books, about the necessity of finishing it before beginning to print, have been brought forward again and again, and the project has been long since abandoned by all reasonable people as hopeless. And yet the British Museum is to-day actually printing its catalogue on a very simple

and perfectly satisfactory plan. Formerly, when one of the volumes of the manuscript catalogue was too full to receive any further additions, it was sent to the binder, who repasted all the slips in such a way as to make three or four volumes out of one, with plenty of room for the insertion of new titles. For a time this was not unsatisfactory, but the result was rather alarming. The catalogue now fills nearly three thousand folio volumes. There is a limit to the capacity of the famous reading-room, and that limit seemed likely to be soon reached. Something evidently must be done. So physical considerations brought about what all the demands of all the learned all over the world might not have obtained. It was resolved to condense each volume, as soon as it was full, by printing it. The printed slips could be used as the foundation of a new series of volumes, and as titles take in type so much less room than they do in manuscript, the Museum might grow to quintuple its present size without its catalogue occupying more space than it does now. The advantage, also, of being able to set two or more copies of the catalogue before readers, so that two persons can consult the same part of the alphabet at once, is not to be despised. It was also determined to offer the printed copies to other libraries and scholars at a nominal price. For £3 a year one can get all that shall be printed during that time of one of the largest and most carefully catalogued libraries in the world. As about 2,800 pages were published last year, the price is certainly not high. It may, to be sure, be forty years before one will have the whole, and it will not then represent the library at any one stage of its existence. But the fact still remains that it will be the catalogue of an enormous collection of valuable books, a mine in which the bibliographer can delve for a lifetime. There is a man who has read the catalogue of the Bodleian Library, in four folio volumes, through twice. No doubt somebody has already begun the work of reading through the Museum catalogue, an occupation of truly endless delight. Cataloguers, too, in numberless libraries will get great comfort from it and abridge their own labors by using the investigations of the London laborers. No doubt when all the volumes are in type some means will be devised by which the additions shall be printed also in alphabetical order, and not as now (in the second series publishing by the Museum) in the helter-skelter order of annual accession.

—To the list of German periodicals devoted to Romance philology may now be added *Romanische Forschungen* ("Organ für romanische Sprachen und Mittellatein"), published by Karl Vollmöller. This new work will appear at irregular intervals, and the volume, consisting of four numbers, about two hundred and forty pages, will, for the present, cost fifteen marks. No other existing periodical in this field devotes any considerable space to the important subject of mediæval Latin, so necessary for the elucidation of many vexed questions. The present number contains an important article by O. Dietrich, on the repetitions in the Old-French *chansons de geste*, and the first instalment of a Latin text of the eighth century, a translation of Dioscorides. This text is full of interesting examples of phonetic changes, as for example, *cauculos* (for *calculos*), *esspecies*, *isspargis*, *decoptum* (for *decoctum*), etc. In addition to these, are valuable contributions to Spanish etymology and the correction of Provençal texts. The list of contributors and the articles promised for future numbers assure the success of this new venture, in connection with which we may mention another work, almost periodical in its nature, and belonging to the same department of study: we refer to E. Stengel's 'Ausgaben und Abhandlungen aus dem Gebiete der romanischen Philologie,' of which three parts have already appeared, containing the "Chanson de St. Alexis," and some shorter Old French poems of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, an Italian version of the "Chanson de geste Fierabras," and various contributions to the criticism of the French Carolingian epics. A supplement to the first volume, or number, has just appeared, which is of interest and value to all students of early French. The separately printed edition bears the title 'Wörterbuch der ältesten französischen Sprache' (Marburg, 1882). It is in reality a *Sprachschatz* to E. Koschwitz's 'Les plus Ancien Monuments de la Langue Française' (Heilbronn, 1880) and to the texts above mentioned. The glossary contains every word in the oldest French texts, with illustrative passages from later works: every form is given separately, and at the end are two appendices, one a list of the words used in assonance and rhyme, the other a conspectus of the words arranged according to classes and forms. This latter appendix is practically a grammar of the oldest French, with the advantage of showing every form.

—The eighth volume has just appeared of both the 'Théâtre de Campagne' and of 'Saynètes et Monologues' (New York: F. W. Christern), and for the first time in their career of rivalry the latter is better than the former. In the 'Théâtre de Campagne' are ten plays and five monologues; and of the whole fifteen only "Les Claqueurs," by M. Jacques Normand, is really first-rate; as acted by the two MM. Coquelin it was probably very amusing. Next in value are two monologues, "Le Violon," by M. Charles Cros, for a gentleman to recite, and "Le Rideau," by M. Eugène Verconsin, for a lady to act—we say to act, advisedly, for although there is only one part in M. Verconsin's little play, it is really a play and not merely a "piece" to "speak." In the latest volume of 'Saynètes et Monologues' the general average is higher, and "Ce Monsieur," by the writer who signs "Quatrelles," is more frankly comic than anything in the corresponding volume of the 'Théâtre de Campagne.' It cannot be denied that there has been a falling off in both series lately. Perhaps the vein is nearly exhausted. Two of the monologues in 'Saynètes et Monologues' deserve to be singled out: one is M. Truffier's poem, "Les Statues," and the other is M. Paul Arène's very comic soliloquy of a lover by the edge of a frog-pond under the mellow rays of a summer moon; this is called "Un Drame à Cernay."

—"No page of the history of any nation, however gloomy it be, is so destitute of value that that nation cannot draw from it valuable lessons; and Greece of the present day is politically disordered because she has ignored this truth." "Only when based upon local self-government can parliamentary government fulfil its appointed purpose: to assure the political freedom of a country." These are among the concluding sentences of a valuable essay on 'Public Law in Greece under the Turkish Domination' (Τὸ ἐν Ἑλλάδι Δημόσιον Δίκαιον ἐπὶ Τουρκοκρατίας), by Nicholas Moschovaki, Assistant Professor in the University of Athens. This volume of 200 pages may be commended to those who are interested in Greece, as a careful study of the administration of that country under the Turks. The second part of the book seeks to explain by what means it came to pass that, even in the days of Turkish rule, the actual administration of many localities was entirely in the hands of Greeks. The author first takes up the Greek Church as a political influence, and, without representing the Church as worse or better than it really was, gives an interesting account of the Œcumenical Patriarchate and its relations to the Sultan, the Fanariotes, and the Greek race. He quotes Mr. Finlay's saying, that the "only buttresses of modern Greek nationality are the Greek Government and orthodox Christianity." To these he would add a third: self-government in communities. Next follow graphic sketches of the best examples of local self-governments as they existed in various parts of the Peloponnesus (notably in Maina), in Northern Greece, and in the islands. Especially interesting is his account of the administration of Hydra, Spetzai, and Psara—those islands which rendered such noble service in the Greek Revolution. The administration of most of these communities was in the hands of certain leading families; the yearly or semi-annual meeting of all the citizens was held within or before the church, after divine service; the offices, with some exceptions, were held without compensation; the management of the public interests was, in many cases, most admirable.

—Unfortunately, on the establishment of the Greek kingdom, this attested capacity for local self-government was entirely ignored. Hence Otho, in spite of all his virtues, his love for Greece, his honest administration, was swept from the throne. Now Greece has a liberal constitution, but the administration is still centralized. The demarchs (mayors) and most of the inferior employees are responsible, not to the communities whom they serve, but to the central Government. The indispensable change is: that this responsibility be terminated, that local officials hold their positions as long as they obey the law, and that gradually the local communities reassume the rights and burdens with which they have become so unfamiliar that they no longer desire them. If, under the oppression of Turkish rule, what may fairly be called a system of local self government could develop in many localities, why should it not reappear in these brighter times, if only its need is clearly felt? Every thoughtful book like this, which sets forth plainly that "who rules" is not so important as "how he rules," and that the tyranny of the majority is as really oppression as Turkish rule, is a pledge of a better state of things in Greece.

THE LONGFELLOW BIOGRAPHIES.

SEVEN Greek cities contended for the dead Homer; six American biographers are already contending for the dead Longfellow. The contestant cities could do little harm; but there is something unseemly in the spectacle of the warring biographers hovering, pen in hand, round the very death-bed of the great author, like the two medical students with their lancets around the affray in 'Pickwick.' The disclaimer so promptly issued by the children of Mr. Longfellow appeared none too soon, but it has not arrested the flood of books. *Dux femina facti:* a woman took the lead. And after Mrs. Blanche Roosevelt Tucker-Macchetta came Messrs. Kennedy and Underwood and Stoddard; while Messrs. Austin and Greene have already made their public announcements. Five of these six make the unhesitating assertion that their respective works were expressly favored and aided by the poet himself. If we are to credit their collective statements, we have, instead of the simple, manly, reticent Longfellow, whom we thought we knew, a most undesirable substitute; a man eager, above all others, to be discoursed upon and gossipped about. Each biographer seems deeply interested in at least one person besides Mr. Longfellow: the most conspicuous desire of each seems to be to prove that he himself stood nearest to his hero—to prove, in a word, that "Codlin is the friend, not Short." From

this characteristic Mr. Kennedy's book alone is to be excepted. So far as this attribute goes, it is entitled to bear upon its cover the proud, distinguishing inscription: "N.B. This book does *not* claim to have been authorized by the late Mr. Longfellow."

The sternest advocate of the equality of the sexes will admit that in the race after personal gossip a woman has a certain advantage. No one else can approach so near a man, beguile so winningly, note such minute details of demeanor, and claim with such sweet naïveté an intimacy so extreme. Mrs. Blanche Roosevelt Tucker-Macchetta—for, like the Vicar of Wakefield, we like to give the whole name—had many advantages as a biographer. Her name itself must have been an attraction to the many-languaged poet; it seemed to represent four different tongues, and to be a 'Poets and Poetry of Europe' in highly-condensed form. She also seems to be a much-travelled person: for her 'Home Life of Henry W. Longfellow' (New York: G. W. Carleton & Co.) includes on different pages the condensed guide-books—almost as interesting as Baedeker, and in much the same style—of half-a-dozen European towns. Then her profession may have also been an attraction. She had evidently seen much of the world, across the footlights, and could describe Italian artists and English earls. Above all, she had wished to play "Pandora," and the kindly old poet, naturally gratified at coming so near to being a dramatic author, received with all his wonted graciousness the aspirant after fame, and habitually addressed her as "Pandora," thus adding a classic name to her four modern ones. She, in turn, approached him very much as Bettine Brentano approached Goethe. She did not actually take a nap with her head on his shoulder, like the trustful German damsel—for she was too busy listening to his confidences—but she hovered constantly about him, and called him always "Dear Master." If she is to be taken literally, she won him by these devices to chat freely with her about the most sacred experiences of his life—experiences about which, as has been hitherto supposed, he always drew a veil. We will not be so discourteous as to assert that on this point the lady's memory or imagination may have deceived her, but we will say that on some smaller matters she is absolutely to be disbelieved. Professor Longfellow, no matter how many other languages he knew, was at least acquainted with the English tongue; and when she represents him as saying of a delineation of himself, "It is me, and I will never have another taken better than that" (page 13), she attributes to him at least two grammatical solecisms which the testimony of a thousand Pandoras would fail to establish. If so inaccurate in this, why should she be trustworthy in more important matters? It is a less evil to have Mr. Longfellow depicted as ungrammatical than as a weak and garrulous old man; and since we know the first charge to be false, why believe the other? The lady has, like her mythological namesake, opened a box containing all manner of evil things, but she has not left a ray of hope at the bottom. Her book is conceited, inaccurate, vulgar, and worthless.

It is an immense advantage to Mr. Stoddard that his book was preceded by that of Mrs. Tucker-Macchetta. He certainly shares some of her weaknesses; he claims authority from the poet himself; he calls him familiarly "Henry Wadsworth"; and he prints little puffs of himself and his wife. In these personalities, however, he is utterly distanced by the lady; yet he has grave faults of his own, and it must be remembered that he has a certain literary reputation to sustain, while she had none. His 'Henry Wadsworth Longfellow: a Medley in Prose and Verse' (New York: G. W. Harlan & Co.) is, to speak frankly, one of the most discreditable pieces of literary padding that we have ever encountered. To swell its proportions, the editor inserts an essay of his own, twelve pages long, on the different translations of Homer; a long discourse of his own, before Mr. Adler's Society, on the "Poetic Art"—neither of these having any direct relation with his subject, Longfellow; and adds an appendix of letters from persons, not very distinguished, mostly apologizing for having no information to give about Mr. Longfellow. He reprints, like the other editors, some of the genealogical lore collected by the Maine Historical Society; he reproduces the early poems which Mr. Longfellow had the discretion to leave behind; and he employs, without acknowledgment, the careful Longfellow bibliography of the *Literary World*. But there is scarcely a sign of original investigation in the book, except such was implied in "a half-hour's glance over early volumes of the *Knickerbocker Magazine*," and very little of original criticism; while there is sometimes a slovenly and almost defiant indifference to facts easily ascertained. A letter or two sent to Cambridge or Portland could easily have ascertained for the most indolent editor that Mr. Longfellow's first marriage took place in this country, not in Europe (p. 60); that the well-known jurist, Theophilus Parsons, is no longer living (p. 16); and that the supposed boyish poem by Longfellow, exhibited on his seventy-fifth birthday in Portland (p. 12), turned out to be only some verses by Rogers copied as a schoolboy exercise in penmanship. The same careless and slovenly tone, the same preponderance of the first person, prevails everywhere; and the book closes with ten pages of doggerel which were composed by Mr. Stoddard on the day of Mr. Longfellow's funeral, and which are entitled to no better epithet than maudlin.

As Mr. Stoddard gains by the comparison with Pandora, so does Mr. Underwood by comparing him with Mr. Stoddard. His 'Henry Wadsworth Longfellow: a Biographical Sketch' (Boston: Osgood) is open to plenty of criticism, but it may at least be affirmed of it that it is not an insult to the reader. It has, like the others, the defect of claiming to have been expressly authorized. It is called only a sketch, and the preface gives the impression that under other circumstances it would have been far more adequately finished, yet there is no essential difference in this respect between the present work and Mr. Underwood's previous book on Lowell. Both books are disfigured by the insertion of little head-lines, at short intervals, instead of any division into chapters; and this gives a peculiarly trivial and newspaper-like air to both. One constantly expects to meet with, "The Nestor of the shoe and leather business," as in Bartley Hubbard's editorials.

This peculiarity really does injustice to Mr. Underwood's book, which is honestly conceived and carried out in what seems to the author the best way. It shows some faithful labor and some assiduous criticism; but, unhappily, an air of commonplaceness enfeebles all the result, and a little comparison with the Lowell memoir reveals the essential weakness of both works. Here were two men, living on the same street of the same town, moving in the same circles, writing in the same periodicals, holding successively the same professorship in the same college. Yet there never were two men, thus parallel in life, who were more utterly different in temperament, habits, genius, and literary methods. Here is the test of a biographer; and we look in vain through Mr. Underwood's book for a single incisive sentence, a single vivid touch of personal delineation, which shall make it forever clear to all beholders that the sitter for the one portrait was Longfellow, and for the other Lowell. To fail in this is to miss the essential thing; without it a book is not even a "sketch." It is only a collection of materials for a sketch.

Mr. Underwood, like Mr. Stoddard, is tempted to insert padding; and there are long passages —as, for instance, the discourse on the forms of poetry (pp. 234–241)—which seem to be extracts from some lecture on English literature. But he sins less in this way than his brother author, and is more careful as to facts, though sometimes heedless. Thus he clearly gives the impression that the Episcopal Theological School near Longfellow's residence is a part of the organization of Harvard University, though the College Catalogue takes pains to state the contrary. In his wish to be critical and decisive in tone, he sometimes does gross injustice and misstates facts. He admits (p. 119) that Poe had a quenchless hatred for New England writers, and attacked them all without mercy; and yet cites the authority of Poe, as if it were worth anything, for the very improbable statement that Margaret Fuller called Longfellow a booby and Lowell a wretched poetaster (p. 124). Why not go to her own writings, which are accessible enough, and find out precisely what she called them? What is Mr. Underwood's standard of accuracy of quotation may be gathered from the following sentence: "Mr. F. B. Sanborn mentions that she called Longfellow a dandy Pindar" (p. 124). But if Mr. Underwood will turn to Margaret Fuller's review of the first illustrated edition (1845) of Longfellow's works ('Papers on Literature and Art,' p. 326), he will find that she applied that epithet, not to the poet himself, but to the portrait of him prefixed to that volume—a portrait not perhaps so bad as that which appears in Mr. Underwood's own volume, but still combining dapperness and smartness in a way that makes the disrespectful epithet not so ill-fitting, after all. Nor can we believe, until we have chapter and verse for it, that so well-informed a writer as Mr. Sanborn has thus wrested this passage from its original meaning. If he has, Mr. Underwood, as a professed student of American literary history, should have been able to set him right.

In turning from the three books already mentioned to the 'Henry W. Longfellow: Biography, Anecdote, Letters, Criticism' of Mr. W. Sloane Kennedy (Cambridge: Moses King), one feels the sort of satisfaction which is to be found in a rather mediocre work modestly done, when contrasted with works of similar mediocrity and greater pretension. Mr. Kennedy's service has been done mainly with the scissors and paste-brush, but it has been performed laboriously and carefully. His authorities are carefully cited; he keeps clear of gross intrusions on privacy; the book is better printed and bound than any of the others, and, unlike them, it has an index. It comprises the essence of many of the best tributes to Longfellow; includes the inevitable early poems, and the bibliography from the *Literary World*, for which the editor gives credit, as also does Mr. Underwood. It must be owned that it contains a few very apocryphal anecdotes, as the description of Longfellow's night on Vesuvius, which is, however, taken from the London *Times*. Still, it is an honest piece of bookmaking, and will lead every reader to be glad, in view of such an undigested abundance of material, that the real work of preparing Professor Longfellow's memoirs is to be begun at once, by hands wholly competent. After they have appeared, even the best of these four books may be consigned to speedy oblivion.

ROGERS'S HISTORY OF AGRICULTURE IN ENGLAND.

A History of Agriculture and Prices in England. From the year after the Oxford Parliament [1259] to the Commencement of the Continental War [1793]. By James E. Thorold Rogers, M. P. Volumes III. and IV. 1401 to 1582. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1882.

It is certainly significant, as indicating the present tendency of aggressive work upon economic subjects, that an author who is able to content himself with a small duodecimo volume when writing a 'Political Economy,' should not regard four octavo volumes, averaging seven hundred and forty-five pages each, as too pretentious when presenting a 'History of Agriculture and Prices in England,' though it cover a period of three and a quarter centuries only. This is as encouraging as it is significant. Students are becoming wearied with system building in political economy, and are beginning to recognize that honest work in facts is likely to achieve more permanent results.

The great purpose which Professor Rogers appears to have presented to himself in the preparation of this work was to complement the existing histories of the English people. The political and religious history of England from the standpoint of kings and the Church has been many times written; the growth of the Constitution, portraying development among certain classes of Englishmen, has likewise received frequent attention; something, too, of the character of the people has been learned from a study of what they read and what they sang; while a recent student has undertaken the blending of all these various colorings into a single picture of the life of the English people. But, curiously enough, there has been no satisfactory attempt to uncover the substructure of English history, and to learn of that which, to a large extent, is responsible for all other manifestations of national life.

It is this task which is undertaken in the volumes before us, and the service rendered by Professor Rogers may be said to consist in furnishing the student of industrial society with a certain class of facts never before available, except in the form of original documents. There is no romantic interest in collating records of sales, tenant contracts, articles of apprenticeship, and the like; in tracing the influence of currency measures and changes in custom respecting property, or in comparing price-lists of various commodities, to determine the tendency of the markets; but it is nevertheless true that any reading of history which does not accept these facts as essential for proper interpretation must fail to arrive at the true meaning of the period studied. That Professor Rogers recognizes the importance of the work he has undertaken there can be no question. "I do not doubt," he says, "that at no remote period all history which has neglected the study of the people, and all political economy which has disdained the correction of its conclusions by the evidence which facts supply, will be cast aside as incomplete and even valueless."

The plan of the work is quite simple. When completed it will cover the period from 1259 to 1793. The acceptance of the first date is accidental, being due to the fact that the author found continuous information from that year only. The date 1793, as closing the period of his investigation, is appropriate for two reasons: It marks the beginning of the Continental War, and is also the date at which that great monument of economic research, Tooke's 'History of Prices,' begins. The information contained in the two volumes that have just appeared is drawn for the most part from the records of purchases made by the great corporations. It would be natural to expect that the task of exploring a later period would be lighter than that of uncovering the facts of a period more remote; but, so far as prices previous to 1582 are concerned, this is not the case. Respecting corn, for example, more accurate information may be procured for the thirteenth and fourteenth than for the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The documents pertaining to the later period, though numerous, fail in comprehensiveness. For the first and second volumes (1259-1400) the author estimates that he consulted eight thousand documents, while for the new volumes (1401-1582) it was necessary to examine ten times that number. It is a source of some satisfaction to learn, however, that the study upon the third period (1583-1793) will not present similar difficulties, since subsequent to the year 1582 wheat and malt averages have been recorded every six months. As further showing the amount of work of which these last two volumes are the result, mention may be made that the record of wheat is drawn from 6,245 entries, and refers to 1,363 localities.

The care taken by the author to reduce his facts to a usable form is worthy of equal commendation. The third volume is devoted to a detailed statement of prices as they stood in the documents consulted. It contains no comments, and undertakes no averages, these being referred to the fourth volume, where one finds the author's interpretation of the facts studied. The system of averages adopted presents the tendency of prices in three forms: the first set refers to years, the second to decades, while the third is drawn for two periods, of which one embraces the 140 years previous to 1540, the other the forty-two years subsequent to that date. This division is admitted to be somewhat arbitrary, but is accepted on account of the importance attached to the influence upon prices of the debased currency issued by Henry VIII.

The peculiar economic interest of these volumes appears to centre in the currency measures of the sixteenth century, the monetary problem introduced being, to our author's mind, a very difficult one. The facts calling for explanation are as follows: From 1300 to 1544 the standard of fineness for English coinage remained unaltered, although the amount of silver in the coins had been continually lessened. Thus the money of 1543 stood to the money of 1299 in the proportion of 1.163 to 3. Yet in the study of prices during this period one observes no rise corresponding to the decreased amount of silver in the coins. In 1544 Henry VIII. began the debasement of the currency by increasing the alloy, and from about that date one observes a marked rise in prices. Is this a monetary phenomenon, or is it referable to other causes? The theory which Professor Rogers offers in explanation is, we believe, his own. It is that, until the coinage reform under Elizabeth, payments were made by weight and not by tale. So long, therefore, as the standard fineness was not impaired, the coining of more or less pieces out of a pound of silver would have no influence on prices. We do not purpose criticising this theory so far as to deny its correctness, but we are constrained to say that there are some difficulties in accepting it.

Thus, in the first place, the absence of direct evidence in its favor is significant, and the indirect testimony offered, that there is frequent record of purchase by the large corporations of instruments for weighing gold and silver, is with equal ease capable of other interpretation. Again, if payments were made by weight and not by tale, there could have been no motive for chipping or for making any distinction between foreign low-weight and domestic full-weight coins. That such distinctions were made, and that the practice of clipping was general, is evidenced by the frequent enactments for the remedy of these evils; indeed, the reduction in the size of coins above mentioned was made in order that the new issues might correspond to the money already in circulation which had been debased by clipping. All this care to keep the coins of the realm uniform would have been unnecessary if the Government guaranteed the quality of the metal only, and professed no care respecting the quantity contained in the various pieces.

In the third place, this explanation of Professor Rogers neglects a recent modification of that law of monetary circulation, known as Gresham's Law, without which it cannot be regarded as correct. This law says that good and bad money cannot circulate together, but that the bad will drive out the good. That is, looking at the matter from another standpoint, the price of goods will be adjusted to the worst money in circulation, and no one will use a heavy coin to do the work which a light one would do as well. Prof. Francis A. Walker is, we believe, the first American economist who pointed out the fact that as stated this law is not true. Only when there is a superabundance of circulating medium will the best coins cease to be used. If an issue of debased coin is not sufficient to supply the wants of trade, prices will not be graded to the debased coin, and there will be for the time a concurrent circulation of good and bad money, as though all were good. Professor Rogers has, it appears to us, overlooked this fact, and proceeds in his reasoning as though prices quickly adjusted themselves to the new issues, no matter what the amount of the issue. Thus he says (p. 193, vol. iv.) that the price of wheat in 1547 was "lower than any recorded price if payment were made by tale." To support this conclusion he estimates the amount of silver given in payment upon the basis of the amount contained in the debased issues, yet fails to show that the new issues from 1543 were sufficiently large to supplant the money already in circulation. That this was not the case we have direct evidence in the result of the reformation of the currency in 1560; for notwithstanding the fact that Elizabeth restored the currency to its original fineness, and coined shillings containing 88.8 grains of silver in the place of certain issues falling as low as twenty, it was yet possible for her to manufacture £783,248 of new money out of the amount of silver brought in, which, according to the rates of the several standards, amounted to £638,113 only. This is conclusive proof that the bullion value of the average coin in circulation was greater than even the recoined standard of the reformed coinage, and therefore that the debased issues were not sufficiently large to cause prices to be graded to them. While they circulated they did the work of better coins. We would not say that Professor Rogers's theory is incorrect, but rather that there appears to be no necessity for any theory upon the subject, since, under a proper conception of the co-circulation of full-weight and debased coins, there is no variation in prices which cannot be otherwise explained.

By far the most pertinent of the conclusions reached in this study relates to the comparative well-being of the laboring classes in the Middle Ages and under the modern industrial régime. The facts upon which it rests are too voluminous for insertion here, but a careful comparison of the rate of wages with the price of living necessaries at various times leads Professor Rogers to support the complaint of the laborer that he has not partaken equally with the other classes of the benefits of our material civilization. The downfall of the English laborer dates from the

death of Henry VIII., the immediate occasion being the interference on the part of that monarch with the currency. The cause, however, lies deeper than this; it is only found when one perceives the radical changes in the industrial system which the new forces of modern individualism introduced. We cannot do better than quote the judgment of the author upon this point. Speaking of the conclusions to which his facts have led him, he says:

"They are stated in the briefest form when I refer to the fact that, while the rise, during the last forty-two years of the period before me [1540-1582] in the price of provisions was 2.71, the prices of the previous 140 years being taken as unity, the rise in the price of labor, and of objects whose main value depended upon labor, was only 1.64. These figures concentrate the results derivable from an analysis of facts. . . . They tell of the long cloud which was coming over the old sunshine of labor, and show how it was that the mass of the people was about to exchange a condition of comparative opulence and comfort for penury and misery, unhappily prolonged for centuries. From the Reformation till the Revolution the condition of the English laborer grew darker and darker. From the Revolution to the outbreak of the war of American Independence his lot was a little lightened, but only by the plenty of the seasons and the warmth of the sun. From the war of American Independence to the repeal of the Corn Laws it was at its very worst."

It is one thing for an agitator to make such statements; it is quite another when they are given as the result of scholarly and temperate research. It shows us that there does exist a social question.

As a compendium of useful, indeed essential, information, this work does not require the praise of a reviewer. Its merit is such that, when completed, it should, and probably will, gain for its author a reputation as a statistical economist equal to that of Thomas Tooke.

CHARLES DICKENS.

Dickens. By Adolphus William Ward. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros. 1882.

Mr. Ward has not found much to say about Dickens that is new; indeed, the only part of his volume which can in any degree be regarded as an original contribution to literature (all the biographical portion of the work is necessarily based on Mr. Forster's life) is his chapter on the "Future of Dickens's Fame." In this he maintains that there is no reason to believe that Dickens's popularity has diminished since his death; that his influence may be traced through the writings of other novelists of great reputation, as, for instance, George Eliot in England, the author of 'Debit and Credit' in Germany, Bret Harte in the United States, and Daudet in France. There is no doubt about the last two, and the case of Daudet is a very remarkable one, for, à priori, one would have said that there would be nothing so unlikely to happen in literature as that a Parisian novelist of the Empire should import and make his own the humorous and pathetic treatment of character which was the foundation of Dickens's success. It was, in fact, almost a piece of literary sleight-of-hand, and everything in the general condition of French fiction at the time of Daudet's appearance on the scene would have warranted the prediction that it would prove impossible. Not very long before, indeed, Janin had tried to make Dickens popular in France, and the only result was that Thackeray was able to hold Janin up to ridicule for the benefit of the English public. Still, this evidence of Dickens's influence on general literature does not help us much, as Mr. Ward says, to judge how long it is likely to last, for a literary fashion which seems for the time to change the face of literature, may suddenly disappear as completely as if it had never existed. What, for instance, has become of the "Romantic School," whether in prose fiction or the drama? Victor Hugo survives, but he is little more than a monument of its ruin, and of the triumph of Realism. The temporary though widespread influence of Dickens cannot therefore be regarded as indicative of his permanent reputation.

Again, it would, as Mr. Ward points out, be an entire mistake to imagine that any future generation can find in 'Oliver Twist' or 'Nicholas Nickleby' everything that the first readers of these novels found in them. Much that constitutes the broad background of Dickens's stories is wholly gone. The Fleet, the Marshalsea, indeed, a great part of the London of his day, is already swept away. The life from which he drew his characters is in great measure gone too, as Mr. Ward might have pointed out. Any one may see, by looking at a few of Cruikshank's familiar plates, that they would not serve even as caricatures of contemporary London life. It is probably safe to say that as England has more and more during the last fifty years felt the influence of the great levelling democratic wave, human character there has lost more and more of its grotesque individuality. The edges of it have been blunted; mankind has become more reserved and shy of showing peculiarities with the freedom of our old friends Sairey Gamp and Betsy Prigg, and Tony Weller and Sam, and Mr. Pickwick, and the rest of the company. The very occupation which produced Tony is gone, and the type is no longer recognizable as taken from real life. The Mr. Pickwick of to-day has lost Mr. Pickwick's naïf simplicity, or is ashamed to show it, and Sam's familiar intercourse with his master would now be rendered impossible, partly by the latter's dread of servants, which Thackeray first pointed out to be one of the marked peculiarities of modern life, and partly by his own increased sense of dignity and equality. In 'Martin Chuzzlewit' Dickens produced what was a painfully good caricature of American society as he saw it; but in this country the changes have been so great as to make large parts of it now seem flat, and probably it is not unfair to say that there was about the same relation between the American part of 'Martin Chuzzlewit' and the American society of the first half of this century as there was between 'Oliver Twist' or 'Nicholas Nickleby' and the England of Dickens's early life. The world which those books painted at the time in such bright and living colors is gone, and for that, though it is unfair to hold Dickens accountable, his reputation must gradually suffer.

Mr. Ward undertakes to vindicate Dickens from the charge of being a "self-made" writer, but his success is not great. Dickens's novels and letters show him to have had some acquaintance with Goldsmith, Fielding, Smollett, and the British essayists. He was also an "attentive and judicious student of Hogarth," but in the nineteenth century a writer of prose humorous fiction could hardly have been less thoroughly equipped for his task than this. The evidence that Dickens in his treatment of his subjects was influenced by the English classical novelists is very slight. Mr. Ward, who is occasionally disqualified for his task by a determination to be too subtly critical, cites a passage from 'Martin Chuzzlewit' as being "pure Fielding": "It was morning, and the beautiful Aurora, of whom so much hath been written, said, and sung, did with her rosy fingers nip and tweak Miss Pecksniff's nose. It was the frolicsome custom of the goddess, in her intercourse with the fair Cherry, to do so; or, in more prosaic phrase, the tip of that feature in the sweet girl's countenance was always very red at breakfast time." This jumble of the heroic in style with the commonplace and vulgar in substance may have been introduced into English prose fiction by Fielding; but it has so long been anybody's trick that it is hardly safe in Dickens's case to make his study of Fielding the cause of it.

Whatever he owed to other writers, it was, Mr. Ward admits, "but little in comparison to his natural gifts." We should be willing to go further, and to say, almost nothing. First among these gifts, of course, come his humor and pathos, which, according to Mr. Ward, were "twin products" of his "sensibility"; though how any appreciation of their literary value is advanced by fathering them upon this latter quality, which is almost as indefinite as intellect itself, we do not see. What we want to get at is the quality of the humor and pathos, for as to its existence there can be no doubt; and here Mr. Ward suggests—though he does not himself see the bearing of the suggestion—the solution of the problem.

"But Nature," he says, "when she gifted Dickens with sensibility, observation, and imagination, had bestowed upon him yet another boon in the quality which seems more prominent than any other in his whole being. The vigor of Dickens—a mental and moral vigor supported by a splendid physical organism—was the parent of some of his foibles; among the rest, of his tendency to exaggeration. No fault has been more frequently found with his workmanship than this; nor can he be said to have defended himself very successfully on this head when he declared that he did 'not recollect ever to have heard or seen the charge of exaggeration made against a feeble performance, though in its feebleness it may have been most untrue.' But without this vigor he could not have been creative as he was; and in him there were accordingly united with rare completeness a swift responsiveness to the impulses of humor and pathos, and inexhaustible fertility in discovering and inventing materials for their exercise, and the constant creative desire to give to these newly-created materials a vivid plastic form."

Now, this tendency to exaggeration in Dickens enables us to make a pretty good guess as to the permanence of his literary reputation. Many kinds of humor profit by exaggeration. The secret of caricature lies in knowing where and how to exaggerate; and Dickens's humor was the humor of caricature. Take exaggerated humorous character out of his works, and what would be left? The plots are poor, except in the case of the 'Tale of Two Cities,' which if it stood alone would have shown Dickens to be a wonderfully clever man, but nothing more; the moral lessons taught in them are trite, and the sentiment commonplace. It is the humorous characters that make the novels live, and they were the result of studies by an observer as keen as ever set himself to the depiction of the mental peculiarities and eccentricities of his fellows. The low London life with which his boyhood had made him familiar, was full of character, and he saw it all. Society—the upper classes—was as a sealed book to him, which he never had an opportunity of taking down from its shelf till his fame was matured and his habits of observation fixed. But the London types of his childhood he thoroughly understood, and with a fund of animal spirits and sympathy, which of themselves almost amounted to genius, and a power of humorous exaggeration such as has been shown by no other writer of our time, he poured forth the most delightful series of caricatures that the world has ever seen. But the very exaggeration which helped his humor ruined his pathos. Exaggerated pathos is a contradiction in terms, and the exaggeration is sure to be detected sooner or later. It is certainly a very puzzling thing that Dickens's pathos should not have struck the public of his own day as a caricatured pathos, laid on with a very thick brush. It does strike most people so now,

even those who most delight in the inconsequence of Mrs. Gamp and the riotous imagination of Jingle. But whatever the explanation of this improvement of taste, we cannot escape it, or allow any one to persuade us, as Mr. Ward attempts to do, that Dickens's pathos will ever be regarded as one of his permanent titles to fame. That he is sure of rank as one of the great humorists of this century cannot be doubted. His humor, was, however, to a very great extent the humor of external observation and exaggerated description of types which are disappearing or have already gone. Of the humor which grows naturally out of character, and of which Thackeray is so full, Dickens had little perception; and this fact necessarily sets limits to the popularity of his works. It is difficult to conceive of even the best caricatures having a permanent place in literature.

Men and Books; or, Studies in Homiletics. Lectures Introductory to the Theory of Preaching. By Austin Phelps, D.D., late Bartlett Professor of Sacred Rhetoric in Andover Theological Seminary. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

THE twenty-two lectures in this volume resemble the lectures contained in Professor Phelps's 'Theory of Preaching' in that they retain their original form and style as prepared for lecture-room delivery; but they differ from the latter in being much less formal, much more free and easy in their general structure, and consequently much better adapted to arrest the attention of the general public and excite its interest. The contents of the book are unequally divided by the "Men" and "Books" which appear upon the title-page; the first six lectures treating of the one, the last sixteen of the other. Those upon "Men" are a succession of forcible and manly pleas for a fair amount of worldliness, properly understood, in the clerical character and experience. The preacher who secludes himself from the ordinary interests of mankind, who does not keep himself well informed concerning the common affairs of business, and politics, and social life, is very apt to prove himself a fool when he is suddenly compelled to meet some practical emergency. Then, too, the chances are that the preaching of a recluse will be entirely inappropriate to the needs of his particular congregation. Here, by the way, Coleridge's famous saying, "If I were a preacher in Cornwall, I would preach fifty-two Sundays a year against wrecking," is sadly spoiled in the quotation. Professor Phelps's advice to the clergy to read what other men are reading is pertinent to his general purpose; but the incidental remark that Scott's novels bankrupted his publishers is far from being true to the actual circumstances of the case. In treating of the relation of the clergy to reforms, Professor Phelps is wiser than his generation; in the anti-slavery struggle the clergy did not take the course which he advises. They were generally "hind-captains." He is weak, however, in his justification of Trendlenburg and Hengstenberg in their defence of Bismarck's policy of blood and iron. But he concedes that this action on their part has been a fruitful source of German infidelity.

Professor Phelps's lectures upon Books are not intended to be general in their character, but to treat of literature in its relations to ministerial culture and activity. They are remarkable for their catholicity. If the hundreds of young men who listened to them went away from Andover and settled down to exclusively theological reading, their dust cannot be mountains on Professor Phelps's head. The course of reading which he advises is inclusive of all the greatest names of ancient and modern literature. He is a lover of the novelists and poets as well as of the theologians and critics; and his love of the best literature generally is so hearty that it would seem that it must have been contagious. Many a young man must owe to Professor Phelps a debt of gratitude for his introduction into Chaucer's world, or Bacon's, or Dante's. His very dogmatism is impressive and inspiring. But some of his judgments will not bear a close examination, as, for example, where he says: "In prose fiction Walter Scott and Charles Dickens are the only names which deserve to precede that of Cooper." His American bias is plain in this judgment and in many others. In a chapter on American theology it is made evident that Dr. Newman Smyth would have been a very natural successor of Professor Phelps's chair. He frankly says of the New England theologians:

"The system they framed was *not* Calvinism, as Calvin taught and preached. They started with the claim that theology is an improvable science, and they ended with the claim that they had improved it. They claimed to have evolved more completely and symmetrically than Calvin had done the spirit of the Scriptures, and to have made the Scriptural faith appear more reasonable and more accordant with the necessary beliefs of the human mind."

But the New England theologians do not please him altogether. Jonathan Edwards's famous Enfield sermon, "Sinners in the hands of an angry God," meets with his flattest disapproval. His opinion of Emerson is not relevant to this particular aspect of his thought, but is made more interesting by Emerson's recent death: "His is a diseased mind, and the world is sure to find it out. Some of you will live to witness a change of literary opinion of him not unlike that which has overtaken the literary fame of Byron. . . . Pure as his private life is, it is impossible for his intellect to be great and true literary seer [*sic*] so long as he hesitates whether or not to apply to the being of God the personal pronoun." Is not Professor Phelps too hard on the young minister on whose table he found a book of three hundred duodecimo pages on the culture of poultry, while he had never read the 'Faerie Queene'? We are acquainted with a minister of moderate salary whose family consumed twenty-five hundred eggs, laid by his own hens, in one year. Thus he was enabled to live and preach the Gospel. He, too, has a book on the culture of poultry, and the 'Faerie Queene' would not have served his purpose half as well.

Lose Blätter aus dem Geheim-Archive der russischen Regierung. [Stray Leaves from the Secret Archives of the Russian Government.] Ein aktenmässiger Beitrag zur neuesten Geschichte der russischen Verwaltung und Beamten-Corruption. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot. 1882.

THIS little book of revelations is probably the most curious of all authentic publications of the kind issued since the death of Alexander Hertzen. Its authenticity is warranted not only by the character of the publishing house under whose auspices it anonymously appears, but by internal evidence of the most striking nature. We find no clew to its authorship, but doubt not that it comes, directly or indirectly, from a person of high standing in the innermost spheres of imperial power at St. Petersburg. Julius Eckardt, the able writer of so many anonymous books on modern Russia, may possibly have had editorial control of it, though the smoothness and chasteness of the style—qualities which but seldom mark the pages of the Livonian author—militate against this supposition. The facts communicated in the 'Lose Blätter'—which would be startling in a high degree were we not long prepared for the worst in listening to accounts of Russian corruption—are selected with a discriminating eye to accuracy and general importance, and not with a special regard to piquancy. In fact, personalities are rather avoided, and, excepting the chapter devoted to the doings of the Ministry of the Navy, under the special and all-powerful control of the Grand Duke Constantine Nikolayevitch, late Admiral-General of the Empire, a kind of thin veil is charitably thrown over the personal interference of the highest participants in the transactions described. Public gossip and court talk are entirely excluded, and no woman is made to appear behind the scene. That the Grand Duke Nicholas, like Constantine a brother of the late Czar, and commander-in-chief in the Bulgarian campaign, is badly implicated, in spite of the care with which almost all individual delinquencies are charged to account of offices and organizations, is owing chiefly to the circumstance that the largest and most important division of the book consists of a secret report, presented to Alexander II. by the Comptroller-General, on the management of the Army in the Turkish war of 1877—a war in which Nicholas Nikolayevitch figured so lamentably as a general and so scandalously as a prince.

This report—a most remarkable document—is copied from the secret archives of the Court, and most of the author's communications are extracted from similar secret reports. The office of Comptroller-General—or, properly, Comptroller of the Empire—is one of the most important in the governmental machinery of the Czar. He belongs to the committee of state ministers—a cabinet proper does not exist in Russia—has the right to examine into the affairs and money accounts of all the departments, excepting the Ministry of the Imperial Household; receives the reports of subordinate courts of control throughout the empire; communicates with each Minister separately or with all collectively, as well as with the Imperial Council; and reports directly to the Emperor. The Comptrollers-General Tatarinoff, Abaza, Greigh, and Solski, who successively occupied this office during the last decade of the late reign, all enjoyed their master's confidence, and the reports of the last two, from which the contents of the pages before us are mainly drawn, surely deserve credit for bold and explicit statements of fact and terse remarks of a general and prospective character. It is almost sickening to see the affairs of one of the greatest monarchies of the globe *constantly*—though, of course, not exclusively—carried on on the plan of such "statesmen" as Tweed and Sweeny; its quartermaster and commissary departments *throughout* a most momentous war managed in the way which was familiar to us in the palmy days of shoddy contractorship in 1861; its transportation *for the men in the field* executed with the fidelity of our Star-route managers; its naval management putting to the blush the squanderers of our marine resources under the Robeson régime; many of its public buildings, docks, railroads, and war-vessels constructed at rates rivalling the expenses of the New York Court-house. It is melancholy to read the brief, timid, despondent interjected remarks pencilled on the margins of the secret reports by a ruler eager to reform the public service, but impotent to break through the meshes of a spoils system embracing every organization in his vast dominions. Alexander II. was as much a victim of official corruption in his reign as he was of Nihilism in his death. And there is no doubt that Nihilism draws its sap as much from corruption as from tyranny. All these national diseases mutually nourish and develop each other.

Eighteenth Century Essays, selected and annotated by Austin Dobson. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1882. Pp. xxiii.–284.

THIS delightful little book contains the cream, the *dessus du panier*, of the numberless essays on human frailties and foibles, on costumes and on customs, and on manners in general, put forth in the century which was most prolific in the true essay, and in which the true essay is perhaps seen in its highest perfection. It contains the best of the more humorous sketches of social life and character lightly limned for us by Steele and Addison, by Johnson and Goldsmith. As we turn its pages we are astonished at the freshness of these portraits from life, these jibes at passing vanities. As Mr. Dobson puts it, "the frivolous chatter of the Syracusan ladies in Theocritus is still heard at every Hyde Park review," and "the Crispinus and Suffenus of Horace and Catullus still haunt our clubs and streets"; and so the Will Wimbles and Beau Tibbses of the essayist are men whom we are wont to greet daily. It is needless at this late hour to praise these portraits, or to declare their charm; but one may venture to say that the Horatian quality in the eighteenth-century essayists has never been shown so clearly before as in the present volume. The freshness of the essays is scarcely more remarkable than the skill with which they have been chosen. There is not one too many or too few. Very quaint also and pleasant is the eighteenth-century air which Mr. Dobson has managed to impart to the volume: it has a rubricated title-page with many rules across it and a Latin motto; it has that "one needful and indeed indispensable Detail, the Dedication to an Illustrious Personage"; it has an admirable frontispiece, a bold drawing of the Tory fox-hunter, by Mr. Randolph Caldecott; it has catchwords at the foot of every page; it has notes quite in the eighteenth-century manner and full of curious learning; and it has a prefatory rondeau regretting that now

> "We may not work—ah! would we might,
> With slower pen!"

While the editor has done all we could hope or more, the publishers have done less. The volume is one of the Parchment series, intended to imitate if not to emulate the excellences of the publications of MM. Lemerre and Jouaust. The present volume falls far short of that standard. The registry of the pages, for example, is wofully inaccurate, as a glance at the running head-lines of the introduction will abundantly prove, and the book is put into its parchment covers in a very slovenly manner: the lower edges actually project below the cover.

Faith Victorious, Being an Account of the Life and Labors of the Venerable Dr. Johann Ebel, late Archdeacon of the old Town Church of Königsberg, in Prussia. Drawn from Authentic Sources by J. I. Mombert, D.D. New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.

WE have here the biography of a Lutheran clergyman little known outside of Germany, but entitled to a wider recognition, in the opinion of his biographer, on account of "his commanding intellect, interesting history, and apostolic zeal in the maintenance and vindication of pure and true evangelical doctrine in opposition to the scepticism and deadness of German Christianity in the first third of this century." Here are three counts, and only the last of them is likely to impress the average reader of to-day, be he never so evangelical. Ebel's zeal was surely apostolic, but for traces of a commanding intellect we seek in vain; and however interesting his history may have been to himself and others at the time when he was making it, it has now a remarkably remote and archæological appearance, like to some implement discovered in a kitchen-midden or a lake-dwelling of the primitive peoples. We have lived fast since 1842, when Ebel's labors came to an end in Königsberg. The questions by which he was agitated have given place to others of a profounder nature, and it requires the most strenuous effort to put ourselves imaginatively in the place of those who lived in Ebel's time and helped him fight his battles.

He was born March 4, 1784, and died August 18, 1861. We get the impression of a radiant, beaming personality—of a man living almost exclusively on an emotional plane—affectionate, kindly, but a good hater withal, and exhibiting the *gaudium certaminis* in the fullest measure. In 1839 he was degraded from his archdeaconship, apparently for attempting to conform his teachings too closely to those of the New Testament, but he was charged with the attempt to found a sect. The details of the suit against him are given in a wearisome manner. Dr. Mombert expresses his opinion of the persons engaged in this controversy with much force and freedom: the once distinguished commentator, Olshausen, is set down as "a self-seeker," "a contemptible individual." Deprived of his position, Ebel had many consolations. Indeed, his biography is pleasantest when treating of his life in exile from his beloved Königsberg. In an appendix three of his sermons are given. They are earnest and simple, but not in any way remarkable. It is too much to hope, with Dr. Mombert, that this book will be "a blessing and a joy to all who read it," but some may find in it a feeble satisfaction.

The Vicksburg Campaign, and the Battles about Chattanooga under the command of Gen. U. S. Grant in 1862–63: An Historical Review. By Samuel Rockwell Reed. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1882.

THE theory of this book, reiterated on every page, is that the soldiers of the war of 1861–65 were all-wise and their generals all-foolish; that the soldiers brought the war to a successful conclusion by their unaided efforts, while the generals perversely threw every obstacle in their path for four long years; that our Army, in short, was such that it needed no head or direction, and suffered greatly from such direction as was imposed upon it. For many ages people have thought and written that an army without a head was a mob; that the best soldiers that ever lived could accomplish nothing except when intelligently led; that the same troops when commanded by a competent general achieved victory, and by an incompetent one, defeat; and these ideas have even been illustrated by contrasting the disasters which befell intelligent volunteers at Fredericksburg, at Manassas, and at Chickamauga, with the victories achieved by identically the same class of men at Donelson, at Vicksburg, at Chattanooga, at Atlanta, and at Appomattox. But we must now believe that all such ideas are opposed to "the most elementary principles of the art of war," and that the most conspicuous successes followed the most egregious blunders on the part of the generals. Plain people, not versed in the "art of war," will, we fear, ask for more blundering generals of that sort—as Mr. Lincoln, when told that Grant was addicted to drinking, is said to have asked the brand of his whiskey, that he might distribute it throughout the Army. In support of this "most amusing paradox," that an army is best without a leader, the author selects the campaigns of Gen. Grant in the West, from the occupation of Memphis to the battle of Chattanooga, and writes 200 pages of fine, newspaper print to prove, not that Grant made mistakes, as mortal men have ever done, generals included, but that his every move was a gross and signal blunder, and that in all of them there was not one redeeming feature; that Grant's controlling ideas were, "to beat McClernand," "to slaughter his army," "to run away from Vicksburg," etc., etc.

It is the essence of a paradox that it is not amenable to reason, and it would indeed be idle to reason with this book, in which there is neither reason, nor sense, nor justice, nor truth, nor statement to which the intelligent man need give heed. To those who find a pleasure in incoherent abuse of a name that others respect, this book will be welcome; but those who believe, as did the vast majority of the Army and the loyal people of the North, that the very operations at Vicksburg and Chattanooga which are here described as foolish blunders were the first of the great victories which ended the war, will find little to interest them in these long pages of incoherent, carping criticism.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abel, C. Linguistic Essays. London: Trübner & Co.

Banks, Mary R. Bright Days in the Old Plantation Time. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 50.

Baillie-Grohman, W. A. Camps in the Rockies. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 75.

Beecher, H. W. Sermons in Plymouth Church. September, 1873–March, 1874. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1 75.

Cherouny, H. Socialism and Christianity. The Author. 15 cents.

Cook, Mrs. J. C. A Woman's Perils. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

Criswell, R. W. The New Shakspeare, and Other Travesties. American News Co. $1.

Cummins, Maria S. Mabel Vaughan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.

D'Anvers, N. Vegetable Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.

D'Anvers, N. Forms of Land and Water. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.

De Vere, A. The Foray of Queen Meare, and other Legends of Ireland's Heroic Age. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

De Valdés, J. Commentary upon the Gospel of St. Matthew. London: Trübner & Co.

De Valdés, J. Commentary upon the Sermon on the Mount. Lives of the Twin Brothers, Juan and Alfonso de Valdés. London: Trübner & Co.

De Valdés, J. Spiritual Milk; or, Christian Instruction for Children. London: Trübner & Co.

Falkner, W. C. The Little Brick Church: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.

Fornelli, N. L'Insegnamento pubblico ai nostri tempi. Rome: Forzani.

Hood's Own Whims and Oddities. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.

Hudson-River Route. Lake George, Lake Champlain, Adirondacks, Montreal, and Quebec. Taintor Bros., Merrill & Co. 25 cents.

In the Saddle: A Collection of Poems on Horseback-Riding. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Keyser, Harriette A. On the Borderland: a Novel. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

Lawson, J. D. Leading Cases of the Common Law Simplified. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co.

Marjory Graham: a Novel. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

Muir, Allan. Lady Beauty. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cts.

Newman, F. W. Libyan Vocabulary: An Essay Toward Reproducing the Ancient Numidian Language. London: Trübner & Co.

North American Review. Vol. cxxxiv.

Papillon, T. L. Virgil, with an Introduction and Notes. In two vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Pomeroy, J. N. A Treatise on Equity Jurisprudence. In three vols. Vol. ii. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

Randolph, Mrs. Iris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

Russell, W. C. The Lady Maud: Schooner Yacht. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Seaver, E. P., and Walton, C. A. The Franklin Elementary Algebra. Boston: William Ware & Co.

Severance, M. S. Hammersmith: His Harvard Days. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.

Smith, T. R., and Slater, J. Architecture, Classic and Early Christian. Scribner & Welford.

Stieler, A. Hand-Atlas. Parts 31, 32 (conclusion). B. Westermann & Co.

Taylor, G. Antinous: a Romance of Ancient Rome. Wm. S. Gottsberger.

Toller, T. N. An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, Based on the Manuscript Collections of the late Joseph Bosworth, D.D., F.R.S. Parts 1 and 2. A–HWI. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Tyndall, J. Essays on the Floating Matter of the Air. D. Appleton & Co.

Trumble, A. Great Artists of the American Stage. Part 1. New York: Richard K. Fox. 50 cents.

Vapereau, G. Dictionnaire Universel des Contemporains. Supplément à la cinquième édition. New York: F. W. Christern. 40 cents.

Wright, G. F. Studies in Science and Religion. Andover: W. F. Draper. $1 50.

YALE COLLEGE

Catalogue for 1881–82, under "Sheffield Scientific School," says: "For preparation in algebra and geometry, the recently-published text-books of Prof. Newcomb on this subject (Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1881) may, without indicating undue preference, be especially recommended."

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

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Printed by the *Evening Post* Job Printing Office, N. Y.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 27, 1882.

The Week.

WHILE the party chiefs in Washington are looking up new victims from whom they may possibly wring a few dollars to pay their election expenses this fall, and raging against all persons who call in question the morality or legality of such proceedings, the courts are dealing some heavy blows at the practice of assessing office-holders in the only case now before them. A short time since Gen. N. M. Curtis was convicted by a jury under the law in such cases made and provided, and now the Court has refused to grant a new trial, which was applied for on the ground of unconstitutionality of the statute. This, though it will undoubtedly still further cool Mr. Jay A. Hubbell's ardent desire to be a party in a test case with the Civil-Service Reform Association, is probably offset for that worthy by Attorney-General Brewster's decision that Congressmen are not among the Government officers contemplated by the act. The language of the statute was evidently employed loosely by Congress, and therefore it ought to be construed, and probably will be construed by the courts, as liberally as possible to give effect to as much as possible of it. It is quite obvious that if members of Congress can assess anybody they please, the statute, so far as it is intended to protect inferior officers, would be wholly ineffectual. The action of the Attorney-General is, of course, a notification to the district-attorneys throughout the country that they need not trouble themselves about indicting anybody under the act. This is, to say the least, very unfortunate, since what is imperatively needed is a judicial construction of the act. The Attorney-General's idea seems to be that the meaning of the statute is so perfectly clear that it would be a mere waste of time to go into court with it. Some grand jury may yet, however, take a different view of the matter, for fortunately not even an opinion of the Attorney-General can prevent a grand jury from finding an indictment if they desire to do so.

Mr. A. A. Freeman, Assistant Attorney-General for the Post-office, has reviewed the opinion of the Circuit Court in the Curtis case, and his decision has been published in full. He holds that the anti-assessment statute is unconstitutional and void on several grounds, among which the most striking one is that the Constitution does not confer on Congress the power to pass such an act. This is so conclusive of itself that most men would have been content with it; but Mr. Freeman evidently has a cruel disposition, and does not mean to spare the judges who decided the case below. He therefore adds that the act violates "a principle of natural right older than any organized law—the right to use our own in any manner that we may see proper, provided we do not interfere with the rights of others." That this should have been overlooked by the Court seems almost beyond belief, and it is no wonder that Mr. Freeman felt obliged to come out with it. Under ordinary circumstances we suppose he would enforce his decision by mandamus, but he seems to think that this is unnecessary, because the Supreme Court is going to overrule the Curtis case. His exact language is: "I have read the opinion of the Court in the Curtis case. The Court is in error, and the Supreme Court will so hold." But if he has a summary power of redress, is he not bound to exercise it? Has not the humblest citizen the right to have it exercised for his benefit?

The levying of assessments for political purposes has in the first place had the effect of making Mr. Hubbell, of Michigan, famous. This seems to please Mr. Hubbell, for his ambition is evidently rising, and he is intent upon keeping himself before the people. It appears that he wants to succeed Mr. Ferry in the Senate, while Mr. Ferry would be pleased to succeed himself. Mr. Hubbell, therefore, tries to persuade the people of Michigan that Mr. Ferry is not the right sort of man to represent them in the Senate, and to that end he sends to Michigan thousands of copies of a paper called the *Grand Army Journal*, in which Mr. Ferry is violently assailed. Mr. Ferry says in a letter to the First Assistant Postmaster-General that, as he is informed, the *Grand Army Journal* has never been a regular journal at all, but that the number in which he is assailed has been gotten up for the purpose, and is the first number published under that name, and he suggests that it is fraudulently transmitted through the mails as second-class matter, like regular journals. It is suggested also that Mr. Hubbell is carrying on his campaign against Senator Ferry with funds raised by assessment. How much truth there may be in these allegations we do not know; but it is certainly time that inquiry be made not only into the manner in which campaign funds are levied upon public servants, high and low, but into the purposes for which they are employed. It is very probable, indeed it has been shown in some instances, that money collected for the purpose of being used "against the common enemy" was used by one politician or by one faction against another within the same party—not to speak of other instances, in which its employment could not be traced at all. It is to be hoped that Senator Ferry will not rest until he has ascertained whether the *Grand Army Journal* with Mr. Hubbell's bombshell in it was published as a "Republican campaign document," and paid for out of the fund raised by assessments.

John B. Brownlow, a Post-office clerk, has published a letter giving his views of an attempt made by a little Tennessee "boss" named Houk, who happens to be a member of Congress, to prevent his expressing his opinion on the condition of politics in that State. Houk, he says, has been raising money in Tennessee, not to beat the Democrats, but to defeat another Republican, named Rule, for the nomination in his district, and assessing everybody right and left for this purpose. Finding that Brownlow had the audacity to state, in conversation, that he preferred Rule, Houk, to bring him to his senses, wrote a letter threatening to "send him home to work for a living" if he did not keep quiet. Brownlow says, in reply and in print, that he proposes to do just as he pleases; that Rule is a truly good man, while Houk is somewhat like the "heathen Chinee," and, in comparison with his rival, is a "satyr to Hyperion"; that he neglects his duties in Congress, and keeps an "army of office-holders" riding for weeks "over twelve big counties, larger in extent of territory than the combined area of several States of the Union," "insolently dictating to the people the renomination of their little boss, Leonidas Cæsar Houk." Mr. Brownlow adds that rather than outrage decency by supporting him any longer, he would willingly be disfranchised forever. The letter is a good illustration of the absolute desperation which the tyranny of the Machine produces in the minds of its victims. Here is this poor clerk, whose duty it is to look after the mails, and who ought to be as safe from molestation in doing it as any employee of a private merchant in this city, suddenly threatened with the loss of his place for saying that he prefers one man to another for Congress. To defend himself he publishes a torrent of abuse of the boss who does this, coupled with laudation of his opponent, in the hope that the latter may win the fight, and may, out of gratitude, keep him in. What a wonderful system it is!

Senator Frye's proposal of a commission of inquiry into the causes of the decline of American shipping has been seconded by a number of members of Congress; but the work of investigation has already been accomplished with some thoroughness, and with results which are daily attracting the attention, not only of thinkers and economists, but of practical men of business also. Mr. Frye could accomplish his purpose more effectually, besides saving a good deal of time, by sending to every member of Congress a copy of Mr. David A. Wells's 'Our Merchant Marine,' just published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. Without waiting for a commission, Senators and Representatives may learn from this volume just what the situation of American shipping is, and what has reduced it to its present low estate. Even before they read the book they may see at a glance, from the striking diagram which faces the title-page, what a melancholy falling away there has been. Mr. Wells shows, by means of proportionally reduced drawings of the American flag, how the export and import business covered by it has dwindled from 75.5 per cent. in 1855 to 16.2 per cent. in 1881. Whether by 1890 the flag in this comparison will have wholly disappeared, or whether it will gradually expand again until it regains something of its old and

honorable dimensions, is a question for Congress to answer; and it does not need the help of a commission in the matter.

Mr. Wells considers not only causes, but remedies also. Among the latter is one which Mr. Frye's commission probably would be asked to recommend—subsidies. Mr. Wells reinforces his own argument against this quack specific by the authority of the British Postmaster-General Fawcett, who, in a recent review of the subject, says that "there is an essential difference between a postal subsidy and one given on the building of a ship"; that the former is simply a payment for the conveyance of mail matter under certain specified conditions as to time and speed; and that in Great Britain such subsidies are so far from being granted to give English shipping protection against the competition of other countries, "that when a contract for the conveyance of mails is advertised no restriction whatever is imposed upon any foreign vessels competing." Mr. Fawcett mentions the interesting fact that "for some years a subsidy was paid by the English Post-office to a German steamship company for the conveyance of mails from Southampton to New York." This seems to dispose effectually of the familiar contention that the United States ought to hire Mr. Roach and other men on the Delaware to build merchant ships, because Great Britain does the like in regard to men on the Clyde.

The vote in the Senate on Thursday concurring in that clause of the House Tax Bill which removes all the bank taxes except that on circulation, renders it certain that if any bill passes, these taxes will be repealed. A great deal of demagogy was enacted by Senator Voorhees, of Indiana, while the subject was under discussion, but the largeness of the majority (15 to 41) shows that he did not have the effective support of the Democratic members. Whatever influence the banks have in Congress will now be given to secure the passage of the bill as a whole. The repeal of the bank taxes has an importance over and above the question whether these taxes fall upon the banks, or upon the depositors, or upon the borrowers, or upon all three in certain proportions. It is quite certain that if the banks are relieved from this burden, they can issue circulating notes upon bonds bearing a lower rate of interest than heretofore. They can afford to take the new 3 per cents authorized to be exchanged for the extended 5's and 6's (now running at 3½ per cent.), and thus the Government will recover in another form a considerable portion of what is lost by the repeal of the taxes. As the redemption of the new 3's cannot take place till all the 3½'s are paid off, the exchange will carry the national banking system along for three or four years at all events; but it will be incumbent on the next Congress to consider the question how the system shall be maintained, or what shall be substituted in place of it, when all the bonds shall be paid off, or when the procuring of bonds shall become so difficult and costly as to contract the circulation. A generation has grown up since the national banking system was adopted, to whom accordingly it appears that there can be no bank-notes where there are no Government bonds. It will take time and labor to remove this erroneous impression, and for this reason the consideration of measures, whatever they may be, in substitution of the existing system, should not be postponed to the last moment.

Panama Canal building has been going on so actively—on paper—that the enterprise was supposed to have got a discouragingly long start of the Nicaragua scheme. On Friday, however, a new impulse was given to the latter undertaking in the form of a report by the House Committee on Foreign Affairs favorable to a bill "to incorporate the Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua." By its terms the capital stock is to consist of not less than 500,000 or more than 1,000,000 shares at $100 each—a total of from $50,000,000 to $100,000,000. The canal must be at least 150 feet wide and 28 feet deep, and the locks not less than 600 feet long. The kernel of the scheme is a guarantee by the United States that for twenty years the net annual receipts of the canal shall not be less than three per cent. of the total cost of the work. It is provided, however, that this estimate shall be made upon a cost not exceeding $75,000,000, and that the yearly expenses of maintenance and operation shall not exceed $1,000,000. It is an interesting question how fast the subscriptions would pour in in the absence of this guarantee; but, with the endorsement of a Government whose credit is so good as that of the United States, Mr. Kasson, who made the report, is perhaps justified in believing that, in view of what "nature has herself accomplished" for this one of the ten routes which have been surveyed across the Isthmus, and considering other helpful circumstances, the company may succeed. The bill provides that the Government may use the canal when necessary for the transportation of troops, and may assume its management "temporarily or otherwise" when it sees fit. It is not likely, however, that with a guarantee of annual dividends to the amount of $2,250,000 the company would force the Government to take charge of the enterprise for twenty years at least. Mr. Kasson says that probably the United States will never be called upon to make good its guarantee, and altogether takes almost as cheerful a view of the future of Nicaragua as M. de Lesseps himself takes in regard to Panama. But such predictions are always made, even in cases where the Government finally is obliged to foot the bills.

General Grant has written a letter to the Mexican Minister, Mr. Romero, stating the attitude of the United States with regard to the boundary dispute between Mexico and Guatemala with as much positiveness as if he were himself the head, or rather the embodiment, of the Government of the Republic. He adds, indeed, that he is "not, of course, authorized to say a word for the Administration on this subject." But he is certain to know what it is going to do, and so informs the plenipotentiary of the foreign Power interested in the matter, kindly relieving the President and the Secretary of State of that trouble. General Grant's exploits of private diplomacy in China have already accustomed the people of this country to his eccentricities in this regard, so that a repetition of them appears rather harmless. It must be said, also, that the contents of General Grant's letter are on the whole very sensible, and stand in remarkably wholesome contrast to some of his official utterances as President of the United States. He is especially emphatic on the matter of annexation, telling the Mexican Minister not to give himself any concern as to the offer of territory which President Barrios of Guatemala, as reported, is prepared to make to our Government. "Annexation of territory," says General Grant, "will have but few advocates, and the treatment by the press of the country of such men as advocated interference in foreign countries, shows that any scheme of that kind would be extremely unpopular. . . . I am certain that I know the sentiment of the country on the question of annexation." There are some of us who remember that General Grant, when he had the San Domingo annexation scheme "on the brain," utterly refused to listen to "the sentiment of the country on the question of annexation," and even in his last message reasserted his conviction of the immense advantage of that acquisition of territory, and of the folly of the opposition to it. It is pleasant to observe a capacity to learn, even in elderly and headstrong men.

Shipherd has at length given to the press the testimony which the House Foreign Affairs Committee refused in May last to receive. It contains his correspondence with General Grant, and shows the means by which the adventurer contrived to elevate himself temporarily into the position of a public character. In October, 1881, he sends to General Grant a memorandum of the instructions which he thinks the Secretary of State ought to send to our Minister at Lima, and asks the General to "please say in a word if it seems to you too strong in view of the enormous interests at stake and the critical situation." The instructions embraced the following: "Notify Peru and Chili peremptorily that no adjustment will be allowed which does not provide, to the satisfaction of this Department, for payment of Landreau and adjudication of Cochet claims; and insist on *status quo* meanwhile. Avoid absolutely Société Industriel." This was sent back by General Grant, Shipherd says, with the following endorsement: "The enclosed is what I think the Secretary of State should send, in view of his instructions to Hurlbut and the latter's actions, as I understand the matter. But I can ask nothing and expect nothing from the present Secretary of State." This was, of course, the mere expression of an opinion—a very extraordinary opinion, no doubt—coupled with a refusal to do anything. Still, it appears to have answered Shipherd's purpose, and he probably showed it to all the other statesmen and diplomats who, he says, were associated with him, as containing General Grant's views on the Chili-Peruvian crisis

Mr. Trescot has written a letter to Mr. Blaine in which he makes a benevolent attempt to extricate that gentleman from the awkward position in which the Chili-Peruvian

investigation has left him. He declares Mr. Blaine to have acted in a consistent manner with regard to the Crédit Industriel from the first; that the idea of his "designing a war" is "too absurd for serious consideration"; that in regard to the Cochet claim, he rejected it absolutely; while as to the Landreau claim he merely suggested an adjudication. From this it will be seen that Mr. Trescot takes the Blaine view of the whole affair. What he says is, however, no more than the expression of an opinion as to the proper construction to be put upon certain acts of Mr. Blaine which have all been made public, and as to which Mr. Trescot is no better qualified to reach a conclusion than a thousand other people. Mr. Trescot's reason for thinking that Mr. Blaine could not have intended to involve the country in a war reflects greater credit upon his heart than upon his head. He says that he is quite sure about this, because Mr. Blaine always declared to him that it was not war but peace that he wanted. He would have declined the mission, he says, if he had thought otherwise. The reason why most people think that Mr. Blaine meant war, is that while talking about peace he kept exasperating the Chilians, so that it was obvious that sooner or later they must be forced into war. If, while uttering beautiful sentiments about peace and good-will, you double up your fist and shake it in a man's eyes, and encourage your friends to surround him with loud cries and threats, he will sooner or later come to the conclusion that your intentions are hostile. Mr. Trescot seems to think that it is impossible to say peace and mean war, so that his letter must not only be very satisfactory, but very amusing, to Mr. Blaine.

Judge Wylie's decision to admit Walsh's testimony in the Star-route trial gives the prosecution an important advantage. The decision is limited to holding that testimony of admissions by any one of the conspirators can be received so far as they affect him, but not his fellow-conspirators. Walsh's story is that Brady admitted to him in 1880 that he was in the habit of getting twenty per cent. on "expeditions" from all the contractors, and demanded it of him. The jury will, of course, be instructed very carefully that this affects no one but Brady, as they will be in regard to the "Rerdell confession," which has likewise been admitted. But the rules of law with regard to evidence in conspiracy cases are so elaborate and hard to follow, that probably no jury in arriving at its verdict in such a case ever knows whether it is applying them correctly or not. When a jury once gets hold of a conspiracy case it tries it generally in a much simpler way than any reader of Greenleaf on Evidence would think possible.

The Georgia Democrats, in their State Convention, on the 19th inst., abandoned the "time-honored" two-thirds rule. This rule is time-honored for various reasons. It enables one-third of the body to prevent the nomination of a candidate who is favored by a large majority of the representatives of a party and perhaps also of its members. It used to enable the politicians of the slave States, though in a minority, to control national conventions. It has been said that the two-thirds rule guarantees harmony and promotes enthusiasm. How it does this is not clear, since, as we have seen, it may easily disappoint and exasperate a very large majority of the party, and inasmuch as it often results in the nomination of a candidate whom nobody wants, not even the minority. It is an encouraging sign of progress that the Georgia Democrats have repealed this rule. As regards Mr. Alexander H. Stephens's acceptance of the nomination for the Governorship, it might be asked whether the Democratic Bourbons have come to him, or he has gone to them A similar question might have been asked when Mr. Stephens, as a Union man, cast his lot with the Rebellion. His mind was undoubtedly full of good intentions as to the beneficent influence he was going to exercise, but the Rebellion was much stronger than he, and he did not exercise any influence at all. Some time ago he was spoken of as the candidate of the "Independents" in Georgia, a position for which his expressed or implied opinions would have well fitted him. But, as in 1861 the Secessionists thought it an important thing to capture him as the ablest and most respected Union man in the State, so the Democratic Bourbons have thought it a useful thing to capture the most respected Democrat of an "independent" reputation. The result will probably be the same. If Mr. Stephens had any strong purpose in running for Governor, there would undoubtedly have been some intimation of it in the platform, which was made by a committee composed exclusively of Mr. Stephens's friends, and may have been written by himself. But there is absolutely nothing in it of the least significance unless it be the denunciation of the Government for its efforts to collect internal-revenue taxes in Georgia.

In the Democratic Convention of Ohio the "Young Democrats" seem to have been overshadowed by the old "war horses." This is not surprising, for if the Young Democrats were fairly represented by Mr. Bookwalter, the last Democratic candidate for Governor in Ohio, it is difficult to see what constitutes their claim to political power. There were only three candidates to be nominated this year—one for Secretary of State, one for Supreme Judge, and one for the Board of Public Works. It is reported that the nominations made by the Democrats are uncommonly strong. Their platform is much better than that of the Georgia Democrats, without, however, being very clear and specific. It favors "honest reform in the civil service" and a "tariff levied to meet actual needs," which is also "to encourage productive industries and afford labor just compensation without creating monopolies," whatever that may mean. A resolution opposing "legislation merely sumptuary" is obviously aimed at the German Republicans, who are dissatisfied with the so-called Pond Law and the Sunday Law. The Democrats expect to make large gains in that quarter, and their expectation is to some extent likely to be realized. A significant feature of the Convention was the part played in it by Senator Pendleton, who presided, and delivered what appears to have been the principal speech at a ratification meeting in the evening. In this he ignored civil-service reform almost altogether, and devoted himself principally to crude lucubrations about the foreign policy of this country, apparently trying to out-Blaine Mr. Blaine himself.

The news of the week respecting the crops was the main reason for buoyant and active markets at the Stock Exchange, and for depression and lower prices at the Produce Exchange. This news, in a word, was that the yield of wheat and of every variety of grass crop will be the largest on record, and that the corn crop promises to be but little below the average. The decline in the prices of food products at the Produce Exchange has been somewhat modified by the prospect of an extraordinary foreign demand for them during the coming year, inasmuch as the harvests in Europe are below expectations. All railroad securities were also strengthened by the report of the Advisory Commission appointed by the trunk-line railroads to consider the question of differential rates. The Commissioners favor maintaining the present differences, which are against New York; but the opinion is that the report will be accepted by the New York roads, and that then all differences between the trunk-line roads will be settled on a firmer basis than ever before, and that the policy of the roads will be to get profitable rates instead of to injure one another, as last year. The rise in the prices of stocks ranged from 1 to 17 points; and in railroad bonds, from 1 to 8½. United States bonds advanced ¼@1 for the long issues, and declined ⅛@¼ for the short-date issues. The money market was easy at low rates, although the New York banks lost about $2,500,000 of their surplus reserve. While foreign exchange ruled considerably below the gold-exporting point, about $1,500,000 gold was shipped for the account of the Italian Government. Rates in the London money market remain low, and the foreign demand for American securities was large; one negotiation of $3,000,000 Northern Pacific bonds was made for the German markets.

The accounts of the atrocities committed by Arab ruffians in the interior of Egypt, as they gradually come in, grow more and more horrible, and are calculated seriously to diminish the sympathy with the "nascent nationality" which some discerned in Arabi's movements. There has been some slight skirmishing between the British advance and Arabi's forces, the result of which will probably be the restoration of the fresh-water supply upon which Alexandria depends. The only sign of bravery the Egyptians have so far shown was that their cavalry galloped gallantly forward and then galloped back again as soon as they were shot at. The British are now trying to bring heavy artillery to the front, with which they expect to dislodge Arabi's force from his position near Ramleh, in which place the British have established themselves. The message of the Queen calling out the reserves on account of the difficulties in Egypt shows that the British Government is taking a somewhat more serious view of the obstacles to be overcome than before.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 19, to TUESDAY, July 25, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the Senate on Wednesday, Mr. Beck's amendment to the Internal-Revenue Bill, reducing the tax on tobacco to twelve cents a pound, was adopted after a long discussion. The discussion of the bill was made very spirited on Thursday by a reply from Senator Harrison, of Indiana, to his colleague, Senator Voorhees, who recently made a high-tariff speech. Mr. Harrison showed that Senator Voorhees did not truly represent the Democratic party of Indiana by his sentiments on the revenue question. The Committee amendment, removing the bank tax, was adopted. On Friday, snuff was included with tobacco in the tax reduction, and a motion made by Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, to strike out matches from the list of articles from which the stamp tax is to be removed, was lost, by a vote of 8 to 45. The first section, as amended, was finally passed on Saturday.

A proposed amendment to the Revenue Bill, further reducing the tax on manufactured tobacco to eight cents per pound, was lost in the Senate on Monday, by a vote of 18 to 38.

The Senate has refused to confirm D. Lanning, a Stalwart Republican, whom President Arthur nominated to succeed Postmaster Cleveland, at Penn Yan, N. Y. The latter gentleman was removed without sufficient cause. The vote stood 28 to 30, twelve Republicans voting in the negative.

Filibustering began in the House of Representatives on Wednesday, when the South Carolina contested-election case of Tillman and Smalls was taken up by the Republicans. A quorum of Republicans was obtained with difficulty, and, after a speech by Mr. Tillman, in which he openly defended the recent gerrymandering in South Carolina, and did not deny that there had been intimidation of colored voters, his seat was given to Mr. Smalls, the Republican contestant, by a vote of 141 to 5.

The House Committee on Pacific Railroads on Wednesday voted to postpone until December further consideration of the bill to aid in improving the navigation of the Mississippi River, by constructing a levee from Memphis to the Yazoo River.

On Thursday the House declared the seat of Mr. Shelley, a Democratic member from Alabama, vacant, by a vote of 145 to 1. His Republican contestant is dead. The conference report on the River and Harbor Bill was presented. It reduces the aggregate amount of specific appropriations contained in the bill as it passed the Senate about $350,000.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs made a report on Friday favorable to a bill to incorporate the Maritime Canal Company, of Nicaragua. By its terms the capital stock is to consist of not less than fifty nor more than one hundred million dollars. The United States is to guarantee that for twenty years the net annual receipts of the canal shall not be less than three per cent. of the total cost of the work. The same committee unanimously resolved not to accept a statement from Mr. Blaine in reply to Mr. Robert E. Randall's recent contradiction of Mr. Blaine's previous testimony in regard to the Crédit Industriel.

A minority report of the House Judiciary Committee, presented to the full Committee on Friday, sets forth that the remainder of the Northern Pacific Railroad land grant unpatented to this date should be restored to the public domain, for occupation by actual settlers under existing laws.

A bill providing for the issue of postal notes for sums not exceeding five dollars was passed in the House on Friday. The notes are not redeemable after three months, and the fee is to be three cents. The following reductions were also made in the fees charged for money orders: on orders not exceeding $10, 8 cents; not exceeding $15, 10 cents; not exceeding $30, 15 cents; not exceeding $40, 20 cents; not exceeding $60, 25 cents; not exceeding $70, 35 cents; not exceeding $80, 40 cents; not exceeding $100, 45 cents.

The question of free ships was brought before the House on Saturday in an unexpected manner. Mr. Kasson reported a bill the purpose of which is to extend to vessels built in the United States on foreign account, partly of domestic and partly of foreign materials, the same drawback that is at present allowed on a manufactured article constructed wholly of imported materials—that is, a drawback to the amount of duties paid, less ten per cent. Mr. Tucker, a Virginia Democrat, moved to amend the bill, making it apply to vessels built for domestic as well as foreign account. The amendment was forced to a vote, but the Republicans abstained, leaving the House without a quorum voting. Further dilatory tactics were resorted to by the Republicans until the hour was up, when the bill went over.

In the Criminal Court, at Washington, on Wednesday, argument was begun in the Star-route trials, before Judge Wylie, as to the admissibility of the testimony of John A. Walsh. It was understood that the decision of this question would also affect the admission of the Rerdell confession, and upon this piece of evidence much of the prosecution's success depends. The defence contended that a confession of a fellow-conspirator could not be accepted against an associate; that the confession could not be used against himself until the conspiracy had been otherwise proved; that a confession of acts not done in the furtherance of the objects of the conspiracy could not be received. On Friday Judge Wylie decided that testimony of admissions by any one of the conspirators could be received as far as they affected him, but not his fellow-conspirators. Walsh was then called, and testified as to Brady's admitting to him that he got twenty per cent. on "expeditions" from all contractors, and he demanded the same from Walsh.

The Court in banc of the criminal branch of the United States Circuit Court rendered a decision on Thursday in the case of Gen. Newton M. Curtis, ex-special agent of the Treasury Department, who was indicted for, tried, and convicted of collecting money from officeholders for political purposes. The motion for a new trial and the arrest of judgment was denied, and the validity of the statute upon which the prosecution was based was affirmed. General Curtis was sentenced to pay a fine of $1,000, and stand committed until the fine was paid. General Curtis was committed to the custody of his counsel, who was sworn as a Deputy United States Marshal. The counsel immediately applied to Chief-Justice Waite of the United States Supreme Court for a writ of habeas corpus and certiorari. On Monday they were signed and made returnable before the Supreme Court in October.

The Tariff Commission is now holding daily meetings at Long Branch. The Commission holds an executive session in the morning at eleven o'clock. At two in the afternoon there is a public session, at which those who desire to be heard on the tariff question are given an opportunity. The first point to be considered by the Commission is a free list.

The report of Messrs. Allen G. Thurman, E. D. Washburne, and Thomas M. Cooley, the Advisory Commission selected by the New York Central and Hudson River, the New York, Lake Erie and Western, the Pennsylvania, and the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Companies, to advise them upon the differences in rates that should exist, both eastwardly and westwardly, upon all classes of freights between the several terminal Atlantic ports, has been published. It sets forth that no evidence has been offered to show that the existing rates are unjust, or that they operate to the prejudice of any of the Atlantic seaboard cities. They, therefore, have no further recommendation to make, except that the whole matter must be left where it is, in the hands of the railroads.

General J. Rufino Barrios, President of the Republic of Guatemala, is now in this country. He went to Washington on Wednesday, and during the week many official courtesies have been extended to him. He hopes to obtain the good offices of the United States in settling the long disputed boundary question between Mexico and Guatemala.

The National Greenback-Labor State Convention, at a meeting in Albany on Wednesday, nominated the following ticket: for Governor, Epenetus Howe, of Tompkins Co.; for Lieutenant-Governor, James Allen, of Brooklyn; for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, L. J. McParlin, of Niagara County; for Congressman-at-large, L. G. McDonald, of Glens Falls. The platform adopted reaffirms that of the National Convention of the party in 1880, until the next National Convention adopts another; it calls for reform in the management of railroads by the State, repeal of certain sections of the penal code, and the regulation of prison labor; it asserts that all land owned by individuals or corporations in excess of what is required for their personal use, or for the transaction of business, should be taxed so as to render its ownership valueless.

The Regular Republican Executive Committee of Pennsylvania, to whom was referred the proposition of the Independent candidates for the absolute withdrawal of both tickets from the field, have written a letter stating that the difference between the Independent candidates is so wide that it practically bars any further attempt at negotiations on the basis they propose. They further state that their four propositions exhaust the powers granted them by their Convention. This virtually puts an end to all efforts at compromise, and it is probable that the war between the factions will be fought out in the campaign.

The State Convention of the Ohio Democrats was held on Wednesday and Thursday, and J. W. Newman, of Portsmouth, was nominated for Secretary of State, John W. Oakey for Supreme Judge, and Henry Weible for Board of Public Works. The platform contains a vigorous denunciation of political assessments, and a plea for civil-service reform; it favors a tariff levied to meet actual wants, a bi-metallic standard, anti-monopoly legislation, and a more ardent protection of American citizens in foreign lands. Senator Pendleton, of Ohio, spoke at a ratification meeting on Thursday evening. He devoted himself especially to a denunciation of the foreign policy of the present Administration, and favored extending the influence of the United States among the nations of the American Continent.

In the Georgia Democratic Convention, on Wednesday, the majority rule was adopted, by a vote of 195 to 164. Alexander H. Stephens and A. O. Bacon were put in nomination for the Governorship. On Thursday morning Mr. Bacon's name was withdrawn and Mr. Stephens was nominated, there being only eight scattering votes against him. The rest of the State ticket was then nominated, and a platform adopted which reaffirms the principles of the Jeffersonian Democracy; charges the present National Administration with a corrupt use of the Executive patronage; and condemns the present mode of raiding upon illicit distillers.

The Texas Democrats have nominated John Ireland for Governor. He is a practising lawyer of considerable reputation, and has served as State Senator and Supreme Judge.

A decision of the Connecticut Supreme Court, on Wednesday, establishes the eligibility of women to be admitted to practice in the courts of the State.

An earthquake shock of ten seconds' duration was felt in Cairo, Ill., on Thursday morning.

At half-past two o'clock on Wednesday morning the steamer *Rhode Island*, of the

Providence line, was run into by the *Alhambra*, of the New York and Halifax Steamship Company. The *Alhambra* struck the *Rhode Island* on the port side, and tore out the wheel-house and some of the upper works, completely demolishing the wheel. The only person injured was the colored barber of the *Rhode Island*, who was asleep in his chair. He was crushed into a very small space, and so hemmed in by timbers that it was necessary to cut him out. His injuries were not fatal.

The widow of Abraham Lincoln was buried in the Lincoln tomb at Springfield, Ill., on Wednesday. The officers of the State of Ohio attended the funeral in a body.

Miss Fanny Parnell, sister of Charles Stewart Parnell, the Irish leader, and granddaughter of Commodore Charles Stewart, known as "Old Ironsides," died suddenly of heart disease on Thursday, at the family home in Bordentown, N. J. She was twenty-eight years of age. Many branches of the Ladies' Land League in this country were organized by her.

Col. John Church Hamilton, a son of Alexander Hamilton, died on July 25, at Long Branch, in the ninetieth year of his age. He was the editor of Memoirs and the Works of his father, and wrote a 'History of the Republic,' which was published in 1858.

FOREIGN.

It became evident on Wednesday that the work of the British fleet at Alexandria was about ended, and that thereafter land troops would be needed to carry on the campaign. The ships of the reserve squadron were ordered to return to their several stations. Dervish Pasha left Alexandria for Constantinople, and the British felt relieved at his departure, for it was believed that he acted in collusion with Arabi Pasha, and it was asserted that he received a communication from him but a few hours before starting for Constantinople. Arabi Pasha's defence, which was published in Constantinople, maintained that the bombardment of Alexandria was a hostile act to Egypt, and contrary to the rights of the Sultan; and that he was fully justified by law and by the decision of the Council of Ministers in replying to the British fire. The Khedive, he argued, in accepting British soldiers as a body-guard, showed that he considered the Egyptian Army as enemies. The delay of the British troops gave encouragement to Arabi, and his forces increased rapidly.

Arabi Pasha continued his aggressive operations on Thursday. Having erected fortifications just opposite Abukir Bay, and upon the Mahmudieh fresh-water canal which supplies Alexandria, he placed a dam in the canal below his position, and cut the banks above the dam so as to send water along the front of his fortifications. Sufficient water remains in the canal below the dam to supply Alexandria for about three weeks. The country in front of Arabi's defences is flooded knee-deep, making the ground too soft for the movement of guns. Arabi secured his forces after the battle at Alexandria by spreading a report that the English had been defeated, and that eight iron-clads had been sunk, two burned, and four captured. He also issued a proclamation, announcing irreconcilable war with the English. The Notables supported Arabi by meeting at Cairo, declaring the Khedive a traitor, and deposing him. Arabi has levied a war-tax upon the land to the amount of $2,500,000. He is well supplied with provisions and ammunition.

Major-General Alison on Saturday morning moved out from Alexandria with two regiments of infantry and a mounted squadron toward Arabi's entrenchments. These troops occupied Abukir. Two hundred and fifty rifles, under an aide-de-camp of General Alison, pushed beyond Milaha to blow up the railway. They met some of Arabi's cavalry, and several shots were exchanged. The Egyptians fled after losing two dead and several wounded.

The Khedive published, on Sunday, two proclamations, one to Arabi Pasha, dismissing him formally from the Ministry of War, for his persistency in war preparations and his refusal to go to the Khedive after receiving orders; the other is a proclamation to the Army, calling on them to abjure Arabi's authority, and obey the Khedive. In reply to the proclamation, Arabi appointed a Minister of his own at Cairo. It is thought probable that he will destroy that city unless defeated. His force was estimated on Monday at 8,000 men, thirty-six field pieces, and six Gatling guns.

Refugees flocked to Alexandria on Sunday and Monday from the interior and from Cairo. Horrible reports were brought of the atrocities committed. At Tantah, eighty-five Europeans were tortured and torn in pieces; women were violated and tortured. At Tulkh, the throats of two Germans were cut as they were about to enter a railway carriage. Soldiers have participated in the outrages, but Arabi's Government has issued a proclamation that every native molesting Christians will be shot. This is thought to be a mere form which may give them immunity if they should fall into the hands of the Europeans hereafter. Ragheb Bey was arrested on board a mail steamer from Constantinople, at Alexandria, on Sunday. Papers were found in his possession which showed that he had been acting as Arabi's agent for carrying communications between him and the Palace and Pan-Islamic Committee at Constantinople. He was promised lenity if he confessed, and he gave a complete list of the persons with whom Arabi has been connected, both in Constantinople and Egypt. It is rumored that Arabi has threatened to depose the house of Osman, and proclaim that of Yezid ruler in its place.

The Sixteenth Rifles (English) marched from Alexandria to occupy Ramleh on Monday morning. Arabi's front fell back on Sunday evening to the other side of Ramleh, forcing this operation. The British troops stationed one Gatling and a field gun at the bridge over the canal. The enemy's cavalry appeared and galloped along the railway at three hundred yards' range, but fled at the first volley from the guns. They afterward reappeared with two guns and opened fire with little effect on the British troops. By three o'clock in the afternoon the fighting was finished. The casualties were insignificant, and the British troops remained in occupation of Ramleh.

M. de Freycinet, the French Premier, in conference with the Senate Committee on the Naval Credit, on Monday, said that if the Powers indirectly interested in Egypt remained neutral in regard to the intervention in Egypt, France would leave England to act alone, and would confine herself to the protection of the Suez Canal.

On Thursday the Porte replied to the identical note of the Powers in regard to the despatch of Turkish troops to Egypt as follows: "If the Porte has not hitherto decided on its own initiative to send troops to Egypt, it is because it was convinced that vigorous measures were avoidable. Observing with satisfaction that the Powers have formally and repeatedly recorded their deference to the incontestable and unquestioned rights and sovereignty of the Sultan, the undersigned, by the Sultan's order, informs the Ambassadors that the Porte consents to participate in the Conference." The Ambassadors of the Powers at Constantinople, in view of the importance of again asking the Porte to join the Conference, telegraphed to their respective Governments, asking speedy instructions. On Friday the Sultan appointed Assym Pasha and Saïd Pasha as Turkish delegates to the Conference.

A long despatch from Earl Granville, English Foreign Secretary, to Lord Dufferin, the English Ambassador at Constantinople, dated July 11, has been published. After justifying the bombardment of Alexandria, the despatch asserts that England's Government now sees no alternative but a recourse to force to put an end to the disorders in Egypt. If the Sultan will not furnish the force, Her Majesty's Government holds that the intervention should represent the united action and authority of Europe.

One hundred Conservative Peers met at Lord Salisbury's residence in London on Friday and decided to allow the Irish Arrears Bill to pass its second reading in the House of Lords, but to introduce amendments to the bill in Committee. The proposed amendments will not touch the question of loan or gift, but will provide that application for dealing with arrears shall be optional for both landlord and tenant, and the tenant's right of holding shall be considered an asset. Lord Salisbury, on account of the gravity of foreign affairs, did not recommend the rejection of the bill, and a consequent crisis.

The House of Commons on Friday passed Mr. Trevelyan's new clause to the Arrears Bill to its second reading. It provides that Boards of Guardians shall have power to borrow money at 3½ per cent. to promote emigration. The bill then passed its third reading.

Colonel Brackenbury, Director of the Irish Criminal Investigation Department, has resigned. He has not been able to work harmoniously with the Lord Lieutenant.

Crops in the northwest of Ireland are in a very bad condition. Hay is lying cut in the fields, surrounded by water, and potatoes are blighted.

Mr. Bradlaugh and three other freethinkers were committed for trial on Friday, in London, on the charge of publishing blasphemous libels. Mr. Bradlaugh was afterward admitted to bail in the sum of $500.

It is reported in London that Mr. John Bright will visit America during the Parliamentary recess.

In London, the prospectus has been issued of the European, American, Canadian, and Asiatic Cable Company, with a capital of $7,500,000. It proposes to work at the rate of nine pence a word.

The rifle team of England won the Elcho Shield in the competition at Wimbledon, England, on Thursday. Ireland was 31 points behind England, and Scotland 11 points behind Ireland.

In the French Chamber of Deputies, on Wednesday, M. Goblet, Minister of the Interior and of Worship, replying to a Radical interpellation, demanding the establishment of a central Mayoralty for Paris, moved the order of the day, pure and simple, which was rejected, by a vote of 278 to 172. The Chamber adopted, by a vote of 218 to 176, an order of the day hostile to the creation of a central Mayoralty. In consequence of these votes, Premier de Freycinet placed the resignations of himself and colleagues in the hands of President Grévy, who urgently begged them to withdraw them. On Thursday several Deputies declared in the Chamber that their votes were not aimed at the Cabinet. M. Ferry stated that President Grévy would not accept the resignations. The Chamber finally passed, by a vote of 276 to 105, an order of the day implying confidence in the Government, and leaving aside the Mayoralty question. This ended the crisis. M. Goblet resumed his post, but said he would not abandon any part of his programme.

M. Floquet, Prefect of the Department of the Seine, France, and a great partisan of the Paris Mayoralty, resigned on Friday. The resignation has not yet been accepted.

Mr. George P. Marsh, the eminent philologist, for twenty-one years the United States Minister to Italy, died suddenly in Vallombrosa, Italy, on Monday, at the age of eighty-one. He was the senior member of our diplomatic service.

A great fire at Smyrna, on Wednesday, destroyed 1,400 houses, and rendered 6,000 people homeless. Only one life was reported lost.

THE DECISION IN THE CURTIS CASE.

THE three judges of the Circuit Court, in sentencing General Curtis for levying assessments on Government employees, place their decision on grounds so broad as to strike at the root of the abuse. The act under which General Curtis was indicted prohibits "all executive officers or employees of the United States not appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate," from "requesting, giving to, or receiving from any other officer or employee of the Government any money, or property, or other thing of value for political purposes." Now, the Court says that it "cannot profess to be ignorant" that the law was passed for the express purpose of preventing the continuance of "practices which had become a topic of extended animadversion," and the first question raised by the defendant was, whether Congress had the power to prevent them by such means. He insisted that Congress has no constitutional power to make the requesting or giving of voluntary contributions for political purposes a criminal offence. The Court disposes of this defence very effectually by calling attention to the fact that the prohibition applies only where there is "concerted action between officials." It is, in other words, a gift by one official to another, or a demand by one official upon another, which is prohibited, not donations by or demands upon private persons.

The right of Congress to make regulations for the discipline of the public service cannot be questioned, and Congress must necessarily exercise its judgment and discretion in determining what acts have a tendency to impair discipline. With this discretion courts of justice cannot interfere unless it has been plainly transgressed—*e. g.*, should Congress undertake to prohibit "an act of a nature pertaining so exclusively to the sphere of private conduct that it could not by any implication impinge upon official deportment or official discipline." But the acts prohibited by this statute are not of such a character. "We cannot affirm that Congress transcended its discretion in prohibiting transactions between officials which create the relation of donor and donee, and introduce party interests into the public service; nor that Congress erred in assuming that the influences springing from this relation and these interests should be discouraged as liable to deflect the independence and impartiality which must rule official intercourse." As an instance of this sort of legislation, the Court cites the act of February 1, 1870, prohibiting employees from making gifts to their superior officers. It is not necessary, the judges say, that the coöperation of officials in raising funds for political purposes should be essentially "subversive of discipline." It is enough to justify the exercise of the legislative discretion "if the prohibited acts *tend to introduce interests* which disturb the just equipoise of official relations." As to the "right and duty of every good citizen to aid in promoting such political objects as he deems to be wise and beneficial," the Court further says: "The answer is that no citizen is required to hold a public office, and if he is unwilling to do so upon such conditions as are prescribed by that department of the Government which creates the office, fixes its tenure, and regulates its incidents, it is his duty to resign."

No one who wishes to see the public service of the country managed on rational and honest principles can fail to be greatly encouraged by this decision; but it has to be looked at in connection with the opinion which has just been given by the Attorney-General, to the effect that members of Congress are not "officers" of the Government within the meaning of the act, and consequently employees are not forbidden by it to pay the assessments levied upon them by Mr. Hubbell and his committee.

The gist of the Attorney-General's opinion may be gathered from the following extracts:

"It seems that a member of Congress is not an officer of the United States in the constitutional meaning of the term. In the case of Blount, on an impeachment before the Senate in 1799, the question arose whether a Senator was a civil officer of the United States within the purview of the Constitution, and the Senate decided that he was not. This question arose under the fourth section of the second article of the Constitution. 'Other clauses of the Constitution,' observes Judge Story in Section 733 of his work on the Constitution, 'would seem to favor the same result, particularly the clauses respecting appointments of officers of the United States by the Executive, who is to commission all of the officers of the United States; and the sixth section of the first article, which declares that "no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office"; and the first section of the second article, which declares that "no Senator or Representative or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States shall be appointed an elector."' To these clauses may be added that in the section of the fourteenth article which provides that 'no person shall be a Senator,' etc., who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress or as an officer of the United States, etc.

"These clauses show a marked discrimination between members of Congress and officers, the latter term, in the sense in which it is there used, not including legislators.

"In the penal legislation of Congress a like discrimination is made. . . . In legislation of this character the word 'officer' appears to be uniformly employed in a sense not more comprehensive than that in which it is employed in the Constitution as above; that is to say, not in that broad and general sense which would include members of the legislative branch of the Government."

This cannot be considered as conclusive. It is surprising to find a lawyer of Mr. Brewster's standing citing the Blount case as a precedent; for, in the first place, the record of his trial does not make plain on what ground the decision should be placed, and the difference between a Senator, an officer chosen by a State, and a Representative, whose office is entirely Federal, is very wide.

As to the citations of statutes in which the word is used in such a way as to show that members of Congress cannot be intended, other acts, as, for instance, the Test Oath Act, and the act of 1874 "repealing the increase of salaries of members of Congress and other officers," are in conflict with these, and have been called to the attention of the Attorney-General by the counsel for the Civil-Service Reform League. The reason why he is silent about them is very obvious. Had he referred to them, he would have been obliged to admit that the question is by no means clear, and that it is really one for the satisfactory settlement of which judicial construction is required.

Still, whether the Attorney-General is right or wrong, the important result of the Curtis case is that the practice of collecting political assessments has been judicially determined to be an abuse. Whether the language of the present act prevents the penalty being enforced if the assessments are levied by members of Congress cannot affect the principle of the decision. What is needed is a stringent and sweeping and perfectly plain act which any one can construe for himself, that will make it impossible for the Hubbells or the Curtises or anybody to continue the work, and that Congress will be forced into passing such an act before long we have little doubt.

The broad grounds on which the opinion of the Court is rested show that such legislation need not by any means be confined, careful as the judges are to point out that it is so confined in the existing statute, to cases of "coöperation" in raising money between officials. Every reason which is mentioned for punishing such coöperation is a reason for making it a criminal offence for anybody, in private or public life, to levy political blackmail. The criminality of the practice consists in its introducing a sinister influence into the service, and perverting the views as to official duty prevailing in it. This influence is just as dangerous and strong, whether this or that form of machinery be resorted to to raise the tax. Whether the tax-gatherer is a member of Congress, or Treasury agent, or a mere volunteer, his enterprise, on the principles announced in this decision, is an offence against the United States, which Congress can make a crime and punish, just as it can an attempt to tamper with the mails or defraud the Custom-house.

Important as are the practical legal consequences of the decision, its moral effect is, perhaps, still more so. The most serious obstacle the enemies of any established abuse have to contend with is that it gets in time to be regarded as part of the natural order of things, so that those engaged in perpetuating it are really felt to be doing nothing more than the circumstances of the case make it customary to do. No one feels very badly about another man's doing what he thinks he would probably do in his place. The work of reforming abuses consists very largely in replacing the feeling that a practice is an indifferent one morally, by the feeling that it is reprehensible and must be stopped. Nothing is so well calculated to bring this about as a decision that the practice is an abuse, accompanied by a simple, straightforward statement of the reasons why it must be so regarded. How great a help such a decision is likely to give the cause of civil-service reform, a very slight consideration of the disastrous effect a contrary result would have had may suggest.

DIFFERENTIAL RATES.

THE report of the Railroad Advisory Commission on the subject of "differential rates" between the West and the seaboard is in substance that they have no recommendations to make. Under the present system, which they have been engaged in examining, the trunk lines make higher charges for the transportation of freight to New York and Boston than to Philadelphia and Baltimore. Taking the charges on Eastward-bound freight from Chicago to New York as the standard, the charges to Boston are the same, those to Philadelphia two cents, and

those to Baltimore three cents, per hundred pounds less. These differences are the result of a compromise between the roads, and the Commission was appointed to inquire and report upon the differences that should be made, and whether any changes were required. The Commission, consisting of Messrs. Thurman, Washburne, and Cooley, is as able and impartial a body as could have been selected for the work, and their report that no evidence has been offered to show that the existing rates are unjust, or that they operate to the prejudice of any of the Atlantic seaboard cities, will probably close the discussion of the subject for some time.

The Commissioners' report shows clearly that the complaints of unfairness in the existing system were not based on any examination or knowledge of the real nature of the system, but on an instinctive feeling that whatever the rates and differences were, they must be wrong. The Commissioners describe with a quiet humor "three distinct views" on the subject which were presented to them—the New York view, the Philadelphia view, and the Baltimore view—the New York view being that the differences in favor of Philadelphia and Baltimore are unjust; the Baltimore view being that differentials were right in principle, but too small; the Philadelphia view, that the differentials should continue, but that there ought to be no discrimination between Philadelphia and Baltimore. The supporters of each view had, of course, a theory of the business of transportation to back it up, one being that railroad rates ought to be proportioned to distance; another, that they ought to be determined by the cost of carriage; the third, that they should be regulated by competition — all beautiful illustrations of the ready uses to which a theory can be put when practical advantages are to be gained from it. The "distance principle" was supported by Philadelphia and Baltimore, since the practical effect of its adoption would be to increase greatly the differences in favor of those two cities. The Commissioners give a number of reasons why the distance principle will not work; the most obvious, perhaps, being that between roads serving the same city (*e. g.*, the Erie, Central, and Pennsylvania in relation to New York) it could not be applied at all, for such roads, "irrespective of distance, must conform to the lowest rates." New York, on the other hand, is in favor of the cost principle; the "New York view" being that if this were applied, differentials would disappear altogether. But here the trouble was that the advocates of this view did not bring forward any evidence in support of it. Instead of proving their case by official reports or figures, they called the Commissioners' attention "to the topographical features of the country between New York and the head of Lake Michigan," and "its admirable facilities for the construction of railroads, which would be economical in original outlay, and economical also in their operation." The Commissioners think that it is impossible to predict how the application of the cost principle would work in practice, but as no "reliable information" on the subject seemed to be attainable, their conclusion that there is no certainty of its application resulting in any benefit to New York seems safe and conservative.

The principle of competition, on the other hand, is the very principle that produces railroad wars, and all the troubles which lead to pooling arrangements and differential rates themselves. The Commissioners show very conclusively that competition for ocean freights must always tend to make differential rates a necessity. The competition between the trunk lines is chiefly in the products of the West —corn, wheat, etc.—which are exported to Europe. The price of these is fixed by the European demand, and they should net to the producer in the American market the foreign price less the charge for carrying and handling. The total charge for carrying to Europe by way of New York and Baltimore, for example, must be the same; and consequently, the ocean freight-rate from Baltimore being less than from New York, the inland rate must be greater. In this way competition itself tends to produce differential rates.

All this means, of course, that the railroads must in future, as in the past, fix the differentials themselves. The Commissioners do not pretend that the existing differentials may not become unjust. No previous compact has succeeded in controlling them permanently, and it is even possible that they may not now be right. But the Commissioners say that no evidence has been produced to show anything of the kind, and that therefore the matter must be left where it is, in the hands of the railroads. It must be said, however, that the very fact that there is no evidence shows a bad condition of administration. Each of the trunk lines and the community at large are interested in having evidence, and the Commissioners might have dwelt at greater length on this branch of the subject. They do indeed suggest that to enable the railroads "to judge fairly and with full understanding, accurate statistics of their business should be kept by each of them and submitted to the others or kept in some common office, and these statistics ought to be periodically given to the public also. Publicity is a great corrector of imaginary evils, and may be an important preventive of evils, both imaginary and real." They should be compelled to keep such statistics; and a report by a commission appointed to inquire into differential rates, that on most of the points involved no accurate evidence was attainable, should in future be impossible.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE FRENCH MAYOR.

In two articles recently printed in *L'Économiste Français*, M. Joseph Ferrand has given a very interesting account of the local governments of France, with especial reference to the powers of the mayors; and, as might have been expected, his inquiry clearly shows that in France, as in other countries, the problem of local government is still far from being solved in a satisfactory manner. But so far from there being the same difficulty that is very frequently met with in this country, of a mayor not clothed with power enough, M. Ferrand believes that the French mayor possesses too much of it, and that the true remedy lies in depriving him of some of it by enlarging that of other officers, and in altering the manner of selecting the mayor. The mayor possesses greater personal powers, if we may so call them, in France than in any other country which pretends to have a well-adjusted system of local government; and this arises in part from the fact that he is the agent of a government which interferes to a large extent with the private as well as the public life of the citizen, with his industrial as well as with his political relations.

Thus he is charged with the registration of births, marriages, and deaths; he manages the property of the commune; he supervises all public works, the schools, charitable institutions, savings-banks, public manufactures, etc.; he appoints all his agents and prepares the estimate of the revenue and expenditure of the commune. These are all duties of a local character. But, in addition, the mayor is an agent of the central authority of the state, and as such is charged with the execution of public acts regarding elections, the recruiting of the Army, and national taxes. He is thus the representative of the Government in the commune, and also the representative of the commune itself.

By the law of 28 Pluviose, year viii., the mayor was appointed by the central authority or by its immediate agents the prefects, the chief officers of the departments. And to render the commune more subject to the central government, the members of the municipal councils, bodies formed to assist the mayors, were also named by the sovereign or by the prefects. This manner of appointing the mayor and council was continued until 1831, when the councils were made elective. But instead of following up this plan and decreasing the powers of the mayor, who remained a state officer, and increasing the powers of the municipal government, by which all that pertained to local matters would be regulated by them but administered by the mayor—a plan that would have educated the people in the management of their local affairs, and thus prepared them for higher political duties—instead of doing this, the powers of the council were limited, and the financial dependence of the communes, by which in many instances they were compelled to ask aid of the state for their daily expenses, was continued. It is only too apparent that the shadow and not the substance of local government, by which is meant self-government, is here.

The Second Empire, being virtually a one-man power, necessarily involved some changes in the local governments, by which they were rendered more subservient to the central government. But there were no essential changes, and save in the manner of choosing the mayor, deputy-mayors, and municipal council, the powers of the local government have remained almost unchanged, although the central government has passed through many phases of change, from a monarchy to a republic. In 1867 the powers of the council were enlarged, and since that time there has been by means of special legislation a continual tinkering with the local governments, which has produced a lack of uniformity in their organization and functions.

Thus in 1876 upwards of 33,000 communes,

out of a total of 36,000, nominated their own mayors and deputy-mayors (*adjoints*); and this power was given to those communes in which there was no agent of the central authority (save the mayor) and was denied to those places in which a prefect, sub-prefect, or justice of the peace was to be found. In short, in every chief town of the department the mayor is appointed by the central authority, and in every other commune by the prefect. In the former case they are generally, but not always, taken from the municipal council, which is, as we have said, an elective body. And, as showing how amenable to the central authority the communal government is, not only the mayor, but also the deputy-mayors, and even the municipal council, may be suspended by the prefect for two months; and the mayor and deputies may be dismissed by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, and the municipal council may be suspended for one year by the same officer, and may be dissolved by a decree of the sovereign.

It is now proposed to make the mayor in all communes an elective officer, and this proposition is not regarded with any favor by M. Ferrand. The mayor, he says, in such a case, cannot exercise his twofold functions—that of representing the central authority and the commune—with anything like the energy he now possesses. Suppose, says M. Ferrand, the mayor is commanded by the sovereign to enforce in his commune an unpopular measure. Will he do this knowing that his position depends upon the good-will of the electors of the commune? Again, will a mayor forbear to use his personal powers and influences to defeat a candidate for the Conseil Général, or a Deputy, who may be opposed to him in politics? Will he, moreover, forbear to use his position and means to secure a reëlection? These possible results seem to M. Ferrand to be fatal to the proposition, and if they did occur would destroy to that extent the efficiency of communal administration. In Italy the Cabinet of Cairoli-Depretis proposed in 1880 to make the syndic, or chief officer of the commune, elective, but at the same time measures were taken to preserve intact the interests of the state in these local divisions of the territory. And M. Ferrand thinks that somewhat the same course must be adopted in France, since any such change in the manner of selecting a mayor as is proposed would of necessity involve some changes in his functions. An elective mayor would be more of a communal than a state officer, and would therefore be less intimately connected with the central authority than at present. In fact, very much the same results would follow as have occurred in this State when the sheriffs, clerks of counties, and coroners, and other properly State officers, were made elective. The tendency is in France, as it is here, to regard a popular election as the best method of selecting officials; but it might easily be shown that the application of such elections is of very limited scope, especially with regard to executive offices, where a higher responsibility is obtained by appointment. The result of the proposal combatted by M. Ferrand will be watched with interest, for, if accepted, it will give a new proof of the spread of republican ideas in France. But whether it will result in a better organized local administration, according to French notions, may be open to doubt.

THE ENGLISH POLICY IN EGYPT.

LONDON, July 11, 1882.

TO-DAY the English fleet is opening fire on the forts at Alexandria, an act whose consequences, now impossible to forecast, will have begun to make themselves felt before these lines reach you. As this is the point at which we have passed from discussion and diplomacy into the sphere of action, it is a good one for stopping to survey the steps by which we have been led up to an act likely to prove so momentous, and to describe the feelings and opinions with which the nation surveys the situation.

No question has arisen for a long time so full of complication as this; none in which there are so many factors to be considered—factors whose respective lines of conduct it is difficult to predict. In Egypt itself, although the army headed by Arabi Pasha is the dominant force, there are several other tendencies, and notably the religious sentiment of the people, to be dealt with. Then there is the Sultan, whose policy is so tortuous and vacillating that one cannot even explain it by supposing that he always intends the opposite of what he says. The four Powers, Germany, Austria, Russia, Italy, act to a certain extent together, yet with somewhat different objects in view; their collective action is the result sometimes of a determining impulse given by the most resolute, sometimes of a sort of compromise between the several volitions of each. France and England, as specially interested in Egypt, and as the Powers which have taken her ruler and her finances under their protection, form a group by themselves. Each professes, and to a certain extent feels, a wish to act in conjunction with the other. But their interests are not quite the same even in Egypt. Their respective positions in the general politics of Europe are of course quite different, as are the mental attitudes and constitutional habits both of their statesmen and of their peoples. I will attempt to sketch, so far as the materials yet published make it possible to do so, the line of policy which each seems to have sought to follow.

England has, or (to put it more exactly) is supposed to have, three interests in Egypt. The first is that of keeping the Suez Canal open and secure, affording a quiet and undisturbed passage for her troops, and still more for her mercantile vessels, from the Atlantic to the Indian and Pacific Oceans. The *quantum* of this interest is disputed, some holding that India and our Eastern trade would be in serious peril were the Canal stopped; others that this would merely entail a disagreeable but not formidable loss of time and money. However, it is admitted on all hands that the question of the Canal is a serious one for us. The second interest is that of our trade with Egypt, especially the export of cotton thence to England, and of our commercial colony established there. This consideration tells pretty strongly on people in Lancashire, some of whose towns depend for their cotton on the fine growths of the Delta; but if it stood alone, it would not be thought to justify intervention, because of course traders must take their chance, and can hardly expect military operations to be undertaken for their sake. The third is that of the English holders of Egyptian bonds. I mention it because it is frequently put forward by the non-interventionists as the origin of our present connection with Egypt, and a leading motive for keeping a hold on the country. But it has no real existence. There are, of course, persons in England who, having invested in Egyptian securities, would like to see a Western Power compel the payment of the interest due to them, and coerce or govern Egypt for that purpose. But such persons are few; they would not venture to avow publicly their desire; they could not, even secretly, really affect the policy of the country. Practically the bondholding interest may be left out of the matter.

Almost more serious than these English interests in the country are the positive engagements under which England has come. Under Lord Beaconsfield's Government she joined with France in establishing the Financial Control, and she acted in procuring the deposition of Ismail Pasha and the elevation of Tewfik to be Khedive in his place. She has thus virtually assumed a species of protectorate, and become bound in honor to keep on the throne the candidate placed there with her participation. Her consuls have constantly advised the Khedive, and did so in the beginning of the very crisis which has brought about the present conflict. As Tewfik followed this advice, England seems bound to see him through the consequences. Moreover, she presented in May last an ultimatum demanding the retirement of Arabi and his leading associates. Its rejection was followed soon after by the attack on Europeans in Alexandria, in which many English subjects were killed or injured, and the Consul himself beaten. Finally, even had England wished to leave Egypt to itself, she could not have told that this might not have ended in allowing France to become supreme there, a result which would have been displeasing to the English people, and might have exposed the Suez Canal to a new danger. All these considerations appeared to the English Government to oblige them to take an active part in the settlement of the Egyptian difficulty. They set before themselves three objects: the maintenance of the present Khedive, the suppression of Arabi and the other mutinous military leaders, the protection of the Canal against the risks to which anarchy in Egypt would expose it. They had three dangers to avoid: the entering on such a military intervention as would compel them to occupy and hold Egypt, the breaking of their quasi-partnership with France, the giving offence to the other four European Powers and thereby causing the disruption of the European concert. The best way of avoiding these evils seemed to be to invoke the authority of the Sultan as Suzerain of Egypt, and accordingly he was invited, with the reluctant concurrence of France, to restore order, if possible by sending an envoy; if not, then by armed force. When the envoy, Dervish Pasha, failed to effect anything, and the Sultan, declaring that the crisis had terminated, but really fearing to appear the ally of infidels against good Mussulmans, refused to intervene with arms, a Conference was proposed as the best means of overcoming his unwillingness, and at the same time of associating the other Powers of Europe in the conduct and solution of the difficulty. This Conference, as you know, has sat for ten days or so, but as yet with no visible result. Throughout, the effort of the English Government has been to avoid isolated action, and obvious as were the objections to calling in the Turks, whom Mr. Gladstone and his followers have so often denounced, even these objections have been thought less than those applying to an occupation of Egypt by English and French troops. Even when the English fleet was despatched to Alexandria, its purpose was stated to be the protection of the lives and property of British subjects; and although this cannot be so well urged now, when all British subjects have left the country, the

bombardment just opened is announced to be not so much a coercive measure directed against the rebel soldiery as a defensive measure, rendered necessary by the continued erection of fortifications threatening the fleet. Nothing has been stated as to the landing of troops: the final solution of the problem is still being sought at Constantinople through action on the Sultan.

In both these last developments, the action at Alexandria and the negotiations at Constantinople, the often threatened divergence of ideas between England and France has at last declared itself. Of the policy of France I can give you only an English view, which may be as far from appreciating its real character as the French newspapers are from comprehending the grounds of the policy of England. France seems to us to have been governed by three motives. The first is the desire to keep abreast in every way of England, and allow England to gain no advantage which she does not share. (I need hardly add that she credits England with a far stronger disposition towards aggression than we conceive ourselves to be moved by.) The second is a prudent disposition to respect Mohammedan susceptibilities, to awaken no fresh burst of fanaticism, which might spread to Tunis and Algeria and renew the difficulties she has had to encounter there. And the third is an anxiety to avoid all sources of European dissension, especially such as might bring her into a collision with Germany, for which she is not at the moment prepared. Since the month of February (for under the brief rule of M. Gambetta a different and more ambitious line of conduct was pursued) the attitude of France has been very cautious and pacific. She has either criticised or demurred to most of the propositions England has advanced for joint action, has striven to avoid approaches to active intervention, and has been even more reluctant to appeal to the Sultan for aid in untying the knot. Her objection to his interference is doubtless due to the great hostility which the Turks have shown to France ever since the Tunisian expedition, which wounded their religious feelings as well as their claim, however empty, of supremacy over the states of North Africa. The Sultan did his utmost in an underhand way to stir up resistance to the French in Tunis; and any recovery by him of his authority in Egypt would doubtless be felt all along the south coast of the Mediterranean, and add fuel to the flame of Mohammedan irritation. France, therefore, under M. de Freycinet as well as under M. Gambetta, has been with difficulty induced to join in any appeal to the Sultan. Nothing but the apprehension that an English occupation of Egypt might be the alternative seems to have led her to acquiesce. And at the Conference which has invited the Sultan to interpose to restore order, the condition annexed by the French envoy is reported to have been that the Turks should enter the country purely as the mandatories of the six Powers, and not in virtue of the Sultan's paramount authority—a condition to which the latter is not likely to assent.

How far public opinion in France approves the conduct of its Government it is not easy to learn; but apparently no other course is strongly pressed by any section except that which follows M. Gambetta. Then in England the tendencies are much the same as those I endeavored to describe to you three weeks or a month ago. The mass of the nation doesn't understand the question, and knows that it doesn't. It is therefore disposed to believe that Mr. Gladstone, who has never before been accused of an ambitious, aggressive, warlike policy, but rather of being too humble and undecided, must have yielded to nothing less than necessity when he ordered so strong a step as the bombardment of the forts at Alexandria. The idea that the Canal is endangered comes in to reinforce this confidence. Among the Tory leaders, no accusation, except that of not having acted with sufficient energy in the earlier stages of the crisis, has yet been formulated; but when the time for debate comes, weak points will, of course, be discovered. There is, to be sure, a section of the Liberal party which declares we have no business in Egypt at all, and protests against the acts of to-day. But this party is not strong in the country, and in Parliament could probably muster no more than a dozen votes. On the whole, it seems as if the Government was carrying the general feeling of the people along with it; and if the operations of to-day turn out well, the Government may even gain credit for its vigorous action. Y.

THE COMING ELECTIONS FOR THE PRUSSIAN LANDTAG.

BERLIN, July 1, 1882.

SINCE the defeat of the tobacco monopoly, chaos rules in our political circles. Nobody can answer the question, What is to come next? Such an overwhelming overthrow of Bismarck's pet measure was not anticipated even by the most sanguine: it is his Moscow. Think of a House with a Conservative majority, and on the day of the vote numbering 332 members present, of whom only 43 voted with the Government, and you can easily imagine that the result created a deep sensation even among Bismarck's minions. It is true, he has experienced some heavier defeats: not a single man rose for the attempted restriction of freedom of speech in the Reichstag; only two votes were given for the military law which was designed to exempt the richer classes from serving in the Army in certain cases; and the plan of voting the budget once in every two years instead of annually found no support at all. These bills, however, were mere trial-balloons: they came and disappeared the same day; but the tobacco monopoly was prepared for four years with all the Chancellor's energy and obstinacy. Great folios were filled with the examination of witnesses, mountains of opinions were amassed, commissions of experts were called, an exploded French institution (the "Conseil Supérieur") was instituted, and a "Volkswirthschaftsrath" introduced into Prussia to further the monopoly, and two Ministers of Finance were sacrificed to the great idol—Camphausen at the beginning and Bitter at the end. God have mercy on their souls, they will never be resuscitated!

The wounds, however, which have been inflicted on our industry and commerce, as well as on the national prosperity, will not so easily be healed. Four years of strife, full of anxiety and fear, of hope and low spirits, have been in vain. How much unlucky speculation was stirred up, how much healthy activity was intimidated! Three, if not four, times our poor manufacturers and tobacco merchants had to change the basis of their operations. Some purchased large quantities of tobacco in advance; others confined themselves to the lowest limit of supply; one extended his business, as he expected to realize profits from the monopoly, while another, for the opposite reason, did not dare to lay in a large stock of the splendid crop of 1881. Instead of devoting themselves to their legitimate calling, and pushing their regular business, thousands of merchants for the last four years could think of nothing else than how to evade the threatening disaster. The lobby of the Reichstag was beset by parties interested in the tobacco trade. There was no end of letter-writing, meetings, travelling, inquiring, and counselling. Shall we or shall we not accept the monopoly? Shall we side with Bismarck in order to get heavy damages, or shall we offer resistance? Shall we beseech or defy the Government? Every shop, every office, became a conventicle of debating politicians. The Chamber of Commerce of a large city wanted the advice of a prominent Deputy. "What can I tell you?" he answered. "You had better inquire at Rome." But this time the Pope and his satellites held back, and the Centre voted with the Opposition against the monopoly, as Bismarck had not been found pliant and yielding enough in relation to the Falk laws. If a statistical table could be made of all the extravagance and waste of capital, energy, and strength which this unfortunate monopoly has wrought throughout Germany, one would be amazed at the enormous sums unprofitably thrown away. But worse than that, the true economic perception, that only the quiet and undisturbed day's and night's industry and steadiness of devoted and cheerful labor make house and grange flourish, has nearly been extinguished by Bismarck's home policy. Instead of meditating how to improve their factories and shops, or how to perfect their method of buying and selling all the year round, some puzzle their brains how to avail themselves of the favor of the law, and others again how they may best avert its disadvantages. Politics has been withdrawn from poltics, and has penetrated places where it does not belong. And still "Catheder-Socialists" like A. Schäffle and A. Wagner, who some years ago seriously proposed that the large cities should buy all the dwelling and tenement-houses within their limits, in order to accommodate the poor workingmen, are still the Chancellor's trusted advisers, and his teachers in political economy.

How can this sad state of affairs be changed? There is only one alternative. In other really constitutional countries a ministry having suffered such an ignominious defeat would resign, and make room for a successor who agreed with the large majority of the people. Bismarck, of course, is far from indulging in such "sentimental whims." He holds the power and will hold it to the end. The other day he likened himself to Robert Bruce and the spider. In fact, he will not yield, nor will he dissolve the present Reichstag and appeal to the people, because he very well knows that his schemes are detested by the people. He must, therefore, be again defeated, and to that end a Liberal majority be elected for the German Reichstag as well as for the Prussian Landtag. This chance is not only possible, but the more likely as the Chancellor is again on the road to the worst kind of demagogism. In the last year's elections he claimed the proceeds of the tobacco monopoly as the "patrimony of the disinherited," and at the last debate in the Reichstag he gave the shibboleth for the next Landtag's election in the words, "Away with the sheriff" (executor), which was, is, and will be repeated over and over again by the governmental press. This bugbear of the sheriff is to frighten the people into granting new indirect, and to discredit the payment and levy of old direct, taxes. The sheriff, of course, in no country in the world is a popular man, but his office cannot be abolished as long as there are people unwilling or unable to contribute their share toward the expenses of the Government. On the other hand, the large mass of the people are not so stupid or incapable of judgment as the Chancellor supposes; besides, the poorer classes, with a yearly income of less than 480 marks, pay nothing, and thus do not make the personal acquaintance of the sheriff. Per contra, the poorer and middle classes, if they did not know it before, now very well appreciate the fact that indirect taxes laid on the necessaries of life are much more oppressive and fall heavier on them than on the well-to-do.

I will not dwell here on the exaggerated state-

ments of the Chancellor and his organs about the number of seizures and forced sales. For the sake of impressing the popular mind, the amount of several years is summed up, in order to make it appear higher; and the different stages, from the notice and warning down to a real seizure, are taken as so many separate acts, while in fact they constitute only one. The papers are full of instances and proofs opposed to the above partial statements, and thus reduce the latter to their real insignificance. I therefore believe that this manœuvre will not succeed. I very well understand how a Socialist who wishes to make capital for his ideas will act practically by abusing the sheriff or exposing him to public attacks, but I do not understand how a minister in such an authoritative and conspicuous position as the powerful Chancellor can muster the courage officially to denounce the daily-increasing misery of executions, "loudly crying to heaven," and thus to sap the foundations of that same frame of government which he above all others is bound to strengthen and protect. What inference will the uneducated draw from such passionate appeals to ignorance and prejudice? Of course, that it will be best to pay no taxes at all, and if possible to chase away the sheriff. In my opinion, it is sawing off the branch of the tree on which the Government sits to stir up the dislike of the taxpayers to the levy of taxes.

And yet the reform of the taxes is Bismarck's chief object. How he will effect it he has not yet made public. The country wants a well-digested plan, but he only answers with big promises and general phrases, saying that the Government must prove to the working classes by facts that they, too, are entitled to its protection. But which of his favorite measures will immediately be carried out we do not learn, and I believe the Chancellor does not yet know himself. This much, however, is certain, that he wants more money than has hitherto been anticipated, and that at least some 200 or 300 millions of marks per year will for the present be required. Now, no Liberal will vote for any new taxes until those on the necessaries of life have first been abolished; moreover, he wants to know beforehand how the new taxes will be spent. We are in no hurry for a reform, and can wait; all the necessary governmental expenses have been provided for, and of new socialistic experiments there is no need. The other day I found an article in one of the official papers which is too significant not to be mentioned. Mr. Bitter, to whom I have alluded above, had to resign his secretaryship of the Prussian treasury because he did not effectually assist the Chancellor in his tobacco campaign. This gentleman is of a very subordinate stamp, and it is a settled fact that his successor will not excel him. "Our last three ministers of finance," the paper said, "have in managing the finances committed the great mistake of not keeping the higher interests of the Government in view, or, in other words, of considering their office as an end in itself. Instead of subordinating it to the high political and social tasks of the state, they have placed themselves in brusque contradiction to these, and withheld the means necessary to remove existing evils and to solve new problems required by the wants of society." These words, if they have any sense at all, evidently mean that a sound financial policy is not to be based on financial principles, but must serve the interests and views of the almighty Chancellor; they are evidently published with a single eye to the impending elections. In keeping with this opinion, the public is informed that Prince Bismarck will temporarily charge himself with the management of the finances, so that although not residing in Berlin, besides being Chancellor of the Empire, he will be Prussian Minister of Foreign Affairs, as well as of Commerce and of the Treasury. A subservient tool doing the daily routine business will finally be found.

This time it evidently is Mr. Scholz, a young aspiring officer (*Streber*), who has hitherto been Assistant Secretary of State in the Imperial Treasury. It is a pity that the higher dignitaries of state have so far deteriorated that instead of feeling themselves Bismarck's coördinates, they act on command, and strictly follow the many changes which their self-constituted chief is in the habit of undergoing. When he justifies a new and sudden change of opinion by declaring that his foreign policy had prevented him from studying a question raised by himself, sober and earnest men will answer him, and have already done so, that he ought to have left the management of home affairs to other less occupied and more experienced hands. The creatures, however, who have been reared and elevated by him find their chief's excuses quite natural, if not grand, and they adore to-day what they yesterday burned, and burn to-day what they adored yesterday. After having been used for a while they are mercilessly thrown aside like squeezed oranges, and replaced by others who are, if possible, still less stable. When he suffers a well-merited defeat, Bismarck bitterly complains of the small animosities of the political factions, which subordinate patriotism to petty party interests. "No faction," he says, "is strong enough to support the Government," a sentence which translated into the affirmative means that the Government would most cheerfully avail itself of the services of a party if it were strong enough and submitted to Bismarck's discretion. "If the Administration," he continues, "should accept the support of a party, it would become dependent on the politicians, and be bound to make concessions to or reward the leaders, in order to keep them on its side." This reasoning is wrong—at least not justified in our political history; for as long as Bismarck (from 1867 to 1876) had a liberal policy, the Liberals followed him without making any conditions at all, and identified their course of action with his. Thus it happened that the Ministers were taken from the Conservative side, while, with the assistance of the Liberals, old reactionary laws were repealed and new progressive ones passed. Never has a statesman been in such a favorable condition. But those times have passed. The Liberals of all shades are now unanimously of opinion that Bismarck's influence must be broken, and I believe that if it be not broken, it will at least be paralyzed, and that legislation will come to a standstill. The next election to the Prussian Landtag will prove the correctness of my view: the Conservatives, divided among themselves, and jealous of each other, will be badly beaten.

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PONTMARTIN'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, June 22.

IT is always interesting to read conscientious recollections even of an ordinary man. Reality is all we ought to care about; any real life, humble as it may have been, has its lessons, its touching or dramatic episodes. M. Armand de Pontmartin is not much known out of France; he has even in France but a limited reputation. He has always been on the outskirts of literature: he has written feuilletons, dramatic or other, and a few novels, which have not made him popular. But he has lived in interesting times, and has known interesting men. He gives us now his 'Mémoires' at the same moment that M. Maxime Du Camp does. He remarks modestly that in old times the writers of Mémoires were generals, statesmen, leaders of men; but that in the eighteenth century it became the fashion for the literary men—for Marmontel, for Rousseau, and others—to show themselves like actors before the public. After all, these philosophers, these academicians in the midst of the breaking up of an age of long-established institutions, represented a new force, still invisible, but already very powerful. They were becoming more important than negotiators, than diplomats, than ministers, than generals, as they were to furnish new ideas to a new civilization. M. de Pontmartin has no such high pretensions; he has been a spectator lost in a crowd, and merely wishes to say what he has seen.

He was born in the south, in a village which lies between Nîmes and Avignon; he remembers the journey of Madame Duchess of Angoulême in the south of France, and the mission of the "Fathers of the Faith" to Avignon. The Mayor, a peasant, begged him to make an address to Madame. The young man was eighteen years old; Chateaubriand was his idol; his family was loyal. He prepared a short address; but, alas! Madame did not stop. Her carriages passed like a vision, and when the peasants were ready to scream "Vive Madame!" all was gone. It was, he says, his first lesson in political philosophy. The mission of Avignon in 1819 has remained legendary in the south. From all parts of the south the peasants came to hear the sermons of the Fathers: Royalists and Bonapartists were equally fervent. It was what is called in America a revival. Old usurers returned money which they had received for years.

Pontmartin made brilliant studies in Paris; he won the first prize at the *concours général*, and dined, on this occasion, at the table of the Minister of Public Instruction, M. de Vatisménil, with Alfred de Musset, who had taken the second prize in philosophy. What a philosopher! The young poet, then seventeen years old, wrote a ponderous essay in Latin: "Quibus libet vitæ in temporibus, quibuscumque incumbat disciplinis homo," etc. There were six pages like that. We naturally must choose in the memoirs of Pontmartin what concerns the bigger stars of the Romantic sky:

> "One forms generally," he observes, "a wrong idea of the literary situation of M. Victor Hugo during the last two years of the Restoration. At a distance it is natural to see everything in masses, and now, at this distance of more than a half-century, one can easily believe that the poet of the 'Orientales,' who was soon to be the author of 'Hernani,' had on his side all the studios, all the partisans of progress, all the students, all the lettered and liberal youth, and had against him all the old, the traditional men, the remnants of the literature of the Empire, those who were called the Classics, the *perruques*, the *momies*. It was not so. The public of M. Victor Hugo was already very enthusiastic, but was very restricted. It was a staff; it was not an army. Out of ten of my comrades, there were at least eight who persisted in preferring to him Casimir Delavigne; and, as for placing him on the same line with Lamartine, such an idea did not occur to anybody."

Pontmartin was one of the "staff" of Victor Hugo. He was angry when one of his fellow-students, meeting him in the garden of the Luxembourg or under the galleries of the Odéon, affected to cite some verse of the 'Orientales' with an ironical sneer—

> "Tantôt d'une eau dormante il lève son corps *bleu*";

or,

> "Un homme alors passait, couvert d'un caftan *vert*";

or,

> "Elle aimait trop le bal, c'est ce qui l'a tuée."

We have forgotten now the sensation produced by this sort of versification; the poet has completely thrown it into the shade. Pontmartin was already on the side of the poet; he was a strong royalist, and Hugo also was then a royalist. The monarchical papers defended him; he

was constantly attacked and ridiculed by the Liberals of the *Journal des Débats*, of the *Constitutionnel*, and of the *National*. The Romantics were enthusiastic for the Middle Ages, for Christian art, for Gothic cathedrals; they professed to despise Greek temples, the neo-paganism of the eighteenth century, and the philosophical movement. The Classics laughed heartily when Hugo wrote such verses as these in his "Pluie d'Été":

"Le petit ruisseau de la plaine,
Pour une heure enflé, roule et traîne
Brins d'herbe, lézards endormis;
Court, et précipitant son onde
Du haut d'un caillou qu'il inonde,
Fait des Niagaras aux fourmis!"

Even Pontmartin seems to have found it difficult to defend these small Niagaras.

The literary discussions often took place in the reading-rooms (*cabinets de lecture*) of Madame Cardinal. I knew the last of these reading-rooms, which disappeared one by one. They were a feature of old Paris. There was always a lady who gave out the books and papers, and was on familiar and friendly terms with her clients—young men who could not afford to buy the books they wished to read, old pensioned officers and employees. The Célimène of the circulating library was amiable to all; she had political as well as literary opinions; from her throne she passed judgment on men and things. Her name was often Malvina. Her life was a mystery; what became of her when the last lamp with the green shade was extinguished nobody knew. The Malvina of the time of 1829 and 1830 knew Victor Hugo, and Sainte-Beuve, and Alfred de Musset, Charles Nodier, Émile and Antony Deschamps, Devéria the painter, Bocage, Ligier, Beauvallet, Lockroy, actors of the Odéon; Laboulaye (then completely unknown); Nisard, Camille Doucet, now members of the French Academy.

On the 25th of February, 1830, Paul Huet, who made a reputation as a landscape painter, came to Pontmartin and asked him, "'Will you go to the first representation of "Hernani"?' 'Will I go?' said I; 'ask the youth thirsting for love if he wishes *Juliet* to throw him the silken ladder; ask the hungry poet if he wishes Chevet to offer him *gratis* a dinner in three courses; ask the *figurant* of the Ambigu if he wishes to make his début at the French Theatre.' 'Well, I will have a ticket for you; but I tell you that it will be hard.' 'Hard verses? Then it will not be Hugo?' 'Yes, Hugo, and of the best.'" It was necessary to enter the theatre at two o'clock in the afternoon, and to wait for the representation without a dinner. Youth is a good thing, and enthusiasm well fills the place of a dinner. The tickets were distributed at Victor Hugo's house. He signed on each the name "Hierro," which also appears on the original edition of "Hernani." Pontmartin tells us that there were about four hundred young men who received such tickets; among them were the painter Louis Boulanger, Émile Deschamps the poet, Charles Nodier, Devéria, Montalivet. The next day, a long queue was formed early before the theatre. Théophile Gautier was conspicuous in it by his long, flowing hair and his red waistcoat. For six hours the Romantics waited at a little door opening on the Rue Montpensier. Pontmartin tells us that the enthusiasm of all these young men had an interested object: they all wished to influence Hugo by their devotion, and to take him over to the Liberal cause.

He gives a very graphic account of the famous representation of "Hernani." In the pit were all the Romantics; in the boxes were the Classics: it seemed to be the battle of two worlds, of two different ideals. Pontmartin says very candidly that the first representation of "Hernani" created more stupor than admiration, even among the Romantics. Some of the latter were completely upset by certain faults of taste, ponderous pleasantries, puns like

"Le jeune amant sans barbe à la barbe du vieux."

A young Romantic was heard to exclaim: "Ma foi, j'aime mieux Racine!" The fifth act, fortunately, the finest dramatic work of Hugo, carried the public away. Mlle. Mars, though she was a Classic, somewhat hostile to the new poet, was conscientious, and she surpassed herself in the famous scene of the death of *Doña Sol*. The next day, the press attacked Hugo with the greatest severity. Every representation became a battle. Mlle. Mars became tired of these terrible scenes, and finally "Hernani" disappeared from the stage, and was not played again till a long time afterward.

Alexandre Dumas (the father) was only twenty-seven years old at this time. Pontmartin was invited to hear him read a drama, with Decamps, Tony Johannot, Paul Huet, Alfred de Vigny, and a few others. This singular man, with his mulatto complexion, his sensual face, prided himself in his old age on having written 1,200 volumes, which could all be read by a workingman of the Faubourg St. Antoine and by the girls of the Faubourg St. Germain. He was a great child, a marvellous story-teller. Dumas began life as a clerk in the bureaux of the Palais Royal. He owed much to Louis Philippe, and he was afterward patronized by his sons. In his memoirs he speaks as if he all alone had made the Revolution of 1830. To be sure, he afterward made the Revolution of 1848. He made the conquest of Sicily with Garibaldi—or thought that he did; at any rate, he took possession of one of the royal palaces of the King of the Two Sicilies, and the Italians found it difficult to turn him out.

Pontmartin gives interesting details of Ozanam, the Christian philosopher, whom he chose, in a great crisis, as his religious and intellectual director. Ozanam is nearly forgotten; he has had his day. He was a philanthropist, hoping to reconcile the poor and the rich, to bring all men together in a Christian spirit. He had the heart of a priest, the eloquence of an apostle. He was fully aware of the terrible dangers of the social question. Pontmartin becomes very eloquent when he speaks of the influence of Chateaubriand on the youth of the Restoration. He maintains that Chateaubriand did more than anybody else to mould the minds of the generations who came forward at the end of the French Empire and before Louis Philippe—more than Lamartine, more than Musset did after him. He reconciled religion and royalism with liberalism; he opened new horizons in every field of thought; he was the personification of all that was noble in old France, of all that was coming to light in the new France.

M. de Pontmartin has only given in this first volume the recollections of his childhood and of his youth. His style is lively, his sincerity is evident. We hope that he will continue the publication of these memoirs. There is much space still before him—the whole reign of Louis Philippe, the Revolution of 1848, the Second Empire, and the Republic of to-day.

GARIBALDI AND MAZZINI.

GENOA, June 29, 1882.

GARIBALDI is left literally alone in his glory, there in the weird, wild, desolate Caprera, which he loved with an intensity inexplicable to all save those who had caught the half-poetic, half-savage side of his singular character. I remember when, in 1855, with some other English friends, we accompanied him on a shooting tour over the island of Sardinia, what wistful eyes he cast from the shores of the Maddalena to what appeared a mere barren rock in the ocean; how he detested the ovations of the Sardinians, in whom, however, he instilled his then newly-born faith in the King of Sardinia as the future champion of Italy. During the month we spent at Sassari, Macomer, and Cagliari, he lived literally gun in hand, flaying his meat on the fires kindled of myrtle and cistus, rising at dawn, going "to roost with the chickens," as his hosts remarked; polite to all, but interested in nothing save the slaughter of wild boars, foxes, hares, partridges—whatever came to gun. He and his faithful Basso were the best sportsmen known, never missing a bird in the air or a fish rising from the sea. "If ever I can put together 1,000 francs," he said, as we returned, "Caprera shall be mine, and I shall invite you, who have not many wants, to come and rough it with me." Next year we received a letter announcing the death of his brother Felix, who had left him 25,000 francs.

On the Island of Caprera at that time the Englishman Collins possessed a small portion; the remainder was state property, and Garibaldi bought it in, lot by lot, coming over to England to purchase a cutter for the transport of building material from Genoa to the desolate island. Menotti, Basso, and a couple of humble comrades, living with him under a tent, first built the rough log house, then the modest white house, where, even as late as 1867, when I went over to arrange his flight after the Government had imprisoned him in Alessandria and blockaded the island, the same preadamitic simplicity prevailed. Later some English friends presented him with the yet unpurchased portions of the island, and, under the régime of his second peasant wife, comforts and even luxury were gradually introduced. But Garibaldi never changed his habits or his predilections, and so intense was his desire that his ashes should remain at Caprera, that he had ordered his wife to burn his remains before announcing his death even to the other members of the family. This, and this only, is true, as I wrote in my last letter; nor until I could see the various members of the family would I give heed to any of the different versions of the reasons for disobedience. Last week Dr. Prandina, and yesterday the family, left Caprera, and from their various testimony results the fact that Garibaldi's last behest has not been wilfully disobeyed, and that "Quod differtur non aufertur." Garibaldi willed to be burnt in true pagan-Indian Shelley fashion, not cremated in modern "civilized" style. Dr. Prandina, to whom he entrusted the execution of this his express desire, is one of the most enthusiastic champions of cremation, and is a member of the Milanese society which, for the payment of a certain sum during life, engages to cremate any one who shall so ordain in his will. In the grand monumental cemetery at Milan there are two crematories, one erected by Keller, on the Gorini system, and presented to the municipality of Milan on the express condition that his body should be the first cremated, and the "Poma" crematory, a much more complicated affair. In the former, where, on the average, two corpses are cremated per week, the body is immersed in a solution heated to a high temperature, the chemical composition of which is known only to a few, passed into the furnace, where it remains two hours, and where, by the arrangement of a quantity of earthenware balls to which the soot clings, all offensive odor is destroyed. At the expiration of the second hour the body is removed to a sort of annealing-room, where the bones in another hour crumble to the finest dust, and, placed in an urn, can be removed by the friends of the deceased or deposited in a sort of *cenerario* built for the purpose. As only wood is used in the burning, the

process is inexpensive: the payment of 32 francs insures the right of cremation in the Keller crematory, Gorini system, at Milan. Well, all this Dr. Prandina explained to Garibaldi when the latter first broached his intentions. Garibaldi listened attentively, says Dr. Prandina, one of our old volunteer surgeons, whose word can be implicitly relied on, and then said: "No! I won't be baked in an oven like a fowl. When I am dead, do you lay me on that little iron bed, and the bed on the pyre *which I shall have prepared;* dress me in my red shirt, leave my face uncovered, and turn my face to the east." Prandina objected that the tremendous wind-blasts of Caprera would disperse the ashes in great part. "No matter: you can secure a handful to put in an urn between the tombs of Rosa and Anita." "But," still urged Prandina, "they will not even be all *your* ashes, but be mixed with the wood of the pyre." "*Tanto meglio*," quoth the General; "the pyre will be made of the trees and bushes that I love—I planted them all myself."

In January, 1882, when Garibaldi was at Naples, Prandina, who had ever felt most uncomfortable at the idea of the responsibility, went again to him and said: "General, should we be so unfortunate as to lose you on the Continent, am I then to cremate you at Milan?" "Certainly *not;* you will hire a hack and take me back to Caprera, and there do with my remains exactly as I told you!" Just a month after the General's return home he died. I mistook the date of the departure of his own doctors, which took place at the commencement, and not at the end of May. He had taken next to no food for twelve days, but the only doctor there, an inexperienced youth, said there was no danger. But Garibaldi knew that he was dying, and on the very eve of his death insisted on having a bath. His last visit had been to the crematory, where he had seen the wood stacked on the old millstones. But when actually dead, and the widow, with only Menotti, just arrived, was there, it was natural they should await the rest of the family, who, summoned, arrived too late. And meanwhile the fatal news had spread also—the instructions for the burning of the body, which Prandina, on starting for Caprera, had left with the Prefect of Genoa to be transmitted to the Government.

Within the first three days 12,000 telegrams reached the family, the majority imploring Menotti to have the body embalmed; and meanwhile it was clearly proved that the wood stacked, and all the aromatic and resinous wood existing in Caprera, would not suffice, in twenty-four hours in the open air, to consume the precious relics. Then, very naturally, a sudden horror seized on all. Even those who had gone, full of poetic reverence for the idea, including Alberto Mario, who nurtured the hope that the heart, like Shelley's, might be preserved for Rome, protested that they would leave the island immediately rather than see the corpse desecrated. The Prefect of Sassari declared formally that open-air burning was illegal. The Government sent doctors and surgeons, with materials for building a crematory, and Dr. Pini of Milan accompanied them. But he does not possess the secret of the chemical solution. Moreover, the General's objection to being baked like a fowl was brought forward. Hence the body was embalmed, placed in three coffins of zinc, chestnut, and walnut, and the official ceremony (present, Prince Thomas of Genoa, representative of King Humbert and brother to Queen Margaret) over, it was decided to bury the coffin between the two children, Rosa and Anita. A granite rock protruding, this was found impossible, so a grave was built hastily of brick, and the body deposited there. When the representatives of King, Senate, Chambers, municipalities, and every association in Italy, besides thousands of individuals who thronged there on their own account—all weather-bound for twenty-four hours—had finally quitted Caprera, the family, fearing the damp, had the body removed, and the sepulchre lined with hydraulic cement. Then the body was replaced, and five successive granite slabs brought to cover the tomb. All broke on being placed thereon. Finally, all the male members of the family, aided by some robust fishermen from the Maddalena and the sailors of the *Cariddi* (Government frigate), rolled down a massive block of granite weighing four tons, on which the single word "Garibaldi" was roughly hewn.

So the sepulchre is sealed and guarded by twenty-five soldiers of the line, and, more jealously still, by the inhabitants of the Maddalena, who, with the half-savage population of Sardinia, are resolved that the General shall be obeyed at least in this, that the remains shall not be removed from Caprera. The family, meanwhile, saddened and bewildered by conflicting duties, have left the final decision to the National Assembly; and, despite the first strong current in favor of obedience, in letter and in spirit, to Garibaldi's last behest, it is more than probable that they will decree that he be burnt at Caprera, and the ashes transported to the Janiculum. Political reasons for this decision may bias many: the idea of Garibaldi, from the heights of the Janiculum, whence, in 1849, he defied and defeated the foreign champions of the Pope, still from his urn menacing the Vatican and the Quirinal, is naturally an attractive one to the ever-increasing Republican party. But there are two material reasons which have weight with all who loved and revered the General without regard to party or to creed. In the first place, a very justifiable fear of body-snatchers prevails. At present the body is, and the ashes would be, strictly guarded; but time dims enthusiasm and dulls vigilance, and a band of adventurous scoundrels might at least attempt a seizure. Secondly, after the letter to Prandina, Garibaldi, yielding to the entreaties of his peasant wife (wife not yet at that time), provided that her ashes should be mingled with his own. Naturally, the first family, whose mother, the brave, unfortunate Anita, lies alone in the cemetery of Nice, on foreign soil, would object to this; nor would the nation in general care to make a pilgrimage to the shrine of La Francesca. So, for one reason and another, and all piled together, much time will not elapse before we shall see a monument covering the remains or ashes of Garibaldi on the tallest heights within the walls of Rome.

Assuredly, never in any time or country has the death of one man excited such universal, spontaneous, passionate grief. Truly, he had "the genius to be worshipped" in his life, and now all strive in their own fashion to prolong that worship to the inanimate clay. Another, who had only the genius to be loved, and who till now has never had the justice to be honored in his grave, divided with Garibaldi the public feeling and attention of this sad month of June. But for the catastrophe of the 2d, the inauguration of the monument to Mazzini in his native Genoa on the 22d of June, the anniversary of his birthday, would have brought together all the rank and file of the Italian democracy. As it was, the ceremony was most impressive—pathetic, even solemn. All signs of festivity or of rejoicing were suppressed—no illuminations, no fireworks, no banquets, no pleasure-trips; but 500 banners, representing the thought and action of Italy, veiled in black, surrounded the base, and thousands of Italians gazed, many with tearful eyes, on the marble image of the great Genoese, whom Swinburne so aptly coupled with Columbus in his "Song of Italy":

> "One found a new world 'mid the virgin sea,
> And one found Italy."

I send you the original poem written by Swinburne for the occasion.

The monument unveiled, all the workingmen's associations met for serious discussion of their interests and political programme; then, on the morrow, all marched up to the cemetery of Staglieno, which rises on the lowest spur of the Apennines, and where Mazzini (alas! embalmed) looks out on his mother's tomb beneath the cypresses. Each veiled flag bent in salutation; then the huge procession dispersed, and the silence remained unbroken. The city is still tapestried with texts from his works, and one may truly say: "He being dead yet speaketh."

Correspondence.

HEREDITY OF JOSEPH STICKNEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of July 13 you confound Charles W. Stickney, the Harvard graduate, who committed a homicide in Colorado, and who was acquitted on the ground of insanity, with Joseph Stickney, ex-vice-president of a New York coal company, ex-superintendent of a Wilkesbarre., Pa., coal-mine, and wholesale dealer in coal at No. 7 Cortlandt Street, New York City, of whose 254 immediate ascendants I found 174, and wrote short biographies in the July number of the *Granite Monthly* of Concord, where he is one of the largest real-estate owners.

As none of Joseph's ascendants are known to have been insane, or to have died of consumption, or to have been divorced, and only two to have drunk to excess, you say that, "on the Guiteau theory of defence, his case [meaning that of Charles W.] is one which clearly calls for hanging." It is also true of Joseph's ascendants that there were only six marriages of cousins—one each of first, second, third, and tenth cousins, and two of fifth cousins. Among the thirty-two couples that constitute the sixth generation were representatives from over eighteen different counties in England, besides those from Scotland and Ireland, showing few marriages of identity or proximity of birthplaces. In New England there were many such marriages, as they lived in four counties—Essex, Mass., and Rockingham, Hillsboro, and Merrimack, N. H.

Undoubtedly the ascendants of Joseph Stickney differed greatly in these respects from those of Charles W. Stickney and Charles J. Guiteau. Among the ascendants of Charles W. were families by the names of Kehew, Dow, Jackman, Pidgeon, Burrill, Poor, and Morse—respectable names, probably, but such as do not prejudice us so much in favor of their owners as those of Gilman, Starbuck, Shapleigh, Coffin, Ward, Dudley, Woodbridge, Parker, Goldstone, Bright, Audley, Peabody, Dane, Osgood, Jewett, Denton, Carleton, Peaslee, and Andrew—the names of Joseph's ancestors.

Dr. George M. Beard, a student of heredity, who patriotically and heroically tried to save the country from the disgrace of hanging an insane man, will yet show, I trust, that the ascendants of the insane and criminals differ so radically from those of morally, mentally, and physically healthy men that black and white men can be no more easily distinguished from each other than they.

Among the offences of Joseph's ascendants whose "heinousness cannot be accurately judged," are the cases of Mrs. Mary (Clements) Osgood and Mrs. Deliverance (Hazeltine) Dane, of

Andover, who, in 1692, were supposed for a brief time to be witches. Surely there is something in heredity, for in 1882 their descendant, Joseph Stickney, of New York City, for a brief time was supposed to be a murderer.

WALTER GIBSON.

CONCORD, N. H.

[We must apologize to the rightful bearer of the name for the lapse of memory on our part.—ED. NATION.]

THE REGULARS AND THE NEW SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since you have been reproached by so many of your constant readers for the article on 'Doctor and Patient" in your penultimate number, it may be balm to your wounds, even at this late day, to be assured that there are other readers, equally constant, who rejoice that you have touched upon subjects the fair discussion of which is persistently excluded from "regular" medical journals. An opportunity is now afforded, I trust, to discuss the questions of dogma and science, to which the whole quarrel between regularity and irregularity may be reduced, and I only regret that any delay should have occurred in offering such explanations as much in the spirit and letter of your "regular" correspondents demands.

Without attempting to answer any of their propositions directly, allow me to state the position of the homœopaths in as few words as the subject will permit.

They are said to be quacks for adhering more or less strictly to a therapeutic principle or law. If their adhesion is strict, they are called fools; if lax, "knaves," with all its variations, is the word; and under all circumstances, whether the cases may be those in which the question of administering drugs is uppermost or not, their patients are denied the comfort of a consultation with members of the dominant school, who declare that no general law expressing the relation of drugs to morbid conditions can exist.

Even if the homœopaths held that any one theory could explain the action of all remedies in all diseases, and that their principle were such a theory, they would not, in view of the extreme uncertainty of all matters pertaining to therapeutics, deserve all the opprobrium their enemies seek to cast upon them, absurd as such a proposition would be. But the fact is, that the great majority do now, as they have done from the beginning, refuse to admit that their law partakes in any sense of the nature of a theory, dogma, or article of belief. They claim for it no other attributes than belong to any physiological principle which formulates the recurrence of certain phenomena under certain conditions.

A very large proportion, if not the majority, of "laws" governing, as we say, the course of vital phenomena, are principles of this kind, as I need hardly remind you, and they vary in the certainty of their operation according to the degree of exactness with which the conditions necessary for their manifestation can be supplied. Unless due allowance is made, however, for habits of speech, it is wrong to say of them that they "govern" phenomena, or are operative in producing effects, as they are, I repeat, no more than observed uniformities or formulæ expressing the more or less regular occurrence of events under given conditions. The equality in the number of male and female births, taking the year together; the increase in the number of suicides at certain seasons; the fact that substances containing nitrogen in very high proportion are powerful poisons, are laws of this kind, as are many of the laws of heredity, the law of chemical affinity, and innumerable others, which will readily suggest themselves to the professional as well as the unprofessional mind. They are not theories or dogmas; neither are they laws of nature in the sense of infallible, immutable, universal, or ultimate laws; nor do they possess the certainty of the majority of laws governing, as we may say here more correctly, the phenomena of the physical world. They are properly classed under the head of empirical laws, inasmuch as they are reached by experience alone and afford in themselves no explanation of the phenomena in which they are exhibited; and sooner or later they may all be resolved into other laws of a simpler nature. Until they are so resolved, however, they remain laws in their own right, as I may say, and may serve as useful rules of art or practice. It is to this class of laws that the formula *similia similibus curantur*—or *curentur*, as Hahnemann more correctly framed it at first—belongs; and the long and repeated discussion of the subject in the homœopathic literature, periodical and other, makes it absolutely unwarrantable on the part of the code-framers of the "regular" school to call it an exclusive dogma, to assert that it is a theory held to explain the *modus operandi* of drugs, or that it has anything mandatory in its nature, like an ordinance, divine or human, to which men must adhere under penalty of expulsion from Paradise or societies chartered by the state.

To have mentioned the matter of empirical laws is to have come directly upon the question of science, the most fundamental of all the questions at issue between the two schools. If it were possible to reach an understanding on this point, the public, and the profession too, would be "immensely advantaged," and all the questions of secondary importance which continue to complicate and confuse the discussion would then fall away of their own accord. The old school continues to follow, in the main, as it has done for two thousand years, the rational or dogmatic method of determining the indications for the use of all its remedies, including drugs—a method which results, of necessity, in a practice essentially allœopathic; a term, by the way, suggested by Hahnemann, and accepted freely and advisedly by the entire profession up to within the last eight or ten years. It is the application of common sense, trained and untrained, logical and illogical, and always biased measurably by tradition, dogmatism, and the imperfections attending all medical education, to every new discovery in the sciences auxiliary to medicine proper, and to every new theory which can be put forward with sufficient plausibility or authoritativeness. In other words, it is common sense turned loose, without guide or compass, among the most difficult of all human problems, and under circumstances the most unfavorable for its clear and judicial exercise, since it is called upon to reach conclusions in the presence of suffering and danger, as well as the consideration for daily bread. In all cases in which the cause of disease or injury is recognizable and readily removable, this method yields the most brilliant results—a fact as cheerfully recognized by the homœopaths as by their opponents. But in the great majority of all the disturbances the general practitioner is daily called upon to treat, in which the cause is remote or matter of mere conjecture, and not to be reached by direct means, common sense, and even the most thoroughly disciplined judgment and reason, are too liable to be wholly at fault, as the history of medicine even in our own day amply shows.

The new school, on the other hand, follows the empirical method in seeking to establish clear and practicable indications for the use of drugs, for which substances it claims a curative power which may or may not be independent of its physiological action. It takes such correlated facts as accident or experiment has brought to light, and by induction infers from them a law or principle which it then converts into a rule of practice. Such facts are the countless instances of similarity between the physiological effects of drugs and the phenomena of such morbid processes as are removable by them. To collect and sift these facts, to find as nearly as possible the conditions under which they occur, and to reproduce them by experiment, is the scientific task of the new school, while its art consists in applying the knowledge thus gained in practice. In the exercise of the healing art, therefore, it is, to quote a line of Pope's, "led by a rule that guides, but not constrains"—a point never to be lost sight of; for where other more direct and speedy measures are plainly indicated, or where no curative reaction can be looked for, its application ceases.

Since this principle deals with facts for the most part unexplained and unexplainable, and since the conditions under which it must be applied are ascertainable only in a limited measure, the liability to error and failure in its use is necessarily great; and we recognize, moreover, the difficulty of determining whether a recovery has taken place as the result of the medicine administered, or independently of it. But with all its limitations and imperfections, and with all the folly, confusion, and misconstruction surrounding it on all sides, it is a step in the direction of reform in therapeutics which it is impossible to value too highly, or to abandon at the dictation of any code of ethics. It represents the first conscious and systematic effort in the history of medicine to apply the inductive methods to pharmako-dynamics, or drug-action—by no means the most insignificant part of therapeutics; and the more faithfully these methods are followed in the production of new facts and the elimination of error, the more speedily will an independent science of therapeutics be established, and the more certain will be the healing art. In dealing with this subject, it is always to be remembered that the "science" of an inexact or conjectural science like medicine lies much less in its theories, or even in its results, than in its methods, and that all sciences, to be worthy of the name, must be inductive at first.

Much of what you say in your article on "Guiteau and the Experts" in the same number of the *Nation* which brings the expressions of grief and reproach from your "regular" correspondents, bears directly on the subject of the claims of those who hold themselves to be the custodians of science. I beg to recommend it to your correspondents for their calm and dispassionate re-perusal.

Obediently yours, W. W.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., July 9, 1882.

Notes.

THE ninth of the "Q. P. Indexes" is the first to bear the name of the industrious and disinterested compiler, Mr. William M. Griswold, A.B. (Harvard), now assistant librarian in the Library of Congress. It is a 'General-, Autor-, und Sachregister zu Zeitschriften meist historischen Inhalts,' or subject and author index particularly to the *Historische Zeitschrift*, *Unsere Zeit*, and the *Historisches Taschenbuch*. The last, according to a table on the back of the title-page, dates from 1830; the other journals from 1859 and 1857 respectively. Mr. Griswold, still possessed by the reformatory spirit, introduces the American Library Association's conventional initials for Christian names (as R;=Richard,

R.=Rebecca), and dispenses with the capital initial for substantives. For the rest, the Index resembles in all respects its English predecessors in the same series. It may be had, like them, at Bangor, Maine, or abroad of K. F. Köhler, Leipzig.

We have received a little brochure of eight pages, constituting a 'Bibliography of the Bacon-Shakespeare Literature,' compiled by W. H. Wyman. Its sixty-three titles are all, save two, in Mr. Wyman's library. No. 62 is a partial bibliography contributed by the same hand to the Madison (Wis.) *State Journal* of April 24, 1882. No. 1 is rather a forerunner than a part of the controversy, being "the first known article questioning the right of Shakspere to the authorship of the Shaksperian dramas" ('The Romance of Yachting,' New York, 1848).

An essay on the απαξ λεγόμενα in Shakspere was lately read before the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Letters, by Prof. James D. Butler. By his actual count, in Schmidt's 'Lexicon,' he found that 364 words beginning with A occurred only once, and 310 beginning with M, or nearly one-fifth of our entire stock of M's. He accordingly estimates the whole number at 5,000 and upwards. A small proportion are compounds. In nine nearly consecutive lines relating to Queen Mab ("Romeo and Juliet," I., iv.) there are nine of these once-used words, including *grasshoppers*, *film*, and *benefice*. Even *variety*, in "Nor custom stale his infinite variety," occurs nowhere else in Shakspere's plays.

Mr. W. S. Kennedy prints, in the *Literary World* for July 15, "An Emerson Concordance: Being a Partial Index to Familiar Passages in his Poems." So much trouble calls for more—a complete Emerson vocabulary, for prose and poetry, worthy of so great a master of the English tongue.

Still another series of novels is promised—"The Kaaterskill Series," of which G. W. Harlan & Co. are to be the publishers. 'A Fair Philosopher' and 'A Modern Hagar' are the first announced, "from the pens of two leading novelists." The volumes will be cloth-bound, and have a uniform price of one dollar.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have issued, in a pretty form, with limp covers, a collection of poems on horseback-riding, called 'In the Saddle.' Almost everything is here, from Shakspere's description of a horse, in his "Venus and Adonis," to Joaquin Miller's "Kit Carson's Ride," not omitting translations from Körner, Bürger, and Rückert. "Balder" is the only significant, as well as beautiful, poem which we happen to miss, and his ride was by no means a dash like Paul Revere's, or John Gilpin's, or that which "brought the good news from Ghent to Aix": "Nine days rode he deep and deeper down."

The Executive Committee of Iowa College, whose buildings were so sadly wrecked by the cyclone which lately fell upon Grinnell, utter an appeal for aid. This institution has been particularly unfortunate since its incorporation in 1847. It had not fully recovered from the disastrous fire of 1871. The direct loss by the storm was not less than $75,000.

The Washington and Lee University, Virginia, conferred, at its Commencement in June, the degree of Ph.D. on the basis, for the first time, of definite study and the passing of an examination. The post-graduate course required covered two years; the subject was the English language.

Mr. Salomon Wiener's reflections upon law compose what he calls his "Monthly Mirror of Justice"; the first instalment, on capital punishment, etc., bearing date of June, 1882 (New York).

The first number of the weekly *Dominion Review* is before us—one more effort to establish a national critical journal (Montreal: Wm. Drysdale & Co.). We can at least say of it that it is a serious and respectable enterprise. As regards the National Policy, it is decidedly for free trade. It has at present but two departments—political and literary. From its Table-Talk we make the following extract: "It is not generally known that Mr. Grant Allen, whose writings have attracted so much merited commendation of late, is a Canadian." Nor, we will add, could this fact be ascertained from the latest edition of 'Men of the Time,' from which Mr. Allen's name is wanting.

News to us, also, it is that the Agassiz Association, of which the central chapter is at Lenox, Mass., has now upward of 275 chapters, and a membership exceeding 3,000. It was originally started as a children's society, and its organ is still the *St. Nicholas* magazine; but "parents and teachers have taken as great interest in it as the younger ones." How to organize a chapter is told in the 'Hand-Book of the St. Nicholas Agassiz Association,' just published by Mr. Harlan H. Ballard, Principal of the Lenox Academy. It contains, besides, instructions for collecting, preserving specimens, etc.

The American Forestry Congress, presided over by Commissioner Loring, of the United States Department of Agriculture, will hold its first session at Montreal on August 21, 22, or two days before the assembling of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in the same city.

The latest forestry bulletins of the Census Bureau (Nos. 15, 16) show the pine and spruce supply of Maine, and the chiefly black spruce supply of New Hampshire and Vermont. In Maine the virgin forest is now reduced to a petty area about the head waters of the St. John River, while the hemlock is confined to the eastern quarter of the State. The devastation of the white pine is the marked feature of the other map.

The *Antiquary* for July (London: Elliot Stock; New York: J. W. Bouton) has a short obituary notice of the late Col. Joseph Lemuel Chester, regretful and laudatory, like those in other English journals. It makes, however, the mistake of saying that Colonel Chester, "upwards of twenty years ago, sat as a member of Congress." No person of that name, we believe, ever did so.

The *Athenæum* is about to print a series of hitherto unpublished Byron papers, including an extensive correspondence, which "will be found to demonstrate the baselessness of the various statements made by Lady Byron in her later years to her sister in-law's discredit."

B. Westermann & Co. send us the first number of *Gallia*, a monthly periodical, edited by Dr. Adolf Kressner, at Cassel. Its aim is, neglecting all Romance idioms but old and new French, to pass in review all departments of current French literature. The form is octavo, pp. 36; the type Roman and large-face. The contents of periodicals, learned and literary, are noted and commented on, and there is a list of new publications.

—The English Executive Committee of the Darwin Memorial (the form of which has not yet been decided, but will probably include an endowment for a scholarship to carry on biological research) have invited the aid of an American committee. The following eminent scholars and scientists have consented to serve in that capacity: Asa Gray, Chairman; Spencer F. Baird, James D. Dana, Charles W. Eliot, D. C. Gilman, James Hall, Joseph Le Conte, Joseph Leidy, O. C. Marsh, S. Weir Mitchell, Simon Newcomb, Charles Eliot Norton, Francis A. Walker, Theodore D. Woolsey, and Alexander Agassiz, Treasurer. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Agassiz at Cambridge, Mass., and will be duly acknowledged and forwarded. We cannot doubt that a large number of Americans will be found eager to take part in the world's tribute to the greatest discoverer of the age.

—The "Midsummer Holiday Number" of the *Century* is unquestionably the best of the magazines for August. It contains another instalment of Mrs. Burnett's "Through One Administration," a novel which promises to be fascinating to the heart of woman, for whom, after all, are not most women's novels written? As a picture of society we may have something to say of this tale when it appears in its completed form, but it is not as a picture of society that any young lady interested in that wonderful mystery which the relations of the sexes presents to her mind, is reading it now. The central figure is a woman who has married the wrong man, and is in love with the right one, and miserable because she is in love with him. He is a good man, but not good enough to go away and stay away; and hence complications of the most terrible and soul-wrenching character are threatened. There is another man who is also in love with, or at any rate deeply interested in, Bertha, and who seems to have a good deal of influence over her, and who begins in the current number of the story to be almost as *de trop* as the husband. He of course knows nothing of the tragedy which is taking place in his wife's heart, and is evidently going to come to grief of some kind before long. Then there is the father of Bertha, who watches his daughter's career with a kindly paternal affection, but seems hardly competent to do more than watch. Altogether it is a story to interest greatly any alert foreign observer of American manners, like M. d'Haussonville, for instance, very much, though what he would make out of it is another thing. There are several illustrated articles—the "Borderlands of Surrey," by Alice Maud Fenn; the "American Museum of Natural History," by J. B. Holder; "An Aboriginal Pilgrimage," by Sylvester Baxter; "Some English Artists and their Studios," by Cosmo Monkhouse; and "Steam Yachting in America," by S. G. W. Benjamin, being the most important. Mr. Robert Grant, the author of "The Confessions of a Frivolous Girl," contributes a burlesque called "The Lambs, a Tragedy," which tells the sad story of the shearing of Phipps, a Wall Street lamb, through the alternate fall and rise of the stocks which he buys and sells as "flyers." The plot is hardly varied or novel enough to be amusing, but some of the verses show a good deal of burlesque imitative power. The Chorus of Bulls, descriptive of the two great economic laws which govern Wall Street, chants with a real classic feeling:

> "There is a law, as grim and grave as death,
> Which now we know, but then we did not know,
> That whosoever buys, though boasted cheap
> As dirt from ditches, the accursed thing
> For which he hath not in his private purse
> The power to pay, shall surely come to grief.
> And he who sells, although the market soar
> High as the kite which kisses the chaste sky,
> The baleful property he does not own,
> With hopes to cover his defenceless "shorts,"
> Before the advent of the settling day,
> Shall surely lick the dust; and this is fate."

—John R. G. Hassard contributes an interesting article on "How Wagner Makes Operas" (the frontispiece of the magazine is a portrait of the composer), which gives as good an account of his theories of musical and dramatic composition and of the true relation between the arts as we have seen anywhere. It is the article of an enthusiast rather than a critic, who seems incapable of perceiving the weak side of his master. Wagner's early determination to "write poetry

like Shakespeare's and marry it to music like Beethoven's" would hardly strike us as more than the expression of the aspiration of an ambitious boy, if there were not in his whole career something which suggests that the prophecy sprang from a less amiable quality than ambition. Mr. Hassard points out that the great rule of lyric composition which he has made the fundamental principle of opera, and with which he may be fairly said to have laid the theory of Italian opera in ruins, is that of correspondence between the poem and the melody. It is, as Mr. Hassard points out, often a matter of opinion whether a given musical phrase fits a given verse or not; but there are practices of the Italian composers which are hardly open to discussion. The conventional rules of Italian opera (which are admirably burlesqued, by the way, in "Pinafore") were a musical growth solely, the parts of the whole bearing a simply musical relation to each other, and the dramatic part being entirely subordinated to them. It was owing to this that Wagner's early efforts at reform met with such violent opposition. It was felt that he was not a reformer so much as a destroyer, and that what he wished to introduce was not opera at all, as hitherto understood, but a new thing, which must in the end drive out the old altogether.

—*Lippincott's Magazine* has a readable article on "Shires and Shire Towns in the South," by Anthony Van Wyck, which recalls the fact that with all its barbarism and slavery there was a great deal of truth in the old Southern idea of there being something English about the Southern planters and their lives. They were not much like modern Englishmen, but they had retained a great many English habits of thought and ways of life as they existed at the time of the Revolution, when every American gentleman made it a point to be as English as he could in his house and way of life and thought. After the Revolution the South remained stationary, while England and the rest of the world moved on and underwent all sorts of social modifications; but the Southern planter and country gentleman kept alive a good many English country traditions a hundred years later than they lasted in England. It was the same with literature. The Southerner's ideas of literature down to the time of the Rebellion were still those of the contemporaries of Addison and Goldsmith; the Southern political style copied that of England a hundred years ago, and the limits of advanced thought were marked by an admiration for Byron. They preserved, as Mr. Van Wyck points out, the old ceremonious manners of the last century long after they had disappeared elsewhere. A few of the old half-English shire towns are still left—each one a little capital, and local centre of society, and forum for the administration of county justice—languid and empty in midsummer, but a scene of great activity at certain times in the year, when the entire surrounding population comes into the town. Mr. Van Wyck declares that were you "privileged to enter one of the grand old places" on the outskirts of the town—

> "you would often find here groups of polished gentlemen and ladies, with a courtly grace, slightly tinctured with the old ceremonious manner, exchanging the commonplaces of ordinary conversation with a social ease and vivacity unsurpassed by any English-speaking people. The gentlemen have made the European tour in their early years; have seen Washington at its best; have heard Clay and Webster, Calhoun, Marshal, and Prentiss; have ridden the circuit themselves perhaps, and crossed swords with Berrien, or Stephens, or Toombs, in their prime, or with the Heywards, Pettigrew, or Legaré. The ladies have been educated at Macon, or at Columbia, or at Northern schools; have passed summers without number at Saratoga or Cape May; have flirted at Washington with many of the magnates of their generation. Without any pretensions to learning or the slightest tinge of *blueness*, they are always delicate, refined, often elegant, and have a grace and piquancy of their own which, joined to their acknowledged domestic virtues, have justly won for them an exalted place among American women."

But surely this is rather a reminiscence of the dear departed past than a picture of anything that it is very easy to meet with at this moment.

—The *Atlantic* publishes with its August number a supplement containing a full and particular account of the Birthday Garden Party to Mrs. Stowe, with a list of the guests, and the addresses and poems. This is in part interesting and in part "valuable for purposes of preservation," which is more than can be said of everything that is published in the magazines of the month. We can hardly imagine any one, for instance, desiring to preserve the current instalment of Mr. Hardy's "Two on a Tower" very long. Mr. Hardy seems to be struggling along without any definite idea as to what he means to do, and trusting to the fact that a serial story must be continued from month to month to bring him out all right at the end. "Studies in the South" contains nothing very new; the picture of the South presented by Mr. Harrison has been anticipated to a great extent in the newspapers. Northern Democrats, who, as a class, need all the instruction they can get from any quarter, would do well to look at what he has to say in this number about the Southern view of "subsidies" and centralization. The Democratic sages who are in the habit of trying to foster a belief in the party that the South will help them when the time comes for a strict construction of the Constitution and a limitation of the powers of the central Government, are undoubtedly making a profound miscalculation. The Southerner does not understand, since he has been made to suffer from "centralization" in the war, why he should not have all the benefits that centralization can give in time of peace. Centralization then, to his mind, meant loss of property and life, and the general ruin of the country. Centralization now seems to mean subsidies for any one who wants them; a general use of the treasury to fill private pockets, his own included, and thus make good the damage inflicted upon him by his adhesion to the lost cause. "Across Africa," by Charles Dudley Warner, is a pleasant bit of description of a kind at which Mr. Warner is an adept. Mr. Bishop's "House of a Merchant Prince" begins to hold out promise of revelations of financial irregularities on the part of one of the most respected and trusted of his characters. Mr. W. T. Harris contributes an article on Emerson, which contains some interesting bits of criticism, though written in a somewhat metaphysical vein. Dr. Holmes and "H. H." have two poems, and there is an article called a "Study in Sociology," by M. A. Hardaker, which shows that the writer is studying sociology very hard indeed.

—*Harper's* for August offers, amid much that is readable, little that calls for remark. The scenic beauties of Wisconsin, and particularly of the river which bears the name of the State, are authentically illustrated with pen and pencil in Mr. John A. Butler's paper entitled "Some Western Resorts." Mr. Higginson begins his new popular history with "The First Americans," and discusses Morgan's pueblo theory with the aid of graphic representations. He objects that the artistic achievements of the Central Americans, particularly in sculpture, make the identification of their "palaces" with communal houses incredible, and imply a degree of development more in accordance with Spanish traditions than with a restoration based on the study of the pueblo dwellers of to-day. He cannot accept "the assumption that all the delicate beauty and all the artistic skill of the Yucatan edifices were lavished upon communal houses, built only to be densely packed with Indians 'in the Middle States of Barbarism,' as Morgan calls them." The question, however, should not be approached with assumptions on either side. No one can any longer doubt the validity of the clews furnished by the Iroquois social system and Long House, or that the communal system has been surely traced from the Great Lakes to beyond the Rio Grande. The search for missing links is still going on upon this line. Meantime all our knowledge of savage races, past and existing, proves that attainment in art invariably outstrips social progress, and that equality in it does not imply identical social or political institutions. We pointed out the other day the parallelism between the textile products of the Alaskans and the ancient Peruvians; but who would undertake to infer from this a common form of government or a common architecture? For more light, by the way, on the aboriginal art of the Pacific Coast, one may read in the current *Harper's* Mr. Dawson's account of the Haidas of the Queen Charlotte Islands.

—News reached this country on Monday of the death, at Vallombrosa, of Mr. George Perkins Marsh, for more than twenty years United States Minister to Italy, and one of the foremost American scholars and authors. Mr. Marsh was born with the century, and in March last entered upon his eighty-second year. He was a native of Vermont, a State which has always known how to bring its best men to the front and keep them there. He graduated from Dartmouth in 1820, and speedily gained a leading position at the bar. Obeying the tendency to drift from law into politics, he was first chosen to the councils of the State, and afterwards to Congress, where he served for seven years, and until, in 1849, President Taylor offered him the Turkish mission. Three years later he was charged with a special mission to Greece. The years 1854–60 were spent in his native country, and then, as one of the first acts of Mr. Lincoln's administration, in March, 1861, he was appointed to the post from which no succeeding administration ever had the face, if it had the thought, to remove him. In time he became the dean of the diplomatic corps in Italy. Mr. Marsh's earliest as well as latest studies were in the domain of philology. In 1838 he printed a 'Compendious Grammar of the Old Northern or Icelandic Language,' compiled and translated from Rask. In 1859 appeared his 'Lectures on the English Language,' and in 1862 his 'Origin and History of the English Language,' both of which went through many editions. But his mind had also a singular aptitude for practical science, and was ready, at the bidding of the Vermont Legislature in 1847, to make a report on the artificial propagation of fish, or to prepare for the Smithsonian Institution in 1854 an essay full of delightful learning on the camel, with reference to its introduction in the United States. How wide had been his observation and his notes was first realized when, in 1864, he brought out the fascinating study originally called 'Man and Nature,' but afterwards more exactly described, in a revised and enlarged edition, as 'The Earth as Modified by Human Action.' This work, which must always give pleasure to the reader, was translated into Italian under the author's supervision, with fresh amendments. Mr. Marsh's style was remarkably perspicuous, and his writings stand almost alone among those of his countrymen in their combination of literary grace with ex-

treme intellectual versatility. His strength of fibre is shown by the age at which he produced what might be thought his most enduring monument, 'Man and Nature.' For years after that, however, he wrote freely for the press. To the first volume of the *Nation* (July–December, 1865) he contributed a striking series of articles, entitled "Were the States Ever Sovereign?" and to the third and fourth volumes some admirable "Notes on the New Edition of Webster's Dictionary." A few other titles which belong to this period will show the wide range of his interest: "Pruning Forest-Trees," "Agriculture in Italy," "Old English Literature," "The 'Catholic Party' of Cesare Cantù and American Slavery," "The Excommunication of Noxious Animals by the Catholic Church," "Female Education in Italy," "The Education of Women," "Protection to Naturalized Citizens," "Mont Cenis Tunnel," "Physical Science in Italy," "Proposed Revision of the Bible." At the age of seventy-five he reviewed for these columns at great length Colonel Yule's 'Marco Polo'; at seventy-six, Boccardo's 'Dizionario Universale di Economia Politica e di Commercio'; at eighty, he contributed (*Nation*, No. 815) a charming "Biography of a Word." A month later came the review (his last), in the form of a letter, of Lanciani's great work on the "Aqueducts of Ancient Rome." Mr. Marsh's mental vigor and youthful enthusiasm remained with him, as these articles show, absolutely unimpaired to the end of his venerable career.

—The Index Society has issued its third Index of Obituaries. The first, for 1878, had only 6,000 names, the second had 12,000, and the third, for 1880, must have nearly16,000. The increase this year is partly due to the collaboration of American librarians, who have worked for this very much as they worked for Poole's Index. For 1881 there will be even greater additions from American sources. Now that we have shown that the thing can be done, it is to be very much wished that France and Germany could be persuaded to join forces. Such an annual index is one of the necessities of civilization. But this yearly list alone is not enough. Its use in the future would be greatly facilitated by a decennial index of the Index, referring in the briefest form (Abney, 80) to the years in which the full reference is given. By the use of small type, four columns to a page, the family name alone being used except when there are two of the same name, an index for ten years could be compressed into a volume no thicker than the one before us, of one hundred small quarto pages.

—In a late session of the *Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres* M. Miller read a translation of several hitherto unpublished fragments of Ælian which he had discovered in a manuscript. They were in a double sense *anecdota Græca*. One or two may be worth quoting. A certain queen of Cyprus, Demanassa, whom no other author has mentioned, made three laws: that adulterous women were to have their hair cut, and be delivered to prostitution; that men guilty of suicide were to be deprived of burial; and that he who killed another's ox should himself be slain. Now Demanassa had a daughter and two sons. The daughter committed adultery, one of the sons committed suicide, and the other killed his neighbor's ox. The laws were strictly executed in all three cases. Some one blamed Euripides for going to market himself when Sophocles left that task to his slave. "Yes," said Euripides, "Sophocles eats what his slave prefers, and I eat what I like myself." Diogenes, seeing a woman swept away by a torrent, cried out, "There goes an evil carried away by an evil evilly."

—The literary recollections of M. Maxime Du Camp, which have already been noticed in these columns, are still running their course in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He devotes a chapter to Beaudelaire, one of Mr. Swinburne's sad-mad-bad-glad brothers. When Charles Beaudelaire was fourteen years old, his mother, a widow, married Colonel Aupick, of the French army, a martinet whose ideas concerning the education of youth were as ill-adapted as possible to curb the rebellious spirit of his stepson. The result was a series of quarrels, culminating in a pitched battle, on the occasion of a grand official dinner given by Colonel Aupick in his capacity of chief of staff at Lyons. Beaudelaire was packed off to India, where he took contracts to furnish the British troops with cattle, and made a living as best he could, being aided by his mother with occasional surreptitious remittances. Being but seventeen years of age, he acquired a thorough knowledge of English. He lived also some time at the Cape. When he returned to France he was of age, and entered on the enjoyment of his patrimony. While it lasted, which was not long, he led a life of conspicuous elegance. His mother made an effort to introduce him into the best society, but his contempt for the social amenities soon closed all doors against him. He felt more at home in cafés and wine cellars, where a generation of the great men of the future listened as he recited his unpublished verses, and rewarded him with unstinted applause. In this way he acquired a sort of small reputation in the editorial rooms of the minor journals, even before he had printed anything. Although he never fulfilled the high expectations which were entertained in some quarters, he occupies an important place in the second rank of the poets of his time. M. Du Camp gives an amusing account of the way in which he made the acquaintance of Beaudelaire:

"He called on me at a small country house at Neuilly, which I had taken for the summer of 1852. His dress and general appearance were eccentric, and although evidently possessed of much muscular strength, he had a wasted and jaded look. The beginning of our conversation was odd. He said, 'I am thirsty.' I offered him beer, tea, grog. He answered, 'I thank you, but I only drink wine.' I asked whether he preferred Bordeaux or Burgundy. 'If you allow me, I will take both.' A bottle of each was brought, a glass, and a decanter of water. He said, 'Please have that decanter taken away: the sight of water is disagreeable to me.' During the hour that our interview lasted, he emptied the two bottles, swallowing a tumbler-full at a time. As I noticed that after each potation he watched furtively, to see what impression his conduct was producing, I remained quite impassive, laughing in my sleeve. His originality, although great, was often put to a great strain by the efforts he made to display it. One Sunday he came to my house with his hair dyed green. I pretended not to notice it. He stood before the glass, looked at himself, passed his fingers through his hair, and generally made a desperate attempt to attract attention. Not succeeding, he asked me: 'Don't you think there is something strange in my appearance?' 'Why, no' 'But my hair is green: surely that's uncommon.' I replied, 'Everybody's hair is more or less green; now, if yours were sky-blue, I might be surprised, but green hair you will find under every hat in Paris.' Almost immediately after he went away, and, on his way out, meeting one of my friends, he said, 'I would advise you not to call on Du Camp to-day: he is in a horribly bad humor.'"

—Notwithstanding his peculiarities and his shiftless mode of life, Beaudelaire was undoubtedly possessed of considerable talent. As a poet, his range was limited; but within his limit his strength was great. As a prose-writer, his translations from Poe were a masterpiece. He had an innate sympathy with the American writer, whom he first made known in France, and with whom he had completely identified himself. Without being aware of it, he had one great defect, which, for a writer, was a fatal one—he was ignorant. What he knew he knew well, but it was little. History, physiology, archæology, philosophy, escaped him; in fact, he never cultivated them. He had been through the colonies, Southern Africa, the Indies, and brought back nothing. He seemed to have travelled with his eyes shut. He was a subjective poet, and the external world interested him but little. He may have seen it, but he certainly never studied it. Whatever attention he devoted to it was solely for the purpose of discovering the vices which should justify him in his contempt for the human race. When his "Les Fleurs du Mal" appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June, 1855, they created a sensation and achieved a success. The success was only heightened when his poems appeared in a volume and the Government committed the blunder of proceeding against them as an offence against the public morals. There was nothing in them that warranted such a charge, and, as always happens in such cases, and always will happen, the book attained a popularity which was perhaps not greater than its merits deserved, but undoubtedly greater than it could otherwise have reached in so short a time. Notwithstanding this piece of luck, fortune did not smile upon him. Ultimately he fell into a paralysis of the faculties, and ended his days in a mad-house.

—M. Babelon has published an interesting memoir in which he traces the commerce of the Arabians much further north than it had hitherto been supposed to go. The Arabs appear to have started from the Caspian and followed the course of the Volga to the Baltic Provinces, and then to have spread around the Baltic over the shores of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, and some distance up the rivers. The evidence consists in the Arabic coins found in all these places. Of course this is not proof positive that the Arabian merchants themselves had penetrated so far, any more than the great quantity of Canadian silver that circulated here during and after the Civil War is a proof that we were overrun by Canadians; but it is certain that the Arabians had a very considerable commerce in early times with these hyperborean regions, whether they penetrated to the North Sea themselves or not. We say "early times," because no coins are found later than 1040, indicating that the commerce had ceased not long after that date.

—Eight years ago the sixth edition of the 'Geographisch - statistiches Lexikon,' called "Ritter's" by way of trade-mark, appeared, and now we have the first instalment (A–Anne) of the seventh (Leipzig: Otto Wigand; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). A new editor has been employed, Dr. Heinrich Lagai; the size of the page has been enlarged in both dimensions; and we may readily take the publishers' word for it that a significant increase will be made in the number of titles. In fact, the sixty-four pages before us stop at a title which is found on the 52d page of the previous (smaller) edition, while every effort has been made to keep down the bulk by omissions and contractions. The abbreviations have been multiplied to a degree which makes consultation much less easy for a foreigner. A very slight examination shows that the articles have been extensively revised and rewritten, and that the censuses of 1880 have been availed of. Egypt, Afghanistan, Algeria, and America have noticeably received more attention; Africa has perhaps been slightly condensed. The aim of this gazetteer is essentially to satisfy commercial needs, and its conspicuous merit, apart from other needful qualities, is fulness. Long use of it has satisfied us of its superiority in this respect to any work of the kind we have ever met with. Its principle of

inclusion is, for Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, all places having 100 inhabitants and upward, and baths, factory towns, postal and railroad stations with even fewer. For the rest of Europe, the minimum population is 200 to 500, and for the world at large, 500 to 1,000. This 'Lexikon' must be thought indispensable in every counting-room where German is used or understood; nor should any library be without it.

SEWALL'S DIARY.—I.

Diary of Samuel Sewall, 1674–1729. Vol. III. 1714–1729. Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. vii. Fifth Series. [See *Nation*, Nos. 696, 697, 765, 766.]

THIS, the final volume of the Sewall 'Diary,' containing also an index of the names in the present volume, and what is supposed to be a general index of all the volumes, completes the publication. In several respects the close of the work is disappointing, but in no respect is it so disappointing as in the important matter of the general index just referred to. Judge Sewall's 'Diary' is essentially a work of historical reference. It can never be a popular book, or even in considerable demand with general readers. There is too much uninteresting detail in it; nor is the subject in any aspect a large or inviting one. To the student of New England history, however, it is a mine of necessary information. The 'Diary' brings him directly face to face with the inmost life of the people whose story it is his object to narrate. He cannot, however, even after repeated readings, carry its whole contents in his head, nor can he spend hours rummaging its pages in search of something of which he retains a vague recollection that he has seen it there or somewhere else. To works dealing with the original material of history a thorough index is essential. Without it, half their value is lost. They are merely full of buried treasures.

In this respect the publications of the Massachusetts Historical Society have heretofore been remarkably strong. Their indices have been models of thoroughness. For some reason, which is not apparent, the past reputation of the Society in this respect has not been sustained in the present case. The Sewall index is certainly large enough, for it fills 140 double-column pages; but it is confined to proper names, with simple page-references, unaccompanied by any indication of subject-matter. For instance, under the perfectly meaningless title of "The Governor"—a title of no conceivable use to any investigator—there are 544 page-numbers in close succession without one word of explanation. Under that of Cotton Mather there are some 300; under that of Joseph Dudley, some 200; as many under New England; while under Boston there are no less than 476. An investigator, therefore, looking to see if there is anything in Sewall on a particular point connected with the history of Boston must worry through 476 citations before he can satisfy himself whether it is there or not. Hunting for a needle in a hay-stack is nothing to this. Such work, we submit, is not index-making: it is an exasperating sham. The purpose of an index is to lay open easily to investigators the whole contents of a book. Merely to pile up columns of page citations does not lay open the whole contents of any book, and is little better than a pure waste both of the time of the compiler and the money of his employer. In this case it is to be hoped that a proper and intelligent index will be found in the final volume of the series of the Historical Society's Collections, of which the 'Diary' will be a part. If it is not found there, the value of this work to the historical student will be very seriously impaired.

Turning to the third volume in itself, it will be found to cover the period from May, 1714, to October, 1729, or from the sixty-second year of the writer's life to a few months before its close, on January 1, 1730. In public affairs this period was almost identical with the reign of George I., and during it Col. Samuel Shute was Governor of the Province of Massachusetts Bay. Politically, it was far from an interesting or instructive time: it was the day of small things and of slow growth. The colony was just finishing the first century of its existence, and the struggles of infancy were not yet over. The Indian wars had been, it is true, forced back from the Narragansett country and the Connecticut to the wilds of New Hampshire and Maine, but they still continued, and drained the community of its youth and its substance. Indeed, the most dramatic and memorable incident of this whole period was that expedition of 200 men to Norridgewock on the Kennebec, in August, 1624, which resulted in the death of Father Rasle—an event, by the way, no mention of which is found in the 'Diary.' The entire population of the Province was then about 95,000, and that of all New England 160,000; while Boston was a thriving commercial town of some 18,000 inhabitants. Outside of Boston the people were very poor, exacting from the sterile soil a bare living, and nothing more. They wore homespun, used the farming utensils which for centuries had served the needs of Englishmen, ate Indian-corn bread, molasses and salt meat, drank rum and cider, worked early and late in their fields, and attended meeting and town-meeting, and hung about the village taverns.

On the sea-coast, about 150 boats, in which sailed some 600 men, were engaged in fishing; and the Province owned about 190 sail, which were navigated by some 1,100 seamen. The foreign trade of Boston, Salem and Newburyport, in which places all the little wealth the colony had then amassed was concentrated, was carried on with the mother-country, the other Provinces and the West India Islands, and consisted of the exportation of products of the forest and cattle, and the importation of sugar, molasses and rum.

It was a dreary, monotonous, commonplace period—a period without literature, art or science. Cotton Mather was the leading divine of the day, and the 'Magnalia' its choicest product. Sewall was now thoroughly a part of his time and surroundings. His natural taste for music and poetry and finer things had been ground out of him by lifelong contact with the hard, material, superstitious world in which he had his being, and his 'Diary' reveals an honest, frivolous, bigoted, but kindly and affectionate old man, fading gradually away. In fact, it is open to very great doubt whether this portion of the 'Diary' ever ought to have been published at all—whether, indeed, the publishing it, at any rate in full, is not a grievous breach of good taste. It is mainly the domestic record of an old man with whom the dangerous practice of journal-writing had become a settled habit, and who wrote down in his 'Diary,' for what end it is impossible to say, whatever for any day was uppermost in his mind; and domestic and private matters are at nearly all times uppermost in most men's minds. Unfortunately, Sewall's first wife, to whom he had been married forty-three years, and who had borne him fourteen children, died in 1717. He was then Chief-Justice of Massachusetts, and sixty-five years of age. Twice, however, after that did the old man marry again, once at the age of sixty-seven, and again at seventy; and it is with the details of these marriages and the events which preceded them that the pages of this volume are full. It is, we submit, a record with which neither the public nor the historian has anything to do. The minute details of the courtships of an old man may be very entertaining, but they are not of public moment, nor are they characteristic of the life or the manners of any particular period. They are pure gossip, and gossip of a not very creditable kind. Of such gossip this volume is full.

For instance, the following is highly amusing, but in what way does it concern posterity? It certainly is not history. One feels as if he were a sort of Peeping Tom even in reading such a record in the time-worn manuscript. Hannah, the Chief-Justice's first wife, had died on the 19th of October, 1717. On the 29th of October, two years later, in the presence of a numerous progeny, the old man of sixty-seven is married again, his own son being the officiating clergyman. The bride was Madam Abigail Tilley, born Melyen, who had been twice married before. The marriage took place at Mrs. Tilley's house, between seven and eight o'clock of the evening of Thanksgiving Day, "in the best room below stairs." The following is the venerable bridegroom's account of his wedding-night, now first printed in full:

"Mrs. Armitage introduced me into my Bride's Chamber after she was a-bed. I thank'd her that she had left her room in that Chamber to make way for me, and pray'd God to provide for her a better Lodging: So none saw us after I went to bed. Quickly after our being a-bed my Bride grew so very bad she was fain to sit up in her bed; I rose to get her Petit Coats about her. I was exceedingly amaz'd, fearing lest she should have dy'd. Through the favor of God she recover'd in some considerable time of her fit of the Tissick, spitting, partly blood. She herself was under great Consternation."

THE FUTURE OF ISLAM.

The Future of Islam. By Wilfrid Scawen Blunt. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1882.

IT is somewhat difficult to criticise an author who launches forth on the sea of political prophecy and political speculation so fearlessly as Mr. Blunt. In the compass of a brief book of little more than two hundred pages he confidently predicts a new and higher moral and intellectual life for the followers of the Prophet; he reconstructs the map of the Mohammedan world, and assures the British people that the only safe and reasonable policy for them to adopt, if they desire to preserve their Empire in its integrity, is to constitute themselves the guardians of Islam against all its assailants. Mr. Blunt is not so explicit as he ought to have been in stating his claims to be listened to when he asks us to accept upon his authority the probability of such a vast revolution as this. He does not even say if he is acquainted with Eastern languages, or has devoted much of his time and thought to the study of Moslem history; and perhaps, in the absence of any such assurance, we are justified in assuming that he is unacquainted with Eastern languages, and has no special or profound knowledge of Moslem history. At any rate, the only reason which he gives in the book before us why we should accept him as a veritable prophet is that he "visited Jiddah in the early part of the past winter, and that he subsequently spent some months in Egypt and Syria in the almost exclusive society of Mussulmans." This, assuredly, is a very precarious foundation for such a vast superstructure of political prophecy as that which he has thought fit to build upon it; and we think it will not be difficult to show that his vaticinations will not survive the application of reasonable criticism.

Mr. Blunt, then, is of opinion that not merely will the Ottoman Empire cease to exist at no distant period, but that the Moslem portion of its population will, upon its disappearance, be converted to Christianity. He believes that the Moslems in the Khanates of Central Asia are not unlikely to follow this example—that all Northern Africa as far as the ranges of the Atlas will be Europeanized; that Persia will separate itself from the faith of Islam; and that from the remaining portions of the Mohammedan world, but chiefly from among the Arabs, will begin a reformation of Islam that will bring the crude and elementary morality of the Koran into harmony with the moral and intellectual ideas of the nineteenth century. It is this fancy, that the Arabs will impart a higher moral and intellectual life to Islam, which appears to us the most extravagant thing in Mr. Blunt's little book, and convinces us that he has paid very slight attention to the past history of Mohammedanism. He appears to have taken for granted the popular, but altogether erroneous belief, that the civilization of Bagdad and Cordova was due to the Arabs, whereas, in point of fact, it existed in the face of their bitter opposition. The Arabs have always fought against any enlargement of the narrow boundaries of the creed of Islam, have always protested against any attempt to liberalize its doctrines as rank heresy, and they remain in consequence, to this day, in precisely the same condition, socially, morally, and intellectually, as when the Prophet appeared among them.

"It is," writes Ibn-Khaldun, the most philosophical of Moslem historians, "a very remarkable fact that nearly all the learned men who have distinguished themselves among the Moslems by their aptitude in the sciences, whether religious or intellectual, were foreigners. The examples to the contrary are extremely rare; for even those among them who were of Arabian extraction differed from that people in the language which they spoke, the country where they were brought up, and the masters under whom they studied. . . . All the great divines who have dealt with the fundamental principles of the law, all those who have distinguished themselves in dogmatic theology, and the greater part of those who devoted themselves to Koranic exegesis, were Persians—a fact which demonstrates the truth of the saying attributed to the Prophet: 'If,' said he, 'science were suspended from the height of heaven, there are among the Persians those who would possess themselves of it.'"

Bagdad and Cordova owed their transient period of intellectual brilliancy, the former to Persian and Syrian Christians, the latter to Jews and Christians. The Arabs, as Ibn-Khaldun points out in his invaluable 'Prolegomena,' have never done aught but bring ruin and desolation upon every country which they entered. The only purely Arabic movement which has risen up in Islam since the death of the Prophet was the Wahhabee revival, and this, Mr. Blunt himself admits, "took no account whatever of the progress of modern thought," but expected "by force of arms to Arabianize the world again." We are therefore at a loss to conjecture by what process Mr. Blunt has arrived at the conclusion that the Arabs are about to belie the whole tenor of their preceding history, and apply themselves to such a gigantic and, to our thinking, impossible task as the production of an edition of Islam with all the latest religious improvements of the nineteenth century incorporated therein.

Still less is it comprehensible by us how an Islam remodelled after this fashion is to be made acceptable to Malays, Negroes, Kaffirs, Chinese, and others, all of whom, according to Mr. Blunt, only await the proclamation of the new religion to embrace it with fervor and alacrity. Mr. Blunt has apparently been persuaded into believing that a spiritual reformation is at hand because thinking men among the Faithful are deeply dissatisfied with the present condition of the Mohammedan world, with the infidels encroaching upon all its borders. But there is no necessary connection between this dissatisfaction and a reconstruction of the theological and other beliefs which dominate the Mohammedan world. One thing is certain: no religion can rise to a higher level of spiritual life than that of its own fountain-head; and unless it can be shown that the present state of the Mohammedan world is due to a falling away from the primitive creed of Islam, it is idle to anticipate a religious revival infusing life and vigor in its decaying members. Now this, we maintain, it is impossible to show. Whatever other faults may be ascribed to the followers of the Prophet, that of religious inconstancy cannot be numbered among them. Intellectually and morally, they have presented an impregnable opposition to the advances of Western thought, and clung, through good report and ill report, to their Prophet and the legal systems which have been deduced from the Koran. Although not explicitly clothed with divinity, the Prophet holds, in the faith of the Moslem, a position very similar to that of Christ in Christianity. Every sound, orthodox Moslem believes that in every act and saying of his life Mohammed was under a divine guidance which has made of him a pattern and example for all generations to come. Slavery, polygamy, concubinage, divorce, religious war, intolerance—all the practices, in short, which have wrought the greatest havoc in the Mohammedan world—are not merely sanctioned, but commanded, by the example of the Prophet. It is impossible for any Moslem to call them into question without at the same time calling into question the sanctity and wisdom of Mohammed—without, in other words, cutting himself off from the company of the Faithful. Mr. Blunt's expectation of a spiritual reformation of Islam is all the more remarkable because he does not anticipate that the pilgrimage to Mecca and the honors paid to the black stone will hereafter be performed with less fervor and depth of conviction; but if the Moslems ever arrive at the conviction that the Prophet was wrong in all that he taught and practised regarding slavery, polygamy, concubinage, and religious war, it is tolerably certain that they must arrive at the same conclusion regarding the silly and unmeaning ceremonial of the Mecca pilgrimage.

Mr. Blunt's last chapter is devoted to "England's Interest in Islam," and in this he gravely propounds a policy for Great Britain which it is difficult to read without laughter. "On the downfall," he says, "of the Ottoman Empire, whenever that event shall occur, the rôle of England in regard to Islam seems plainly marked out. The Caliphate—no longer an empire, but still an independent sovereignty—must be taken under British protection and publicly guaranteed its political existence, undisturbed by further aggression from Europe." To afford this protection with the smallest cost and trouble to itself, Mr. Blunt is of opinion that Great Britain ought to see that the Caliphate of the future be set up in Mecca, and when this has been effected the same much-enduring Great Britain ought, according to Mr. Blunt, to make of the pilgrimage a sort of Cook's tour, "personally conducted" by itself. "A systematic development of the pilgrimage as a Government undertaking, with the construction of a railway from Jiddah to Mecca and the establishment of thoroughly well-ordered lines of steamers from the principal Mohammedan ports—all matters which would amply repay their cost—would every year add a new prestige to English influence." Mr. Blunt has omitted, probably by accident, from this admirable programme the erection of a number of monster hotels in and around Mecca, with a staff of "thoroughly well-ordered" waiters from London for the accommodation of the pilgrims.

"The mission," Mr. Blunt goes on to say, "is a high one, and well worthy of her acceptance. . . . Nor will her refusal, if she refuse, be without grave and immediate danger. The Mohammedan world is roused, as it has never been in its history, to a sense of its political and moral dangers, and is looking round on all sides for a leader, of whatsoever name or nation, to espouse its cause. We can hardly doubt that the position of directing so vast a force, if abandoned by England, will be claimed by some more resolute neighbor. . . . The Caliphate is a weapon forged for any hand—for Russia's at Bagdad, for France's at Damascus, or for Holland's (call it one day Germany's) in our stead at Mecca. Protected by any of these nations, the Caliphate might make our position intolerable in India, filling up for us the measure of Mussulman bitterness, of which we already are having a foretaste in the Pan-Islamic intrigues at Constantinople."

After reading this, few will doubt that Mr. Blunt has been indulging to excess in a practice commemorated by Coleridge under the title of "Fancy in Nubibus":

"Oh! it is pleasant with a heart at ease,
Just after sunset or by moonlight skies,
To make the shifting clouds be what you please,
Or let the easily-persuaded eyes
Own each quaint likeness issuing from the mould
Of a friend's fancy."

The European nations, England included, have quite enough on their hands for many years to come without giving up their time and labor to such a work of supererogation as the protectorate of the Mohammedan Caliphate. Mr. Blunt's language leaves it somewhat doubtful whether he expects that Great Britain should take up this onerous duty at once, or defer it until the Ottoman Empire has vanished into the inane and the Arabs have spiritually regenerated Islam. The grammatical construction of his sentences points to the present as the time for entering upon these new duties, but the general tenor of his reasoning would require that it should be postponed until the Arabs have renovated Islam. It is quite certain that at present Great Britain could not construct railways and build hotels on the Sacred Territory for the convenience of the Faithful; and as the Arabian reformation will certainly synchronize with the Greek Kalends, Mr. Gladstone's Government need not be alarmed by the menacing predictions of Mr. Blunt if they do not carry out his policy.

RECENT NOVELS.

Marion Fay: A Novel. By Anthony Trollope. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Two Old Cats. By Virginia W. Johnson. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Guerndale. An Old Story. By J. S., of Dale. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

MR. TROLLOPE has in 'Marion Fay' written a very long story, and used for it materials that hardly have the recommendation of novelty. There is a Marquis of Kingsbury, who has much trouble with his family, and especially with his second wife; there is his son, Lord Hampstead, who falls hopelessly in love with Marion Fay, a poor Quaker girl; and his daughter, Lady Frances, who engages herself to a post-office clerk, Mr. George Roden. The poor Quaker girl dies, leaving Lord Hampstead inconsolable, while George Roden turns out to be an Italian nobleman, and Lady Frances makes him happy. Then there is a family chaplain who arouses the reader's interest at one time by thinking over a little plan for murdering Lord Hampstead. Actual murder, however, is not at all in Mr.

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Trollope's line, and the chaplain's criminal designs do not take the form of overt acts. There is some low comedy introduced through the medium of the adventures of a vulgar young woman named Clara Demijohn and a pair of rivals for her hand. There is a great deal of love, but very little incident; and love-scenes without incident to relieve them are apt to be mawkish. Flatness has always been at once Mr. Trollope's forte and foible, and in 'Marion Fay' the flatness occasionally approaches the point of burlesque. With a man in love tender associations will undoubtedly cluster around any object, however unromantic, that the loved one has touched. But when we have sympathized with Lord Hampstead's interest in a poker because Marion Fay has had it in her hand, we feel that we have done all that should be required of us. Too much poker, even when hallowed by love, palls upon us, and we resent the introduction of it as a serious part of the sentimental machinery of a novel.

Socially, the story has some interest as a picture of the effect of modern ideas with regard to love and marriage on an aristocracy which, like that of England, is already hopelessly hemmed in by the rising democratic tide. There is every worldly reason why Lady Frances should not be allowed to engage herself to George Roden; but no one can prevent it, and the reader feels that it was rather a tribute to aristocratic prejudice and romantic tradition to turn him into an Italian duke at the end. The story would have been much less commonplace had he remained a post-office clerk and married Lady Frances in the face of the whole British peerage. He does, it is true, refuse to take his title, and, consequently, has to keep his mother's name, which is a senseless proceeding, as it is a name assumed by her under the impression that her marriage was invalid. The best-drawn character in the book is that of Mr. Sam Crocker, whose vulgar vanity, self-assertion, curiosity, good humor, and untruthfulness make up altogether quite a perfect modern cad.

'Two Old Cats' is but a trifle of a story, and yet it is not trivial. As heretofore in Miss Johnson's work, the love-story and the lovers themselves are but secondary. We quite know beforehand the handsome and ingenuous pair who, after not too much adversity, happily walk off the stage hand in hand at the end of the play. The charm of the story is its setting—the shores of the Mediterranean. The cats are neither very old nor very bad—the one with paws of velvet, soft and beguiling; the other stern, repellent, always ready for scratches, but both equally selfish and self-seeking (for the conversion of the hero's maiden-aunt is altogether too sudden to be very virtuous). So good material as Miss Johnson's deserves greater pains in putting together, and something more of care is needful to her, or small slips and inadvertencies will grow to serious faults.

A large part of 'Guerndale' is occupied with a description of college life at Harvard about ten or twelve years ago. The rest of the book is an ordinary novel, which, though showing a considerable amount of cleverness, would, without this introduction, not be likely to attract a great deal of attention. It is rather a man's book, and will therefore probably be read by all the women and children who can get hold of it. These should be warned, however, not to put too implicit confidence in the picture given of Harvard. No one not a recent graduate can speak with entire authority on this subject; but it is safe to say that the youthful cynic Randolph and the excessively good Guyon Guerndale are both overdrawn. The author, who is evidently young, has put all that he knows of life into the book, and, being young, his knowledge of life is naturally derived to a great extent rather from books than from observation.

Pictures of college life are almost always disappointing, because they reveal, if they are at all true, an appalling amount of folly and weakness in their heroes, who have lost the freshness of boyhood without acquiring the wisdom of maturity. A college man in the United States is either a hard-working young fellow who aims at qualifying himself for some profession—in which case his career as a student presents few points of interest—or else he is some rich man's son, placed beyond the necessity of work, and who comes to college because it is the most gentlemanly thing to do, or because his father did it before him, or because he does not know what to do with himself. This class is small in all American colleges, but probably is larger at Harvard than elsewhere, and always makes more noise than any other, because it has more time on its hands. It develops in each class, with great regularity, a "fast" set, who ape the vices of men, and make themselves ridiculous in doing so. It is this set which is described in 'Guerndale.' All the hardened young reprobates who compose it are accustomed to drink and smoke a great deal, swear like pirates, gamble, and idle away their time in a very silly way. They consider themselves men, and pass for men among their friends, and talk about their life as a very fine and delightful one. But there is obviously nothing about it that lends itself especially well to fiction. Profanity may be attractive to a boy, just as drinking brandy and water or smoking strong cigars may be, merely because in his innocence he associates swearing and drinking and smoking with the idea of adult maturity and freedom. But the chronicling of his oaths and his debauches is a dreary task, and the tale is one which must, when it is told, make rather a painful record. The author of 'Guerndale' has contrived to make it more entertaining than we should have thought possible by the introduction of Norton Randolph, the cynic to whom we have referred—an amiable pessimist and misanthrope, deeply versed in the latest speculations of the day, always on his guard against excitement or enthusiasm, an agnostic of the agnostics, with the constitution of an Ajax, the wit of a Voltaire, and the profundity of the Stagirite himself. At heart he is a lover of his kind, and stealthily does good in many unexpected ways. His conversation reeks with hopelessness. New England, he declares, "will shortly be the most immoral country we know. And the sinister fact about it is, that its unhappiness and immorality will be found not in the highest classes or the lowest, but in the great middle class, on which the social life and future of a nation depends. We are accustomed to shrink with horror from French novels and French morals: to-day the *bourgeoisie* of France is purer and happier than our own." Again: "Religion has degenerated into a curious social custom. I look at a New England meeting-house in much the same outside way that I should look at a Chinese joss-house—it serves as a sort of social nucleus to a parish where they periodically run into debt and cut down the preacher's salary." Finally, he proposes, "as the only way of impressing the necessity of social, moral, and physical strength on the people, that all criminal, infirm, and insane persons be etherized." These are the perfect flowers of youthful cynicism. To be a cynic of this sort it is necessary to be twenty years old, in perfect health, and completely happy. There may be such cynics at Harvard even now, but they are in real life not so clever as Mr. Norton Randolph, whom the author has to a great extent made his own mouthpiece.

John C. Calhoun. By Dr. H. von Holst. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882. Pp. 356.

If the series of 'American Statesmen' is in its general character historical rather than biographical—aiming, that is, to present the man in his relation to the national life, rather than to portray him as an individual member of society—this is especially to be expected of Calhoun. The life of John Quincy Adams is one of the most dramatic in history; that of Hamilton is full of incident; but of Calhoun as a man, his biographer says, "but very little is to be told. Even his contemporaries, with perhaps the exception of his nearest neighbors, did not know much of his doings as a private individual. . . . We hear that he was a just and kind master to his slaves, that he was possessed of an uncommon conversational talent, and that he exercised an especial fascination upon young men. That is about all" (p. 4). "Yet it is unquestionably true," he goes on (p. 7), "that the name of Calhoun already conveys a much more definite idea to the American people than that of either Webster or Clay," because "Calhoun is in an infinitely higher degree the representative of an *idea*, and this idea is the pivotal point on which the history of the United States has turned from 1819 to nearly the end of the first century of their existence as an independent republic. From about 1830 to the day of his death, Calhoun may be called the very impersonation of the slavery question."

The volume before us, therefore, appropriately entrusted to the distinguished historian of this epoch, may be described as a history of the slavery question, with especial relation to Calhoun's participation in it. In view of the vital nature of this controversy, and the lack of biographic elements in Calhoun's career, the plan of the book is all that could be desired. It would seem, however, that the personality of its subject is at times unduly left out of sight. The book has become so completely a history of the slavery question—and one, too, treated almost exclusively from the most profound and analytic point of view—that the reader is often left in the dark as to dates and persons. The chapter entitled "Slavery," an admirable sketch of the early history of the controversy, is often defective in this regard; and the chapter which follows, "Under Van Buren," really carries the narrative down into Tyler's administration. We read (p. 172): "Calhoun now took this decisive step," etc. What the decisive step was we are thoroughly informed; but when was "now" the reader is left to guess, for there is not a date within seven pages.

Dr. von Holst has another fault, the common fault of allusiveness. The great majority of his readers will be young men whose memory does not carry them beyond the war of the rebellion, and to whom many of these once so familiar names and incidents are either wholly unknown or call up the most shadowy image. We read, for example (p. 226): "The bursting of the cannon 'Peacemaker' on board the *Princeton*, on February 28, 1844, ended the embarrassment of the Secretary." We venture to say that not half who read this passage will understand that this desired relief came to the Secretary in question (Mr. Upshur) by removing him to another world. In many cases, as in this, the account would be materially improved by a foot-note or a slightly different wording in the text.

These faults—if we may call them such—are much less prominent in the closing chapters on "Texas" and "Oregon and the Mexican War." Mr. Calhoun's relation to these three important questions is portrayed with great perspicuity and a remarkable degree of individuality. As Secretary of State in the Texas negotiations, he is shown (p. 233) to have been guilty of direct

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falsehood in asserting, in his letter to Mr. Pakenham, that the annexation project was forced upon the United States by the policy of Great Britain. And his attitude toward Mexico and Great Britain in Polk's Administration, honorable and patriotic as a whole, was seriously affected by his fanaticism on the subject of slavery. The "greatest and most fatal political blunder of his whole career" is declared (p. 276) to have been his refusal to move in opposition to the President's Mexican policy, for fear of lessening his influence in the Oregon matter. But Polk had already "made up his mind to satisfy England with regard to Oregon. Calhoun could have crossed the way of the President in the most determined manner, without risking anything except his standing as an 'Administration man,' and that he was sure to lose at any rate."

If Calhoun's career was not a dramatic one, like that of John Quincy Adams, it was in its close tragical in the highest degree. He saw clearly the approach of the "irrepressible conflict" which he had done more than any other man to precipitate; and yet the inevitable result —disunion—was one which he never desired, from which he shrank. "He lived long enough not to derive any consolation from the vain hope that [his] last attempt to save the Union by rendering slavery absolutely safe *in the Union* would be successful" (p. 328). His life may be pronounced incomplete, because he did not live to see the direct and necessary consequences of his own labors; and for the same reason the reader lays down the book with a sense of incompleteness—it is a history rather than a biography, and as a history it needs to be supplemented by a survey of the eleven stormy years which brought us at last to that necessary outcome of his theories which he saw plainly enough, but refused to believe inevitable.

The most important lesson to be drawn from the life of this great man is the danger in following pure logic as a guide in statesmanship. History is not made by logic, but by compromise; and although, as Dr. von Holst remarks, "compromise between antagonistic principles is *ab initio* an impossibility," yet without compromise no government can be conducted. Now, Calhoun's life was spent in bringing the nation into an attitude in which no compromise was possible, because it was *principles*, and not measures of expediency, that were opposed to each other.

"The founders of the republic had been under the necessity of admitting slavery into the Constitution, and the inevitable consequence was that conclusions which were diametrically opposed to each other could be logically deduced from it by starting the argument first from the fact that slavery was an acknowledged and protected institution, which, so far as the States were concerned, was out of the pale of the Federal jurisdiction; and then from the no less incontestable fact that the determining principle of the Constitution was liberty, and that the spirit and the whole life of the American people fully accorded with the Constitution in this respect" (p. 127).

This remark goes to the bottom of this tremendous conflict. The antagonism between the letter and the spirit of the Constitution was one which a really wise statesman, not governed by a pitiless logic, would have avoided by suffering the requirements of the letter to be tacitly dropped out of sight. There is no question that, on the question of fugitive slaves for example, the North neglected its constitutional duty; and no more question that this constitutional duty was one which a free community could never be forced to perform. Probably nothing but war could ever have determined a contest so vital and of such magnitude; but its vitality and magnitude were largely the work of Calhoun. "The speculations of the keenest political logician the United States ever had, ended in the greatest logical monstrosity imaginable, because his reasoning started from a *contradictio in adjecto*" (p. 351).

It is interesting to observe (p. 200) Calhoun's relation to the reform in the civil service, which, even forty-five years ago, was becoming an important question. The bill which proposed to dismiss from the service officers who sought to influence elections was opposed by him as unconstitutional, and for the further reason that the abuse would be transferred from the office-*holders* to "the no less formidable corps of the office-*seekers*." The remedy proposed by him was to "place the office-holders, with their yearly salaries, beyond the reach of the executive power"; to which Dr. von Holst remarks: "If he had changed but one word—if he had said *party in power* instead of *executive power*—this advice would, indeed, have been the egg of Columbus."

In one point we cannot quite understand Dr. von Holst's interpretation of the Constitution. In speaking (p. 190) of Calhoun's resolutions of December 27, 1837, in which it is declared that "every State '*entered* into the Union' by its own voluntary act," he remarks: "The old Union, under the Articles of Confederation, therefore, evidently had ceased to exist some time before; when and how, Calhoun unfortunately forgot to say." But this does not follow. There is no question that the States had entered this old Union by their own voluntary acts, and Calhoun's argument does not require this Union to have been dissolved previous to the formation of the new one; but, the sovereignty of each State being explicitly reserved under the Articles of Confederation, he argues that it was not surrendered under the Constitution.

The Army of the Cumberland. By Gen. H. M. Cist. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

THIS work, so far as we can follow it, seems to be a conscientious and truthful narrative of the operations of the Army of the Cumberland from the date of its organization to the end of the Chattanooga campaign, but it does not deal with the battle of Shiloh, in which that army took such an important part. The plan of the series of histories to which it belongs very properly assigned that battle to the history of another campaign; for, while the events connected with it were of great interest and importance, the movement which led to it was divergent from the line of operations marked out for the Army of the Cumberland. The narrative before us gives a minute account of the various minor incidents, scouts, and skirmishes in Kentucky and Tennessee, as well as of the operations of greater importance; but owing to the poor maps and plans (reduced from Van Horne's exhaustive work) which accompany the text, it is almost impossible for the reader to get a proper idea of the theatre of war, or the significance of the marches and combinations under consideration. Certainly no one but an officer of intelligence who had served in that army could follow its movements as described, or get at any satisfactory understanding of their object.

The volume now under consideration is, however, subject to another, and even graver, objection than the one just pointed out. Failing in value to the student of military history, we should naturally expect it to possess such other qualities as would commend it to the approval of the general public; but such is not the case. It is neither brilliant in style, nor graphic in its descriptions of marches and battles. The personal qualities of the generals arrayed against each other are quite neglected. The names of Charles G. Harker and William Graham Jones, graduates of West Point, and officers of extraordinary brilliancy and promise, are hardly mentioned. Gordon Granger, whose timely arrival on the battle-field of Chickamauga (whither he had marched to the sound of the enemy's guns) brought Thomas that support which enabled him to hold his position to the close of that disastrous day, was a swaggering but bold, competent, and successful soldier, whose picturesqueness at least might have been turned to account. It is perhaps unknown to many that Sheridan, who afterward reached such high rank as commander of cavalry in the Army of the Potomac, commanded a division of infantry in the Army of the Cumberland, and had his fair share of misfortune and disaster. Through it all he showed the qualities which afterward raised him to the rank of Lieutenant-General; yet, if the reader depended upon these pages for his information, he could not even tell whether Sheridan was a regular or volunteer, a graduate of the Military Academy, or promoted from the ranks of the army. Thomas J. Wood, a rugged veteran of excellent qualities, and varied fortunes, always at his post, sometimes successful and sometimes unsuccessful, but at all times and under all circumstances a brave, constant, and accomplished division and corps commander, likewise fails of recognition in these pages. It is true, he is censured for withdrawing from his place in line of battle at Chickamauga, in obedience to an order which it is contended that he misconstrued to the great peril of the army, but nothing is said of the long and faithful services by which he afterward atoned for his mistake, if mistake it was. Examples like these might readily be multiplied. Brief touches, a descriptive phrase like the "leading motives" with which Carlyle introduces the sea-green incorruptible or the rebellious needleman, a well-placed adjective, are all that we have a right to exact in narratives so condensed as these of the Scribner series. But even these are wanting in the uninspired performance before us.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 3, 1882.

The Week.

THE President in vetoing the River and Harbor Bill has performed an act which will gain him a good deal of applause, and save to the Republican party a great many votes this fall. His principal objection to the bill is that it contains appropriations "not for the com mon defence or general welfare, and which do not promote commerce among the States," but, on the contrary, are "entirely for the benefit of the particular localities in which it is proposed to make the improvements," and are consequently "beyond the powers given by the Constitution to Congress and the President." He recommends that "one-half of the aggregate amount provided for in the bill be appropriated for expenditure during the fiscal year, and that the sum so appropriated be expended only for such objects named in the bill as the Secretary of War, under the direction of the President, shall determine; provided, that in no case shall the expenditure for any one purpose exceed the sum now designated by the bill for that purpose." This is exactly what was done in the river and harbor appropriation of the year 1870, and would, of course, leave the actual expenditure entirely in the discretion of the President and the Secretary of War—a result which would kill most of the jobs in the bill, and thus disgust the very men who have been most active in engineering it through Congress. The political effect of the veto will be very wholesome. The most satisfactory thing about it is that for two years it will probably stop such scandalous jobbery as the River and Harbor Bill has come to involve. The log-rollers in Congress have received a plain notification from the White House that they must count on its disapproval of this sort of legislation when it reaches the proportions of a "steal." While the present Administration remains in power they will be obliged to exercise some forethought as to what sort of internal improvements the President will probably sanction, and to refrain from piling up appropriations, under the idea that they will thereby create a pressure which he cannot resist. This is a decided gain to the public, and the President deserves all the gratitude he is likely to get for the firmness he has shown.

The more the Attorney-General's opinion on the construction of the anti-assessment statute is examined, the more open does it appear to be to very serious criticism. The *Herald* points out that Congress in a very important statute has treated the word "officer" as embracing both Senators and Representatives. The second article of the Constitution empowers Congress to declare what "officer" shall act as President in case of a vacancy. The act of Congress now in force designates the President of the Senate or the Speaker of the House as the "officer" to take his place. Now, if the word as used in the Constitution —and this is what Mr. Brewster says—includes only executive officers, then the act of Congress is in excess of the powers conferred by the Constitution, and unconstitutional. No one has ever suggested anything of the sort before, and what it really shows is that the point decided by Mr. Brewster is a very doubful one, and should have been left by him to the courts to settle. By his opinion he virtually directs the district-attorneys not to prosecute, and he does this by declaring a construction to be perfectly plain when it is obviously doubtful.

The recent letter of Secretary Folger informing the poor clerks and employees of the Government that they might contribute just as freely as they liked to Mr. Hubbell and his blackmailing committee, now turns out, according to the result of researches set on foot by the *Times*, to have been a "put-up job." The letter was addressed to "A. Thomas, chief of a division, Second Comptroller's Office, Treasury Department," and, according to the *Times*, there is no such person in existence. The beauty of the discovery lies in the fact that this "A. Thomas" was addressed by Mr. Folger as one of a class of employees longing to contribute and restrained only by fear of the law. That such shifts as this should be resorted to by the Administration shows how little it understands the general feeling with regard to assessments. The only effect of its ingenious excuses for conniving at the practice is to deepen the disgust of the public, and to fasten upon itself a large share of the responsibility for an abuse which it pretends to discountenance.

The House Foreign-Relations Committee has drawn up its report on the Chili-Peru scandal. It says that as to the missing documents, "their loss suggests the propriety of greater caution on the part of those having such papers in charge," and moreover they have, with one exception, been replaced by correct copies. As to Mr. Morton's contract, "the Committee are clearly of the opinion that Mr. Morton has done nothing, and at no time had he the remotest intention of doing anything, which could compromise the honorable discharge of his official duties"; but at the same time "the scrupulousness manifested in his interview with Mr. Randall would have been sustained beyond possible contingency by his prohibition to his firm to have anything to do with this contract upon his first knowledge of the negotiations in regard thereto"—which, whether as a criticism or as an exoneration, is equally meaningless. Of course they are as bold as lions about Shipherd, and roundly denounce his impudent attempt to corrupt our Minister to Peru, Mr. Hurlbut. With regard to Senator Blair, they say they have nothing to do with him except as a witness, but still his testimony "causes them in no way to modify the opinion already expressed, that public officials cannot guard too scrupulously against engaging in enterprises where their private interests are, or may be, brought in direct conflict with their public duties." With this, Mr. Belmont, who dissents from some of the conclusions of the Committee, has, we take it, no fault to find. The report throws absolutely no new light on any of the matters discussed in it, and will fall perfectly flat, as the death of Mr. Hurlbut, and the removal of Mr. Blaine from the State Department, took from the inquiry much of the practical interest which it originally had.

It is not too much to say that the testimony of Mr. John A. Walsh in the Star-route cases, more than that of any other witness, has encouraged a public hope for the conviction of the defendants. Evidence before taken was technically important, but Mr. Walsh's brought the crime home to a member of the ring by his own confession. So strong an impression has been made by it that there will be a very general agreement with the Washington *Sunday Herald* in the opinion that some explanation is called for from the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia in regard to its singular indifference to this testimony. As the *Herald* says, "according to Walsh's account, which is corroborated by documentary evidence and attendant circumstances, the Second Assistant Postmaster-General, having coolly attempted to treat a bona-fide loan of $36,000 as a bribe accepted by him in his official capacity, Walsh, whose sole anxiety, as he claims, was to get his money back and escape from all entanglement with the ring, was compelled to bring suit publicly in the courts." This testimony has been admitted as competent evidence in the case now on trial. Its effect is so important that the defendants' counsel made a determined effort to break the witness down; yet the Grand Jury dismissed the same testimony when given before it as of no value. Certainly that body, "far from vindicating anybody else," should make some effort "to vindicate itself" if possible.

The discussion in the Star-route trials between Judge and counsel over the propriety of punishing some of the Washington newspapers for their attacks on witnesses would have been more fruitful if the powers of the Court to punish for contempt had been made plain. The Star-route organs have been, ever since the trials began, engaged in pouring out a steady stream of abuse upon everybody connected with the prosecution, and lately they have begun to attempt to deter witnesses from coming forward by the foulest vituperation of those who have testified in favor of the Government. Walsh, for instance, whose testimony has been most damaging to the defendants, has been accused of perjury, and the late Postmaster-General disposed of as "lying Tom James." Such publications are, as Mr. Merrick said, obviously intended to frighten other witnesses from giving testimony, and place the Government at a great disadvantage in obtaining witnesses, as men at all sensitive to their reputation must shrink from exposing themselves to such vile abuse. He therefore asked leave to file a motion, to be called up at some future time, against a number of newspaper men connected with the *Critic* and *Capital*, to show cause why they should not be

punished for contempt. Judge Wylie granted the motion, but at the same time suggested that the "Act of 1831" might make it impossible to do anything. This Act is, we suppose, the United States Statute of March 2, 1831 (U. S. R. S., sec. 725), restricting the power of courts to punish for contempt to cases of "the misbehavior of any person in their presence, or so near thereto as to obstruct the administration of justice, the misbehavior of any of the officers of said courts in their official transactions, and the disobedience or resistance by any such officer, or by any party, juror, witness, or other person to any lawful writ, process, order, rule, decree, or command of the said courts." As this statute relates solely to the courts of the United States, and the Star-route trials are being conducted by the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, it is hard to see why its provisions should have any bearing upon the case at all. If the District courts have the common-law power to punish for contempt, Judge Wylie can undoubtedly make the editors and managers of the Star-route organs in Washington suffer, and probably keep them quiet; but if not, the discussion of the matter will reveal the same sort of judicial impotence which rendered the Court's attempts to preserve order during the Guiteau trial so ineffectual.

After granting Mr. Merrick's motion, Mr. Totten, one of the defendants' counsel, in order to offset its effect, called attention to the wicked proceedings of the New York newspapers, and the "scandalous articles and reflections upon the Court itself" appearing in them "from day to day," upon which the Court proceeded to deliver a very funny lecture on the newspapers. It declared that "honest and upright men had ceased to pay any attention to them," and that so far from having any influence upon the Court, "they would be treated with the utmost contempt." As to the New York "dailies," he said, "it would not do to set off one crime against another," but that the New York papers as well as the Washington papers "would be liable to punishment if the charges were true." On the whole, he said, "it seemed impossible to have a fair trial in this country any way, because of the newspapers." Now, it is usual for courts of justice which undertake to discipline offenders to confine themselves to their own jurisdiction, and the jurisdiction of Judge Wylie does not extend beyond the District. Moreover, the idea which he seems to entertain, that general discussion and criticism of state trials in which the public has an important stake—and this is the sort of discussion of the Star-route cases that has been going on, not only in the New York "dailies" but in the wicked newspapers all over the country—is illegal, or, as he says, renders fair trials impossible, is a very singular notion for a lawyer to hold. The policy of the law in this country has been for years to encourage such discussion, as the general condition of the law with regard to contempt clearly shows. In this State, for instance, the Revised Statutes limit the power very much as the United States Statutes do—that is, to actual interference with or resistance to the administration of justice in court. The power to punish for "constructive" contempts has fallen into disuse or been abolished all over the country, and the only attempt made to revive it in this State was at the instance of the Tweed Ring, when they began to find the criticisms of the newspapers made their position and power insecure.

The Liberal combination in North Carolina is more likely to command sympathy among the Republicans of the Union than the Mahone movement in Virginia. People who are very anxious that there shall be "equal rights," a "free ballot," and a "fair count," and to that end would regard with complacency the breaking up of the Bourbon party, are very unwilling, even for that purpose, to seem to countenance schemes of repudiation. In respect of North Carolina, however, Republican sympathy is not exposed to such a trial. While there is in that State full play for opposition to Bourbon methods, the movement is not handicapped by any objectionable principle or practice. So far as the party platform is concerned, the canvass turns chiefly on the question whether county and township officers shall be elected by the people, but there will enter into it the more general question whether the whole policy of the State shall be controlled by the new and vigorous spirit of the time, or shall be founded on the study of political antiquities. The Liberal party has declared against the prohibition measure, and the declaration certainly will not weaken the party among the Democrats. Many of these, including influential men, have already united with it, eight Democratic newspapers are supporting it, and there is before it a fair prospect of success. The Democratic majority, under the old party lines, was reduced from 17,308 in 1876 to 8,326 in 1880. If, with a vigorous organization offering hospitality to independent Democrats as well as Republicans, this majority should be effaced, the downfall of Bourbonism would be unaccompanied with the prevalence of any bad doctrine such as repudiation.

The Hon. Luke Poland has accepted the Republican nomination for the Second Vermont District, in a speech in which he declares that he shall devote himself, if elected, to seeing that "the raising of funds to carry on the Government" is properly attended to, and to carrying "the results of the war to their ultimate ends and ultimate conclusions, until real freedom, the real right to the ballot, and the real right to participate as citizens in the Government shall be given to every man, black or white." He assured his audience that he knew all about "the severe nature of the duties which devolve upon the position of a Congressman," and the loud and continued applause with which his remarks were received showed that his audience took the same view of them that he does. Mr. Poland is an old man, and in the course of his speech took pains to guard against the suspicion that he might be "partially demented," but we see no evidence of dementia in his remarks. His speech is a model candidate's speech; it commits him to nothing, and shows him to be in the full possession of his mature powers as a politician.

Judge Haight's refusal to issue a writ of mandamus to compel the railroads to receive and carry freight is placed upon grounds which, to say the least, are not clearly stated. The chief reason he assigns for his decision is a distinction between the duties of a railroad, which the State imposes by giving a charter, and its duties as a common carrier. The courts have held that the writ of mandamus will issue to compel a railroad corporation to operate the whole road as one continuous line; to compel the running of passenger trains to the terminus of the road; to compel a corporation to deliver grain at an elevator standing upon the line of the road, consigned to it in bulk; to compel it to run daily trains; to compel the replacement of a track taken up in violation of its charter; to compel it to construct its road across streams so as not to interfere with navigation; to compel it to build a bridge. But the right to become a common carrier, says Judge Haight, "does not pertain to or emanate from the Government," for "every citizen, without grant or license, has the right to carry persons or property from point to point within the State upon such terms or for such compensation as shall be agreed upon."

This is perfectly true, but it is hard to see what bearing it has on the case. Every citizen may become a common carrier if he likes, but he cannot get a charter to operate a railroad except from the State; and this is the only reason he goes to the State for one. His relation to the public, however, is precisely the same, whether he acts under corporate powers obtained from the Legislature or sets up as a common carrier on his own account. In either case the duty he undertakes to perform is a public one. The difference between the two cases is that if he has no charter, the State cannot interfere with him. As a matter of fact, of course, it is usually incorporated companies which act as common carriers, but the case of a private person undertaking to transact such a business, as for instance a stage line, is not by any means unknown. In such a case, if the proprietor were suddenly to stop business, it is very true that no one would think of applying for a mandamus; but the reason of this is that the State has never conferred any authority upon him at all. A railroad exists only by permission of the State, and derives all its powers from the Legislature. If the business of a common carrier is so private that the courts have no power to compel any corporation which assumes it to receive and carry freight, how is it that they have power to compel a railroad to operate a continuous line, or run passenger trains to the terminus, or to run daily trains? This is all part of the general business of carrying, and if mandamus applies in one case, why should it not apply in all?

The movement of Mr. James E. Kelly, who is described as "the veteran bookmaker," to have Mr. Francis T. Walton, well known as "the plunger," ruled off the grounds and premises controlled by the Racing Association of America has many points of analogy with that taken by the enemies of Mr. Hutchinson, who was recently expelled from mem-

bership of the Stock Exchange. Both were accused of violating the rules of the game. Both belonged to associations not incorporated by the Legislature—associations of a voluntary sort entirely, membership of which was nevertheless valuable in dollars and cents, and therefore held by good lawyers to be under the protection of the courts. The analogy goes somewhat further, for whereas Mr. Hutchinson considers the loss of his seat (valued at $30,000) a trifle compared with the injury done to his reputation, so Mr. Kelly has presented to Mr. Walton a vivid but ineffectual picture of the disgrace he must suffer if he should be ruled off the race-tracks of the country—ineffectual because Mr. Walton appears to be wholly insensible to the degradation. "Men who were ruled off," said Mr. Kelly with deep solemnity, "always went to the dogs; they were shunned by all their old associates, and cases were known where the wife and children of such a man had refused to recognize him." Mr. Kelly added that he had no personal feeling in the case, but he deemed it a duty for somebody to expose Mr. Walton's practices as a corrupter of jockeys, and he felt that he could afford to undertake the task. The reply of Mr. Walton to this friendly admonition, as recorded by Mr. Kelly, "that he (Walton) proposed to make money," shows how far the hardening process has gone since Mr. Walton returned from the other side of the water, laden with the spoils of the English turf. When the prospect of going to the dogs and being spurned by wife and children is received with a laugh, there is no lower deep for a "plunger" to plunge into.

A circus clown has been telling a St. Louis newspaper that the best days of the circus are over. One of the reasons he gives for thinking so is that, for success in the circus, training must begin early in life, and the societies for the prevention of cruelty to children are so active that they prevent anything of the kind. There may be something in this; but a more serious difficulty, we fancy, is that the part taken in the performance by the clown is much less attractive than it formerly was, owing to the fact that a great deal of the talent which once found its way into this business now goes into journalism, the mental outfit of a really able "funny man" being very much what that of a successful clown used to be. The press makes a business of supplying daily just such jokes as the circus used to provide, and ambitious humorists, who would formerly have worn stripes and spangles in the ring, now entertain the public through a newspaper. The clown proper has consequently run down, because the profession no longer attracts the best humor, as any one may satisfy himself by going and listening to a modern clown trying to make jokes. There is obviously no remedy for this decay, which really gives a new illustration of the wonderful power of the press.

In Wall Street the week has been active, but the changes in prices were not so important as during the week before. The crop news continues to be excellent, the estimates of the wheat crop running up to 600,000,000 bushels, and the latest indications being that the corn crop will not fall far short of an average yield. All this promises an extraordinary tonnage for the railroads, and lays a foundation for good business for all classes of merchants. There were one or two downward reactions in the stock market, but the investing and speculating public were so confident of higher prices that they continued buyers of stocks, and the demand from them sustained the market. United States bonds were strong for the long issues and lower for the short-date issues, which are to be funded into three per cent. bonds, the applications for the latter having begun on the first day of August. The foreign demand for American securities has been moderate. The banks again reduced their surplus reserve, leaving it at $5,381,025, but this had little influence, as, on Tuesday, the 1st inst., the Treasury began the disbursement of $15,000,000 of cash for called bonds, and $3,500,000 for interest. Exchange on London and the Continent tended downward during the week, and in well-informed quarters the opinion was expressed that, later in the year, gold would be imported. General trade for the autumn is opening well at all the wholesale centres of distribution.

The great event of the week in foreign affairs has been the end of the Anglo-French alliance and, almost simultaneously, of the Conference. The decisive overthrow of the Freycinet Ministry, on the question of a special credit for the defence of the Suez Canal, is a complete abandonment of the common action which the *status quo* in Egypt created by the Financial Control logically called for. The retirement of Russia from the Conference, on the ground that its proper business is exclusively the maintenance of the Canal, gives the finishing stroke to an absurd body which has only served to paralyze England's military operations on the Nile. We shall now hear no more of the "European mandate," nor of volunteer agents to carry it out. The only "Europe" which has any mandates to give is the quadruple concert (so formidable in the eyes of France) of Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia. This Europe is friendly to the preservation of the Canal, and will not object to England's insuring it at her own expense. It is doubtful if the four Powers have any real desire to see the Porte intervene in the Egyptian mêlée, either as plenary suzerain, or with "mandatory" sanctions and restrictions. Their long endurance of the Financial Control makes it improbable that the inevitable decision on England's part to play the game alone, and reject Turkish assistance after having sought it, will incur their opposition or even censure. Russia, certainly, is very glad to resume her old rôle of the Sultan's best friend and adviser; and the prospect of Indian troops once more sailing up the Red Sea cannot but remind her of Beaconsfield's preposterous but irritating demonstration, and encourage her to offer what passive obstruction she can to England's aggrandizing adventure. On the other hand, France's abstention, for obvious reasons, must give secret satisfaction to Germany and Italy. For the present, the upshot of the matter is that no Continental power will lend a man for the pacification of Egypt or to guard the Canal, and that Arabi has to account with England alone.

The debates on the earlier vote of credit in the French House were a curious revelation of the state of feeling in that country. Minister Freycinet was blamed for his vacillation between a cordial understanding with England and an anxiety to secure the approval of Europe; for his running counter to French history and traditions in consenting to the Turk's return to Egypt; for having forfeited France's equal share in the direction of Egypt, by holding aloof from the bombardment of Alexandria; and for begging employment as the agent of "Europe," when that term simply meant Bismarck. M. Lockroy bitterly compared the situation to that in 1840, when Thiers was ready to fight all the Powers in support of Egyptian independence of the Porte. Gambetta ardently sustained the vote of credit, but complained that it was too small; praised Freycinet for his desire to cherish the alliance with England, which had been the object of his own famous and much-decried note of January 7; and justly ridiculed the "guarantees" which the Premier had kept in reserve with regard to Turkish interference. He insisted on giving the Ministry the fullest scope for acting during the recess of the Parliament as the crisis demanded. Apparently, French "honor" and "glory" were never more in question, by the testimony of all the speakers in opposition; yet the overwhelming majority on the vote for the Canal credit signified both a want of confidence in Freycinet, and an utter want of sympathy with Gambetta's warlike policy. In fact, the vote was a second defeat for this leader, as showing that he did not hold a divided empire with the party in power. He had not behind him even M. Lockroy, who, in spite of his historical allusions to Thiers, showed no disposition to complete the parallel between 1840 and 1882 by shouting, "To the Rhine!"

England's isolation is, from a military point of view, not wholly a loss to her. She gains freedom of action as regards France and as regards the Porte, and is hampered now chiefly by the assumed necessity of proving her disinterestedness by working through the nominal authority of the Khedive. The situation which periodically grows out of the fiction that Turkey is the peer of the other European Powers gives rise to the same sort of inconsistencies and embarrassments which marked our early dealings with the States in rebellion. The great weakness for the first few years of the Federal operations was caused by Northern anxiety to maintain the Constitutional privileges of States which were actively at work destroying the Constitution. In like manner the Porte, intriguing with Arabi against Tewfik, has cunningly delayed and weakened the blows of England, by claiming his full rights as suzerain of the Khedive. This humbug cannot last much longer, even if ironclads have to be sent to Constantinople as well as Alexandria—a by no means impossible contingency, should the Porte now insist on sending troops to Egypt on any pretext.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 26, to TUESDAY, August 1, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President, on Tuesday afternoon, sent to the House of Representatives a veto of the River and Harbor Bill, because "it contains appropriations not for the common defence or general welfare, and which do not promote commerce among the States"—which is an infraction of the Constitution.

Representative Flower, of New York, has introduced a Constitutional amendment, giving the President power to veto separate items of appropriation bills.

In the Senate on Wednesday, Mr. Lapham, of New York, said that the Committee on Foreign Relations had learned that large amounts of capital had been invested in the taking of fish for the manufacture of oil and fertilizers, and that the vessels engaged in this trade, it was asserted, seriously interfered with the food fisheries on the Atlantic coast. He therefore offered a resolution, which was adopted, that five members of the Committee be appointed to investigate the matter, during the recess, in conjunction with the Fish Commission.

The desultory debate on the Internal-Revenue Bill, which threatened to prolong indefinitely the session of Congress, was brought to a sudden close on Wednesday. Mr. Hale, of Maine, a Republican, moved to postpone all present and prior orders, to take up the Naval Appropriation Bill. Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, made a vigorous speech, insisting that the Revenue Bill be proceeded with. In the further progress of the debate the position of the friends of the bill was commented on as a virtual abandonment of it. When a vote was finally taken on Mr. Hale's resolution, it resulted—yeas, 34; nays, 26; six Republicans voting with the Democrats in favor of the motion. It is said that the knowledge that the Revenue Bill would meet its death in the House contributed to its virtual defeat in the Senate.

A motion to recommit the Naval Appropriation Bill, for the purpose of striking out the new legislation, was defeated in the Senate on Thursday, the vote being 29 to 34. In executive session, the Senate reconsidered the vote by which it had refused to confirm the President's nomination of Mr. Lanning, a Stalwart, as postmaster at Penn Yan, N. Y. He was then confirmed, by a vote of 25 to 20, thirteen Republicans voting against confirmation. Senator Miller, of New York, vigorously opposed the confirmation, attacking Postmaster-General Howe's course in lobbying for the confirmation.

On Friday the Senate passed bills in regard to the pay of letter-carriers, and ordering additional copies printed of the Tenth Census reports. It then engaged in a wearisome discussion of the Naval Appropriation Bill. The Deuster bill to regulate the carriage of passengers at sea was passed without objection on Saturday. It is constructed in accordance with the President's suggestions in his recent veto of a similar bill. When the Naval Appropriation Bill was taken up, Senator Beck offered an amendment, reducing from $1,000,000 to $400,000 the amount appropriated for completing the *Miantonomoh* and launching the four other monitors; prohibiting the completion of those four vessels until further orders of Congress, and directing the Naval Advisory Board to report as to the advisability of their completion. The amendment was adopted, by a vote of 27 to 22; the clause of the bill abolishing the rank of commodore was stricken out. The bill was passed as amended on Monday. The Emigrant, or "Head-Money," Bill was passed without opposition. The Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was under discussion on Monday and Tuesday.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday was principally occupied with the consideration of conference reports. The Committee on the General Deficiency Appropriation Bill reported that it had been unable to agree with a similar Senate Committee on the question of the payment of mileage to Senators for attendance at the extra session. The House refused to recede, and a further conference was ordered. The House also insisted on its disagreement with the Senate on the provision in the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill for the transfer of the records of the Surgeon-General's office to the Adjutant-General's office. The conference report on the River and Harbor Bill was then taken up and agreed to—yeas, 111; nays, 82.

After a long discussion, the House, on Thursday, passed the bill granting a right of way through the Choctaw Indian nation Territory to the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad Company.

On Friday the House adjourned over until Monday, without transacting any important business. This is unprecedented at this stage of the session, but it is said that the action was taken because the House was afraid to trust itself with its own business, and, further, that it wished to stir up the Senate to activity. The House on Monday referred the bill placing General Grant on the Army retired list to the Committee on Military Affairs. This disposes of it for the present session.

A report on the recent Chili-Peruvian investigation was unanimously adopted, on Tuesday, by the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House of Representatives. It exonerates all officers of the United States from being improperly connected with business transactions which aimed at the intervention of the United States Government in the affairs of Chili and Peru as a part of those financial schemes.

Erastus Clark, Postmaster of Utica, a "Half-Breed," has been removed, and J. T. Stephens, a Stalwart, nominated by President Arthur for the place. The nomination is purely political, and the hand that moved it is said to be Mr. Conkling's.

Postmaster-General Howe has issued an order for stamping all packages of bonds for exchange into three per cents with the day, hour, and minute at which they are mailed at any post-office. This is done so that priority of application can be accurately determined. The orders will be filled according to this priority.

The entire collections of internal-revenue taxes for the past fiscal year, amounting to $146,520,273 71, have been accounted for and turned into the Treasury.

It is said that the Government has expressed a willingness to arbitrate on the Mexico-Guatemala boundary question, on the joint application of those nations, after they shall have definitely determined the exact question they wish decided.

General Grant has addressed a letter to Chairman Williams, of the House Foreign Affairs Committee, urging the payment of the Japanese Indemnity.

The Star-route trials progressed rapidly in Washington during the week, the prosecution bringing their case to a close with some important evidence. On Wednesday, a discussion took place as to fixing bail for Price, who is indicted as one of the conspirators with Brady. He is now a fugitive in Canada. His counsel urged that he was under surgical treatment, and could not appear in person. Judge Wylie decided that he would have to go before a commission and give bail to appear at the proper time, and that the Court could not fix the bail in his absence. Mr. Merrick, for the prosecution, on Thursday, moved for a rule upon Mr. A. C. Buell, the editor of the Washington *Capital*, to show cause why he should not be punished for contempt of court, in publishing an article accusing Mr. Walsh of perjury, and using other abusive and libellous language. These articles, Mr. Merrick said, were intended to intimidate and frighten other witnesses, who would not care to become the objects of such abuse. He therefore wished to file motions and call them at the proper time. The Court gave permission to file the motions. Walsh was then recalled, and made some corrections in his testimony. Several bank officers from New York and Washington were examined as to the accounts of Brady, Dorsey, Miner, and other defendants. The prosecution closed its case on Friday, but the defence were not ready to proceed, and they asked for an adjournment until Monday, which was granted.

In the Star-route trials on Monday, the defence presented ex-Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, Representative Valentine, of Nebraska, and Secretary Teller as witnesses. They testified that frequently they had urged expedition upon Mr. Brady, when he was in the Postmaster-General's Department, and that they believed that such expedition of routes was warranted.

At Long Branch, the Tariff Commission has been holding daily sessions. On Wednesday, Mr. Henry F. French, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, appeared and made a preliminary statement of the ambiguities in the existing tariff laws, and of the difficulties and litigations to which they give rise. Mr. Everett P. Wheeler, representing the New York Free-Trade Club, also addressed the Committee, urging the diminution or abolition of the duty on raw materials. Mr. Joseph Wharton, of Philadelphia, combated his arguments. The quinine manufacturers had their interests presented before the Commission on Thursday. They contended that the abolition of the duty had not been of benefit to the consumer. The flax industry sent representatives on Friday to make arguments in favor of continuing or increasing the present tariff rates on the raw material as well as on manufactured goods. The dealers in foreign periodicals made a plea on Saturday that all newspapers and unbound magazines be put on the free list. A protest was made, on Monday, against the high tariff on chemicals.

The freight-handlers, who have been on a strike for six weeks in this city and Jersey City, have been encouraged within the past few days by a number of German laborers, who had been employed in their stead, going on a strike for the rates demanded by the original malcontents. On Wednesday, a serious street row took place on the corner of Broadway and Canal Street, between some newly-employed Italians and the strikers. Several of the former were wounded. Toward the end of the week, many of the strikers returned to work, and comparative quiet was restored.

A decision was rendered on Friday, by Judge Haight, of the New York Supreme Court, in the case of the people against the New York Central and New York, Lake Erie and Western Railways, for an order to show cause why a peremptory writ of mandamus should not issue to compel the railroads to receive and transport freight as common carriers. The proceedings were begun to find a way out of the difficulties of the freight-handlers' strike, and compel the companies to receive the freight offered. Judge Haight decided that "it is not in the power of the Court to look into the future and determine the kinds or quantities of freight that will be hereafter presented for transportation, and by an order to specify how and in what manner the same shall be carried, or what kinds shall take preference." The decision asserted that the neglect to transport freight was a private wrong, for which the citizen is entitled to recover in an action at law for damages, but that it is not such a public wrong as will authorize the issuing of the writ of mandamus. The motion to quash was granted.

The Independent Republican State Committee of Pennsylvania met in Philadelphia on Thursday and rejected the four Stalwart propositions for a compromise, on the ground that they afforded no guarantee that, being accepted, the principles upon which the Independent Republicans have taken their stand would be treated with respect or put into action. This

will probably be the last of the compromise measures in Pennsylvania, unless the Stalwarts accede to the proposition of the four Independent candidates, made in their letter of July 13.

The Missouri Democratic State Convention met on Wednesday and nominated Thomas C. Sherwood for Judge of the Supreme Court, and William E. Coleman for Superintendent of Public Schools. The platform demands civil-service reform, and the reduction of all duties to a basis only necessary to secure public revenue. The temperance question is met by an assertion that the party is "in favor of the largest personal liberty consistent with the public welfare."

The Virginia Straight-Out Republican Committee decided, on Wednesday, not to call a State Convention, but themselves nominated the Rev. J. M. Dawson, an educated Baptist clergyman, for Congressman-at-large. They adopted a platform renewing allegiance to the National Republican party, and deploring the alliance of the Administration with the Virginia Readjusters.

The Delaware Republicans have nominated Albert Curry for Governor, and Washington Hastings for Congressman-at-large. The platform favors civil-service reform and a protective tariff, and expresses confidence in President Arthur's Administration.

A despatch from Utah announces that "a wholesale persecution of the Gentiles" by the Mormons has been begun, and arrangements have been made for testing the constitutionality of the Edmunds act. If the decision be adverse, the Mormons have determined not to submit. All polygamists have, under orders, resigned from all municipal offices, and monogamists who are strong believers in Mormonism have been commissioned in their places. The prominent polygamists are living openly with only one wife.

A secret organization is being formed in Arizona and New Mexico to wipe out the Apache Indians.

There is great mortality in Alaska from a plague, a combination of scarlet fever and measles. Commander Pearson, of the United States steamer *Wachusett*, is severely censured for taking both surgeons away from Sitka and leaving no medicine.

Intense heat has prevailed in this city and throughout the country for the past week. On Friday, the thermometer in New York reached 99° in the shade. The death-rate has been very great. 194 deaths were reported on Thursday, about fifty per cent. of which were due to heat; on Friday there were 184 deaths, and on Saturday 218. The total for the week was 1,217. The death-rate for the past three weeks has been higher than during any successive three weeks since 1854, the cholera year. In 1872 there was one week in which the deaths reached 1,500, but the next week there was a great falling off. The temperature declined to 87 on Saturday noon, and more moderate weather ensued.

FOREIGN.

During the week Egyptian affairs have progressed slowly. The time has been spent mostly in active preparations for further hostilities by Arabi Pasha and England; in procrastination and duplicity by the Porte; in vacillation and internal dissensions by the French Government. On Wednesday it was announced that the Porte had finally consented to send troops to restore order in Egypt, but a later interpretation of the announcement showed that the Porte merely recognized the appropriateness of the suggestion to send troops, and wanted further time for the discussion of the conditions under which they should be sent. Mr. Gladstone intimated, in a speech in the House of Commons, that the Government would not consent to the British force occupying a secondary position in case Turkey did send troops. On Thursday the Turkish delegates declared, at a sitting of the Conference in Constantinople, that Turkey was ready to despatch troops to Egypt immediately, under the conditions of the identical note, but immediately expressed the hope that England would withdraw her forces from that country. England demanded, through Lord Dufferin, a specific date for the despatch of the troops, and, before their despatch, a proclamation upholding Tewfik, the Khedive, and denouncing Arabi Pasha as a rebel. The Sultan, replying to these demands, on Saturday, said that the request for proclaiming Arabi a rebel should not be made by England alone, but should proceed from the Conference of the Powers, in which case it would receive due consideration. Mukhtar Pasha has already made arrangements which will enable the Porte to despatch 20,000 men to Egypt in successive detachments.

Active operations around Alexandria during the week were of little importance. On Thursday the news was published of an attempt to surprise the British outposts at Ramleh, which had been unsuccessfully made on Tuesday night, July 25. Under cover of the darkness, 600 Egyptians approached close to the British lines, but the Thirty-eighth regiment opened fire upon them, and they fled precipitately. On Thursday morning a great fire broke out in the native quarter of Alexandria, near Zaptieth. A large block of buildings was burned. The fire was subdued in about two hours. It was the work of Arab incendiaries. The British lines were extended a mile and a half beyond the pickets at Ramleh, on Thursday, in order to occupy a house on the banks of the Mahmudieh Canal.

A large powder magazine at Mekherrom, from which it was said Arabi had recently taken his stores, was blown up by the British on Saturday. The fort at Gabari was destroyed on the morning of the same day. Osman Pasha and twenty-six Circassian officers, who were implicated in the recent plot to assassinate Arabi, arrived on Saturday at Alexandria for Constantinople, having been summoned by the Khedive. They were received with great honor.

An unconfirmed report was spread in London on Friday that Arabi Pasha had proposed terms of peace, the conditions being voluntary exile and the retention of the rank and pay of colonel for himself and nine of his colleagues. He offered to retire to a Mussulman monastery in Syria. It was also rumored that he said he would not resist Turkish troops operating without European auxiliaries. It was announced in the House of Commons that there had been indirect communications with a view to the surrender of the military party, but there had been no direct conference with Arabi. The rumors caused Egyptian stock to rise four points. On Friday evening another rumor was spread in the House of Commons that the Sultan had made overtures to Great Britain, looking to the transfer of Egypt to England on the same terms as those on which Cyprus changed hands. On Saturday it was denied that a deputation of rebels from Kafr-el-Dwar, which arrived in Alexandria on Friday, had been the bearers of compromise proposals. The Porte also denied that it had received any announcement from Arabi of his submission.

M. de Lesseps has caused considerable trouble at Port Saïd, at the entrance of the Suez Canal. Early last week the inhabitants of the Arab villages attempted to enter the European quarter, but were repulsed by the military. The French Consul then applied to the French Admiral Conrad for protection for French subjects. He, in turn, asked the English Rear-Admiral to make a joint occupation to preserve order. M. de Lesseps appeared upon the scene and violently abused the French Consul for asking occupation; he said that this was playing into the hands of the English. The French Admiral then refused to land marines. On Thursday M. de Lesseps telegraphed to Arabi, telling him that he had sent a despatch to the French Premier, assuring him that the Canal was in no danger, and that if he would make him the representative of France at Port Saïd, he would insure the safety of European life and property and the security of the Canal. Arabi replied that he would do all in his power to protect the Canal as long as England respected its neutrality.

The House of Commons on Thursday voted the credit for the Egyptian expedition—yeas, 275, nays, 19. A supplementary vote for 10,000 men for the Army was also agreed to.

Both the French Chamber of Deputies and the Senate had voted 7,000,000 francs for naval preparations, but on Wednesday the Committee of the Chamber rejected a proposal for a second credit of 9,500,000 francs for protective measures in Egypt. The Committee also defeated a motion that M. de Freycinet should not make the matter a Cabinet question. In the Chamber of Deputies on Saturday, M. de Freycinet moved the vote of credit, and said it was a question of confidence in the Cabinet. In spite of the appeal, the credit was rejected by a vote of 450 to 75. The Ministry then tendered their resignations to President Grévy. He requested them to transact the business of their offices until the appointment of their successors. The new Ministry has not yet been announced.

M. Say, French Minister of Finance, has asserted that it will be impossible this year to convert the five per cent. rentes.

M. Onou, the Russian representative, informed the Conference, on Monday, that Russia considered the Egyptian question divided into two distinct parts, and that he was instructed only to participate when the Suez Canal question was being considered. This seemed to put an end to the Conference, but on Tuesday he was ordered to rejoin the Powers in council. Russia is said to be jealous of England's independent attitude.

The information reached England and this country last week that a man giving his name as William Westgate had been arrested at Puerto Cabello, Venezuela, who acknowledged that he was one of the murderers of Lord Frederic Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The names of three of his accomplices and other details of the murder were taken by deposition before the British Consul. Westgate confessed that he left Dublin, on the night of May 6, by steamer. He said that he was employed by influential persons to do the deed, and that each of the assassins received $100. It has been ascertained in Dublin that Westgate, or O'Brien, as he is also called, sailed from Northwall ten minutes before the tragedy occurred in Dublin, and that some of his friends were with him for an hour before the vessel sailed. The authorities are therefore confident that he is innocent.

The Arrears of Rent Bill passed its third reading in the House of Lords on Tuesday. Several amendments, moved and carried by the Conservatives, seriously affect the relief afforded the tenant by the Act. Mr. Gladstone will move in the House that they be not accepted.

Mr. Gladstone has announced in the House of Commons that the Government has abandoned the hope of passing the Corrupt Practices Bill this session.

In Ireland the weather has improved recently, and the prospect for crops is again promising. Though the potato blight has appeared in badly drained ground, there is a splendid crop in most parts of the country.

Lord Coleridge, Lord Chief-Justice of England, has accepted an invitation from the New York Bar Association to visit this city next year.

Minister Marsh's body arrived in Rome on Friday and was received with great honor. It was deposited in the mortuary chapel at the Protestant cemetery, where it will be buried in September.

A very successful first performance of Richard Wagner's new opera, "Parsifal," was given in the Bavarian city of Baireuth on Wednesday.

THE WORK OF CONGRESS.

AFTER an eight months' session, Congress is preparing to go home, and, indeed, it may be regarded as having already adjourned, for there are so few Congressmen left in Washington that the transaction of any new business is impossible. The "record" of the session is a shocking one. In general legislation, although there were many subjects which urgently called for it, little has been done. The Bankruptcy Bill, demanded by the leading commercial bodies of the country, and the bills for the relief of the Supreme Court—the failure to consider which, in the present condition of the docket of the court, amounts to a substantial denial of justice—have been hustled out of the way, in spite of protests from all quarters. The tariff has been disposed of in what must be considered a ludicrous manner, by being handed over to a commission of "experts," these being merely representatives of the various interests and industries which usually get tariffs through Congress by influence and combinations, and which is really only a selected lobby. Of general legislation there has, with the exception of the Bank Charter Extension Act, been almost none, and that act Congress was compelled to pass, because, otherwise, the entire business of the country would have received a violent shock.

But Congress has not been idle ; on the contrary, it has been very busy. It has done more business than any legislative body in the United States for many years. The expenditures for the fiscal year ending with June, 1883, excluding principal and interest of the public debt, are fixed at $294,513,639. The increase over last year's outlay is a little less than $78,000,000, and over that of the year before more than $100,000,000.

The River and Harbor Bill has grown from something more than $11,000,000 to $18,743,875—an increase of more than $7,000,000. The sum called for to make good deficiencies is nearly $24,000,000 more than was needed last year, of which $16,000,000 is for pensions. We believe the only appropriation cut down this year is that for fortifications. The Naval Bill, as it came from the House of Representatives, showed an increase upon last year of nearly eight hundred thousand dollars. Before it passed the Senate, the amount authorized to be expended upon unfinished and probably worthless monitors was cut down from one million to four hundred thousand dollars. But the Naval Bill, even as the Senate has amended it, appropriates more money than was spent last year. Other of the regular appropriation bills show an increase in the following fashion over those of last year :

Army	$570,200
Legislative, Executive, and Judicial	2,076,312
Sundry Civil	2,062,992
Indians	629,134
Military Academy	11,565
Post-office	3,686,468
Consular and Diplomatic	65,220

Not only has the main work of the session been the increase of the appropriations, but it has been done in a peculiarly barefaced way, and with a sort of defiance of public opinion that is more like what used to go on at Albany during the Ring period in this city than anything that has been hitherto seen at Washington. The River and Harbor Bill is on its face such a huge job that no public defence of it has been attempted, and the Naval Bill was put in charge of a man notorious all over the country for his maladministration of the Navy Department. As if to emphasize this outrage upon the public, Mr. Robeson was allowed by the majority not merely to manage the legislation, but actually to appear as leader of the House. The appeal to the President to veto the River and Harbor Bill came from the public, and, as every one knows, has been secretly but earnestly resisted by all the members of Congress who are interested in the appropriations it makes —that is, a great majority of them. In fact, when the veto came, the House at once passed the bill again by a more than two-thirds vote.

Although the showing this year, however, is worse than usual, it is so only in degree. It attracts more attention because the figures are more startling, not because any one believes that the members of the present Congress are made of different material from their predecessors. It is obvious, too, that while they remain of the same material—that is, while they are in so large measure obscure men, who look upon politics just as the average man looks on any branch of trade which he may take up, who are seldom removed by the possession of any considerable wealth from the reach of pecuniary temptation, and who are of course entirely callous on the subject of less gross sorts of corruption—this sort of thing must continue, unless it is checked in some way. Our legislation will be in the same class of hands for many a long year. A good deal might undoubtedly be done by a Constitutional amendment giving the President the right to veto separate items in the appropriation bills. This experiment has been tried in New York with complete success. The responsibility which the power places in the hands of the Executive, and the corresponding public watchfulness of his exercise of it, force him to devote to the appropriations a minute attention, and to examine into their fairness and expediency. The result is that a large number of bad jobs are annually killed, and the reasons for their being killed made public. What has happened at Albany would undoubtedly happen at Washington if the President had this power, and it is hard to believe that even with our very cumbrous machinery for adopting Constitutional amendments the change would not be effected in time by any resolute member of Congress who should devote himself to it. Until it is introduced, such measures as the River and Harbor job and the Buildings appropriation, to say the least, will be perpetuated. Members of Congress are not left at home by their constituents for voting for these, because in each district the appropriations create a corrupt influence at the back of the member; the unpopularity among his constituents caused by his helping them out of the national treasury is never likely to be very great.

To any one who considers the conditions which have led to the present state of affairs, the annual exhortations addressed to Congressmen to reform and devote more time to general legislation and less to contriving dodges for having money spent in their districts, seem very idle. This is, as any one can see by looking at half-a-dozen speeches of candidates for Congress, the very thing they go to Washington for. The only thing that can be done to reform them is to give them some reason for devoting their attention to better things. Now, the reason that they find it for their interest to behave as they do is, that experience has shown them that in securing nominations what they need is not the support of the thinking people of the district, but that of the "boys"; and the way to get that is to have as much money spent in the district as possible. Why Jake and Barney and Mike prefer to have a man sent to Congress who knows how to get through appropriations, and look with suspicion on the "gentlemen" and "reformers" in politics who talk about the necessity of attending to general legislation, and making taxation lighter, and revising the tariff, is too obvious to need explanation. The view of the proper sort of man to send to Washington now held by Jake, Barney, and Mike will undoubtedly continue as long as the "boys" control the nominations and tell the quiet thinking people whom they have got to vote for. In other words, the "Machine" must be broken up before much improvement in legislation is likely to be seen at Washington. The "boys" must disappear from the control of politics. This is, of course, impossible as long as patronage remains in its present condition.

A NEW FIELD FOR LITIGATION.

THE English courts will soon have to pass upon the right of a city to maintain an action against a newspaper for publishing articles tending to bring it into hatred, ridicule, and contempt. The London *Lancet* has been publishing some articles on the drainage and sewerage of Brighton, which, in the opinion of the officers of the corporation, have done the place a material injury, and deter people from coming there, and depreciate the value of property. Brighton is what we should call in this country a "resort," and is a place the prosperity of which is based, to a great extent, on its reputation for being healthy. Its population lives on money drawn from people who go there in pursuit of health; and if a belief is produced that the drainage and sewerage are in such a condition as is likely to produce disease, they will go to other places. It is natural, therefore, that the Brighton authorities should resent "disquieting rumors" having a tendency to produce such disastrous results.

The case, apart from the merits, however, presents a question of law of a novel character. No court, we believe, has ever held that a city could maintain an action of libel, and the difficulties in the way of maintaining the right are obviously considerable. A private trading corporation which is libelled can obtain redress in the courts just as an individual does. All it has to show is that it has been defamed in its corporate capacity. If some wicked or reckless newspaper were to say, for instance, that the Manhattan Railway in this city was a financial wreck, the company's solicitors would no doubt successfully prosecute an action of libel and recover substantial damages, because it is a matter of public record that the company, though it had an attack of insolvency for a short period, has

completely recovered and is as solvent as possible. The libel in such a case would distinctly affect the reputation of the company. That of Jay Gould, with whom it is sometimes confounded, would not be touched, because insolvency on the part of the company could not at all impair the financial strength of Gould.

But with a city the case is obviously different. A city is a corporation which does not carry on any business, but exists for political and municipal purposes solely. These purposes vary greatly according to circumstances. In London and Paris they are mainly the protection of life and property, the maintenance of order, and the laying out, mending, paving, and lighting of the streets. In New York and other American cities, there is generally believed to be, in addition to these objects, the support out of the taxes of a number of bosses, workers, heelers, and other politicians, and the various halls in which they arrange the "deals" by which our municipal system is carried on. Still, all this comes under the head of politics, and though we often hear politics spoken of as a trade, in city governments the trading is done by the politicians among themselves, and not by the corporation.

The first difficulty, therefore, about libelling or defaming a city would be that it has, properly speaking, no business interests which can be affected by the libel. If its character is blackened and its reputation damaged, it is not, like a business corporation, in receipt of any profits which can be diminished by a loss of business. If people are deterred from going to it in pursuit of health, or pleasure, or any other object, the prosperity of the place will, of course, be diminished; the hotel-keepers and the storekeepers will suffer; rents will fall; grass, even, may grow in the streets; but this suffering will fall rather upon the owners of property in it than upon the corporation. If the Mayor and Aldermen were to recover damages, all they could do with the money would be to put it in the city treasury, where it would reduce the general tax-rate; but this would be inadequate redress.

If the right to bring libel suits were conceded to cities, it is obvious that a new and very wide field for enterprise in litigation would be opened. In this country, owing to the peculiar condition of our municipalities, hardly a day passes without some remark about one or other thriving city appearing in print, well calculated to bring it into hatred, ridicule, and contempt. The inefficiency and corruption with which the affairs of our great cities are carried on are among the staple subjects of discussion in the press. To say that New York is the most corruptly governed city in the world, that its sewerage and drainage system is good for nothing, that its police or detectives are in league with the thieves, that its streets are ill-paved and half-lighted, and most of its parks are going to ruin, is so perfectly trite that a journalist who could find nothing severer to say would be considered a very incapable writer. Such statements must be libellous if they are not true, and the establishment of their truth in court would be no easy matter. The Mayor and Aldermen of New York live in an atmosphere of libel. The treatment of them in the press is such as must frequently arouse their severest wrath; hitherto they have not had any means of redress when the "deals" by which the corporate affairs are believed to be managed have been denounced in the press. They all, in fact, invariably deny that there are any deals, so that there would here be a fine opportunity for maintaining a libel suit.

But the remedy could not be confined to cities. If a municipal corporation can maintain a suit, so can a county, a State, the United States, or any sovereign power. These are all political corporations, and it would be impossible to make any distinction between them. The Southern States, for instance, would have a capital means of vindicating their reputation for honesty in the courts. They are always being accused in the press of "repudiation," or, in other words, robbing their creditors. They deny in toto that they ever repudiate, but insist that what they do is to "scale," "readjust," or "fund" their obligations. The true way to test this question, and have it finally disposed of, would be by judicial machinery. If the Southerners are right, they have been grossly libelled, and a great pecuniary wrong has been done them, too; for every one knows that the borrowing power of many of the States has been seriously impaired, if not by barefaced swindling of their creditors, then certainly by the libellous articles which their creditors get published about their method of managing their debts.

But sovereign governments are having disagreeable things said about them quite as often as cities or States. A generation ago the atmosphere of international criticism between this country and England was one of perpetual libel. What were Dickens's 'American Notes' and 'Martin Chuzzlewit' but elaborate libels on the United States? A caricature is a libel just as much as any other. On the other hand, what were the replies of our press but libels? The late Artemus Ward used to libel the Queen and John Bull and the British nation—and in the eye of the law they are all the same—with extreme freedom and success. The war of 1812 was preceded and hastened by multitudinous libels. The Rebellion was accompanied by descriptions of each section in the press of the other well calculated to show that the end was not far off for either. The London *Times* never speaks of this country without either libelling it, or else indulging in adulation of it, and one cannot be offset against the other in a libel suit. Mr. "Richelieu" Robinson never alludes to England without defaming and insulting the British lion in the most shocking way. Such aspersions upon national character must have far more widespread effect than a libel on the Mayor and corporation of a little place like Brighton. Of course, a sovereign government could only maintain a suit in the courts of the nation where the libel was committed, by comity, but the right once recognized, this would have to be conceded. It is obvious that if the Brighton suit is successful, the future of libel suits will become very interesting all over the world. There is probably not a nation in the world that has not outstanding claims growing out of libels, sufficient, if recognized, to wipe out its national debt.

NEW ENGLAND FORESTS.

THIRTY years ago the pine forests of Maine were considered inexhaustible, and Bangor was the greatest pine-distributing centre on the continent. Spruce, which then abounded in all the Northeastern forests, was little esteemed and rarely cut, and hemlock not at all, except for its bark.

We are reminded of these facts by the publication by the Census Office of Forestry Bulletin No. 15, which deals with the pine and spruce forests of Maine. The map which accompanies this Bulletin shows that nearly one-half of the entire area formerly covered with coniferous forests has been stripped of its merchantable timber, and that the large pine, and nearly all the largest and best spruce, has been culled from the remainder. There are still, however, some considerable bodies of large, scattered pine, principally in the extreme southwestern part of the State, which, strongly held as investments, have thus far escaped destruction. Second-growth pine, too, is springing up wherever in the State the forest is spreading again over abandoned farming lands; and the oldest of the second-growth pine, although far from mature, already furnishes the mills with saw-logs, and actually supplied a large portion of the hundred and odd million feet of pine cut in the State during the Census year.

Great changes have occurred in the lumbering industry in Maine during the last twenty years. Now five-sixths of all the lumber manufactured in the State is spruce, the supremacy of Bangor as a lumber market is a thing of the past, and the Pine-Tree State obtains much of the pine which it consumes from Canada and Michigan. As factors in the country's supply of lumber, the forests of Maine are not now worth consideration. An examination of their actual condition, however, shows that their future is not without hope, and that in no other part of the country can such valuable lessons in forest economy be learned. Professor Sargent, in this Bulletin, calls attention to the fact that "the system of cutting only the large trees and carefully protecting the remainder prevails in Maine, and allows the forest to be profitably worked at stated periods, varying from fifteen to twenty-five years." The state of public feeling which has made such a system possible has not yet extended much beyond the State, but the fact that forest-owners in Maine have been able to guard their property against fire successfully and introduce a sensible system of preserving their young and half-grown trees, indicates that a similar public sentiment may in other parts of the country attend enhanced values of forest property.

Fire is the greatest check to the spread of forest growth in the Eastern States; but, as we have more than once pointed out in these columns, means will be found to reduce the number and extent of forest fires as soon as the money value of the forest makes its preservation of prime importance to a community. Such has been the case in Maine. Its great source of wealth and prosperity existed in its forests. They were fast melting away, and what fires and the improvident methods of the old days had left became of such vital importance to the welfare of the whole people that the preservation of the remnants became possible. In Maine, forest fires are now of comparatively rare occurrence. The entire forest growth is not cut off, as in the Northwestern pineries; all trees below a certain size are allowed to grow for another harvest; and young pine, which is freely springing up in some parts of the State, is as carefully watched and guarded as a farm crop. Unfortunately, these wise measures were not adopted, or their

necessity even dreamed of, until the great pine supply of the State had been practically exhausted; but it is growing again, and, while Maine will never yield a second crop of pine equal to the first, it is not at all improbable that she will regain—and before many years—her position of first among the white-pine producing States.

Forestry Bulletin No. 16, with an accompanying map, treats of the pine and spruce supply of New Hampshire and Vermont. The original pine woods in both these States has entirely disappeared, although the valley of the Connecticut, the shores of Lake Champlain, and all of southeastern New Hampshire were once covered with vast forests of white pine. A growth of young pine has sprung up, principally in the southern part of these States, and these young forests furnished a cut of over one hundred million feet of lumber during the Census year. But these trees are cut too young, and at too great a sacrifice of future profit. The spruce forests of New Hampshire and Vermont, although reduced by fully three-quarters of their original extent, still cover considerable areas in the White Mountain region and along the ridge of the Green Mountain range. Young second-growth pine is carefully protected from fire, and "sprout" pine lands are now held at high figures; but the spruce forests are not yet as well preserved or carefully worked as in Maine, and they are too often the prey to destructive fires. It is worthy of remark that Burlington, once in the heart of great coniferous forests, and still the third lumber-distributing point in the United States—Chicago and Albany being the first and second—is wholly supplied with Canadian lumber.

THE BOMBARDMENT OF ALEXANDRIA—ITS RESULTS IN ENGLAND.

London, July 20, 1882.

Only nine days have passed since the bombardment of Alexandria, but in that time public opinion in England has passed through many phases, corresponding to the consequences which successively developed themselves as arising out of that event. The first impression of the news was on the whole one of satisfaction. Exciting news is, to a certain extent, pleasurable news; nothing could be more novel and exciting than the accounts which reached us hour by hour in England, and were reported in the editions of the morning and evening papers issued in quick succession all day long, chronicling, one might say, every shot as it was fired, every manœuvre of the iron-clads, so that we here seemed to be listening, like Wilfrid of Ivanhoe, in Scott's novel, to one who was describing each incident of the combat as it passed under the speaker's eyes. These accounts brought with them not only a relief from the long suspense with which the progress of the Egyptian crisis had been watched, but also a sense of exultation at the ease and success with which the overwhelming power of our fleet had been exerted—that sort of thrill of power which nations feel as well as individuals, and are hardly less apt to be carried away by. And there was also some self-congratulation at the proved efficiency of these huge iron-clad ships and huge cannon, on which we have spent such enormous sums for the last twenty-six years of peace. Thus the general sentiment of the nation was disposed to approve the act of the Government, and expect good results from the display both of the physical force and of the resolute purpose of the country.

There were, however, other voices heard. The Tories did not say much, because, as they had been calling out for strong action, they could not condemn the bombardment, and of course they were too prudent to commit themselves by applauding it. But the peace wing of the Liberal party—the section, small in number but respectable by the earnestness with which it holds its convictions—could not remain silent. Four or five of them, on the day after the fire on the forts, attacked the Government warmly in the House of Commons, declaring that we had no business in Egypt; that the presence of our fleet was unnecessary; that what had been done was done in the interests of British merchants and bondholders, and was opposed to the doctrines laid down by Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues when they denounced the aggressive policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Government. In the then temper of the House, this onslaught produced little effect. But next day the news arrived of the setting fire to Alexandria by Arabi and his army, and of the general plundering and murdering which followed. The first accounts, which described a general massacre of the Christian population, were corrected by subsequent telegrams. But enough remained to produce a profound and painful impression. A great city, one of the first seaports of the Mediterranean, reduced to ruins in two days, its population flying into the country, the European warehouses, offices, residences, with their contents, sacked or destroyed—this was a horrible and unexpected result of the bombardment, which chilled the satisfaction of the previous day. Those who had blamed the action of the Government pointed to its result as proof that they had been right. This, they said, is what comes of intervention. These horrors show that the enemy you despised was in desperate earnest. What will you do now? You have produced anarchy in Egypt. You will be forced to go on and enter on a regular war; you will have to conquer and occupy the country; and this will not only make you hated by the people, but involve you in difficulties, possibly in war, with France and the other five Powers. This view of the case was taken up, or, I ought rather to say, is being taken up to a considerable extent by the working classes. They have, of course, very little knowledge of the complicated circumstances of the case; but they have an idea that wars generally are undertaken for the pleasure and in the interest of the aristocracy and the moneyed classes; they do not see what our Government should have to do with Egypt, and when an appeal is made to them in the name of peace and humanity their first impulse is to respond. How far this line of sentiment, which is certainly strong among the working classes of London, prevails in the manufacturing and mining districts of the North we cannot yet tell. The whole matter is so new to the masses that they have hardly yet had time to take a side, much less to form an opinion. Much will depend on whether things go on smoothly for the next few weeks. The Tory leaders have generally abstained from expressing any opinion, waiting till the time should come for a formal debate in which the whole policy of the Ministry may be arraigned. But the light horse of that party have, as usual, been much more forward. Most of them are ready to approve the bombardment in itself as a necessary piece of severity. They accuse the Government, however, of gross want of foresight in not being prepared to follow up their first blow by landing troops, cutting off the retreat of Arabi and his army, and occupying Alexandria so as to save it from fire and pillage. The result of this slackness and timidity has been, in their view, to destroy the good moral effect produced by the destruction of the forts, as well as to involve the ruin of the city and the merchants whose fortunes were embarked there.

To these two opposite fires of criticism the Ministry reply by declaring that the attack on the forts was an act of self-defence, rendered necessary by the way in which they were being strengthened against the fleet. To have landed troops, however, would have been quite a different matter. That would have been an offensive operation, an act of aggression which would have been inconsistent with the declarations England had made on entering the Conference at Constantinople, and would have given reasonable offence both to the Porte and to the other European Powers. This is, of course, only the outline of their vindication of their conduct, which they support by insisting that the safety of Europeans everywhere through the East, and the free navigation of the Suez Canal, were both involved in the assertion of European authority and the punishment of Arabi. There is, doubtless, a good deal to be said for their policy in substance. The position was so difficult a one that no quite satisfactory issue from it could be looked for. And though every one, after the event, says that the burning of Alexandria was only what might have been expected, no one, in fact, predicted it, or advised that any preparations should be made for such a contingency. But, technically and logically, the Ministerial line of argument seems a narrow and barely tenable one. If the fleet was sent to Alexandria to protect British life and property, as Mr. Gladstone repeatedly declared, why should it remain there when all British subjects had quitted the city? Why take measures which have ended in the destruction of all the European property in the place? It may be that the fleet was not safe while the forts were being strengthened. But what occasion for the fleet to remain, seeing that it had taken every Englishman on board? The French fleet steamed away before the English ships opened fire. Could not the English fleet have done the same with no more loss of prestige than France has suffered? As to the landing of troops, could not the capture of Alexandria from the shore have been just as much, or as little, a measure of self-defence as its destruction from the sea? It has been necessary after all to occupy the town and hold it against Arabi. Might not this have been done from the first—with the additional advantage of compelling the army, caught in the town, to lay down its arms, and thus at one stroke freeing Egypt from military tyranny and from the danger of brigandage by the soldiers if they desert and scatter? Such are some of the criticisms which one hears on this first act of our armed intervention in Egypt. The next seems likely to be the despatch of a regular force, and the occupation, probably in conjunction with France, of the country. Unwelcome as this is to the general public opinion of England, the calling in of Turkish troops and reëstablishment of the Sultan's authority would be even less welcome; so that there will be little disappointment here if the invitation addressed by the Conference to the Sultan should be refused.

Meantime, it is not to be denied that the result of all this is further to weaken the Government. I do not speak merely of Mr. Bright's retirement, though that loosens their hold upon the Radical party and the Nonconformists. I refer rather to the general sense that they are engaged in a disagreeable task, which, like a coercive policy in Ireland, does not sit well on them, and is not likely to be very heartily performed by them. The feeling grows that they are unlucky; and although there is not yet anything that can be called disaffection, there is a sensible diminution of the enthusiasm which formerly attended, stimulated, almost glorified them. The sooner they can get rid of Parliament for the recess, this year to be broken by an autumn session, the better it will be for their own stability. Y.

A POLITICAL FORECAST.

LONDON, July 18, 1882.

THE days of the Gladstone Cabinet are, I suspect, numbered. The Ministry may not at once perish: there are many chances in favor of its hanging together for months; but its strength is gone, its life is ebbing away, and there is, in my judgment, the highest probability that Mr. Bright's retirement is only the most visible sign of a break-up of the whole Cabinet, which may be deferred for a time, but cannot be indefinitely postponed. This view of the state of affairs may, I frankly admit, be completely mistaken. Nothing is so rash as confident political prediction, and I assuredly make no claim to be a prophet.

There are, moreover, two or three circumstances which obviously tell in favor of the Government. If trust in Mr. Gladstone has declined, confidence in the Opposition has not increased. There is some difficulty in conveying to any one not on the spot the tone of feeling which prevails with regard to Lord Salisbury and his colleagues or followers. No one feels any intense hatred toward the Conservative leader or his party; no one supposes that a Conservative Government would be a specially bad Government, or, except perhaps as regards Ireland, a really reactionary Government. But, on the other hand, I have scarcely met with any one, whatever be his political bias, who professes confidence in the judgment or in the abilities of Lord Salisbury, or of the men who would necessarily be his colleagues. It were easy enough to pick out hundreds of persons who so detest Mr. Gladstone that they would see with delight any member of the House of Commons (unless it be Mr. Parnell) in occupation of the premiership. But even fanatics in whom hatred and distrust of Mr. Gladstone have overpowered every other sentiment, do not profess any particular regard for Lord Salisbury. Some of the bitterest attacks ever directed against his Lordship appeared, if my memory does not deceive me, in the pages of the *Pall Mall Gazette* before the conversion of that journal from Jingoism to Radicalism. Nor is the weakness of his opponents the sole security for Mr. Gladstone's continuance in office. Any candid observer of English public life must confess that Mr. Gladstone, whatever be his errors or weaknesses, towers by a head and shoulders above all other English politicians. As long as Lord Beaconsfield lived, this was not the case. Lord Beaconsfield's claims to a high rank among statesmen have been disputed, and not without reason; they will now probably continue to the end of time a matter of debate. Still, he was undoubtedly a man of rare talent. His opponents might deny both his administrative capacity and his political honesty, but he was one of those leaders in whom it was possible for his followers to have faith. At the lowest estimate any one could make of his talents, he was, as Mr. Bright termed him, the "mystery man" of his party. He was at least as conspicuous a figure on the stage of public life as Mr. Gladstone. As much cannot be said for any other among existing statesmen or politicians.

Sensible men, again, may well reflect that the present Cabinet, whatever its deficiencies, contains as much talent and character as could be found in any other conceivable Ministry. Mr. Lincoln's warning against "swapping horses when crossing a stream" expresses a principle which, rightly enough, always weighs greatly with cautious, considerate persons, who care more for the interest of the nation than for party triumphs or for party defeats. If you could poll England, you would, I take it, find that a large number of Conservatives, no less than of Liberals, were, at the bottom of their hearts, very averse to a change of Government at the moment England is passing through what may fairly be called deep waters both in Ireland and in Egypt. There is no inconsistency in distrusting Mr. Gladstone and at the same time wishing that Mr. Gladstone should for the present moment continue in office. There is, moreover, no clear sign that the majority of the electors do distrust Mr. Gladstone. On this point his assailants are constantly misled by the idea that the defects in the Premier which offend their judgment or taste are offensive to the Dissenters and workingmen who at the last general election forced him into power. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the characteristics of the Prime Minister and his policy which offend persons whose tone of sentiment or of thought is expressed in the *St. James's Gazette*, are exactly the characteristics which have won the admiration and confidence of the English, and still more of the Scotch, democracy. The "preachiness"—if I may use the expression—of Mr. Gladstone's popular oratory; his desire to identify politics and morality; the heat or fervor which appears in every word that he utters; his trust in the feeling of the people; the very imprudence and recklessness with which he lets his words give immediate expression to ideas or emotions which more prudent men would keep buried in their own minds—are all traits which, on the whole, conciliate popular support just as surely as they shock opponents who can hardly acknowledge Mr. Gladstone's extraordinary oratorical and administrative abilities because of their intense dislike to his moral tone. Until the fact is established that the thousands who rallied round Mr. Gladstone in 1880 have ceased to believe in the leader who was then their hero, it were absolute folly to deny that Mr. Gladstone's own personality is a source of strength to the Cabinet.

The absence, in short, of trust in the Conservative leaders, the patent evils of a change of Ministry during a serious crisis, the hold of Mr. Gladstone on the sympathies of the electors, are all circumstances telling strongly in favor of the Cabinet's continued existence. Yet, when I have taken all these circumstances into account, and have attempted to the best of my ability to weigh their importance, I still come to the conclusion that the days of the Gladstone Ministry are numbered. My reasons for this opinion can be easily placed before your readers, who must judge for themselves of their value.

The first and the most patent danger to the Government is the loss of reputation which is sure to attend any Ministry who are forced, in appearance if not in fact, to repudiate the principles which they advocated while in opposition, or to carry out a policy more natural to their opponents than to themselves. Mr. Bright's secession from the Cabinet is, from this point of view, an omen of disaster. The member for Birmingham is a man governed rather by sentiment than by logic. His strength as a statesman has always consisted in his sharing and representing a special vein of political, moral, and religious feeling. His sympathy with the views and aims of Mr. Gladstone brought Mr. Bright into office, and has no doubt kept him there long after the time when, if he had followed the promptings of his own heart, he would have retired from the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster. His resignation shows that on one point at least Mr. Bright can no longer sympathize with and approve of the action of his former colleagues. To say this, is not to impute dereliction of duty or moral inconsistency either to the Premier or to the member for Birmingham. They probably each believed, and not without reason, that though their speculative convictions as to the circumstances under which England might justly engage in war differed, it was practically next to impossible that any case should arise under which either of them would be prepared to involve the country in warfare. The unforeseen case has, however, arisen, and the whole extent of the difference in principle between the Minister who was in office at the outbreak of the Crimean War and the orator who throughout his life has denounced no contest so bitterly as the war with Russia, has now become apparent to the whole world.

But Mr. Gladstone, when in opposition, undoubtedly derived a great deal of support from men whose feelings or convictions were those of Mr. Bright. On another appeal to the country Mr. Gladstone will find that this element of support is wanting. The mere defection of the limited body of political Quakers does not measure anything like the whole of the loss sustained by the Cabinet. During the electoral campaign in Midlothian Mr. Gladstone had the immense advantage of occupying a clear, definite, unmistakable position, from which he could appeal, as he did appeal, with untold force to the ordinary, everyday, and therefore strong, moral convictions of mankind. He was the opponent of every kind of aggression. He was the advocate of high international morality, as opposed to men who thought, or who appeared to think, that the interests of England, rather than definite moral dogmas, were the only sure guide in matters of foreign policy. As the practical result of his moral and political theories, Mr. Gladstone, and still more decidedly Mr. Gladstone's followers, urged upon England the necessity of turning away from the intricacies of foreign affairs, and of directing attention to the many reforms needed at home. Whatever else England might do, she was bound, above all things, not to aid or promote the spread of Turkish power or influence. We all know the fervor with which the electors answered to Mr. Gladstone's appeal. The Ministry were placed in office with what French politicians call a "mandate" from the constituencies. The Cabinet were to pursue peace abroad and reform at home. The mandate was thoroughly understood, and, as far as circumstances allowed, honestly obeyed. The retreat from Afghanistan, the treaty with the Boers, the vigorous attempt to settle the Irish land question, the avowed intention of carrying through a whole batch of domestic reforms, might exacerbate the already bitter hostility felt by large classes to Mr. Gladstone and his policy, but the earlier acts and intentions of the Ministry were precisely in conformity with their avowed principles, and with the wishes of their zealous supporters.

It is now clear that fate has been too strong for the Cabinet, and that Mr. Gladstone has been compelled to adopt measures which, in appearance at least, are opposed to the professions which gained him the triumph of 1880. He governs Ireland under a measure which, though in principle less objectionable than the Coercion Act which soon expires, may be described with some truth as the severest measure of repression passed during the last half-century. Ireland is full of discontent, Mr. Gladstone and the Liberal party are hated by the Home Rulers, and order is not restored. Abroad, matters look hardly better. Alexandria has been bombarded, English troops are landing in Egypt, Cyprus is found useful as a place of strength, Indian regiments are hurrying up to take part in proceedings which, if not technically warfare, have all the outward aspect of war, and, worst of all, the Turk is invited and pressed to exercise something very like the rights of sovereignty in a province which had practically ceased to form part of the Turkish Empire. All these things have an odd look. Appearances are, I think, to a great ex-

tent delusive. Mr. Gladstone's policy in Egypt, no less than in Ireland, admits, if not of perfect defence, yet of a good deal of explanation. It is not nearly as inconsistent with the principles avowed by him in opposition as it at first sight appears. But appearances are in this world a great power; and when Mr. Gladstone again appeals to the country, he will be forced to speak, not as a critic of others, but as an apologist for himself. An orator has lost half his power when he becomes an apologist. It is vain to hope that ingenious explanations will exert the influence of fervid denunciation: the triumphs of 1880 cannot be repeated. If the country were polled, the Cabinet would, it is likely enough, escape defeat, but an indecisive battle is a very different thing from a splendid victory; and I observe, without amazement, though not without reflection, that zealous Liberals do not at the present moment care to court an appeal to the constituencies.

Suppose, however, that (as I myself am inclined to think is the case) a more or less satisfactory defence can be made out for the conduct of the Government in Ireland and abroad, it is not at all certain that the explanations which save the character of the Ministry will not turn out to be arguments in favor of putting the Conservatives in office. If it be proved that Mr. Gladstone has, under the stress of circumstances, been compelled to use coercion in Ireland and to assert English power by force of arms in Egypt, the inference may perhaps suggest itself to the electors that the time has come for restoring to office statesmen who have always been ready to rely both at home and abroad on the use of force. Any one who examines the history of the last fifty years will soon find reason to believe that no Cabinet has ever maintained itself long in power after adopting a policy more suitable to the convictions of its opponents than to its own. The position of the Duke of Wellington after carrying Catholic Emancipation, the weakness of Peel after the repeal of the Corn Laws, the fate of the Aberdeen Ministry during the Crimean War, the fall of the Conservative Government after passing the Reform Act of 1867, are only a few of the facts which suggest the inference that for a Government to undertake work natural to its opponents is the surest way of undermining its own authority.

The second circumstance which bodes ill to the Ministry is that the Conservatives can, if they choose, force an appeal to the country. Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues hold that the passing of the Arrears Bill is essential to the restoration of order in Ireland. Lord Salisbury has undoubtedly the power of causing the bill to be thrown out in the House of Lords. If he takes this course, it is difficult to see how Mr. Gladstone can in the long run avoid either resigning or appealing to the country. If the Ministry accept the rebuff and drop the bill, their credit is gone; if they prorogue Parliament and bring in the bill again in another session, the Lords may again reject a measure which assuredly commands no great popularity in England, and may in effect refuse to pass it without a distinct expression of electoral opinion in its favor. The Conservatives, however, may, for the sake of giving some relief to the Irish landlords, or because of the great convenience to the Conservative party of throwing on Liberals all responsibility for exceptional legislation, let the bill pass. It is not, however, at all clear that with the passing of the Arrears Bill the troubles of the Government will be at an end. The Home-Rulers avowedly believe that a dissolution would give them many additional Irish seats. Whether this idea be true or not, I cannot say; but the existence on the part of Mr. Parnell and his followers of the conviction that a dissolution would increase their power, is of itself sufficient to make them active or passive allies of the Conservatives in any attempt to force on the Government an appeal to the people. As things now stand, there is, therefore, it seems to me, a fair chance that before long some question may arise on which Conservatives, Home-Rulers, and dissatisfied Liberals may coalesce and place the Government in a minority. Mr. Gladstone is assuredly not the man to cling to office after he has lost power. It is far more like him to yield to the impatience natural to a statesman who finds his policy thwarted through the coolness of friends or the recklessness of foes, and on the first serious defeat to resign an official position which can have no attraction to him after it has ceased to be the means of carrying out the policy which he approves. In one way or another, the Government, therefore, may, I believe, be sooner or later compelled to resign or to dissolve. The best that can at present be hoped from a dissolution is that the Ministerial majority may be lessened and not absolutely destroyed. If this be the best result which the Cabinet can anticipate, critics like myself, who have no wish except to see things exactly as they are, may not unnaturally come to the conclusion that the days of the Gladstone Ministry are drawing to a close. The assassins of the Phœnix Park and the incendiaries of Alexandria will, I suspect, be found to have dealt deadly blows to a Cabinet of statesmen who, whatever their defects and shortcomings, are more anxious to give prosperity to Ireland and to abstain from attacks on all foreign powers than any Ministers who during the century have held power in England.

A. V. Dicey.

THE ARCHIVES AT MARBURG.

Berlin, June 30, 1882.

Last month I spent about a week at Marburg. This city, a former residence of the old Landgraves of Hesse, is renowned in German history as the place where, in 1529, Luther and Zwingli met for the reconciliation of their views concerning the sacraments and other religious reforms ("Marburger Religions gespräch"). At about the same time (1527) the first Protestant university was founded there, which for nearly a century ranked foremost among the high schools of Germany, then sank into utter insignificance, although several prominent professors (and first among them, in 1800, the greatest scientific jurist of modern times, Friedrich Carl von Savigny) began their career at Marburg. Since the annexation of Hesse to Prussia it has again attained importance. While seventy years ago numbering 200 to 250 students, it now has nearly 800. The city is, besides, celebrated for the old church of St. Elisabeth (a classic specimen of Gothic construction of the thirteenth century), and for an old mediæval castle, uniting the different Roman, Gothic, and Renaissance styles of architecture, which dominates the surrounding country and looks into the beauteous and fertile valley of the Lahn.

However, I do not propose to enter into the details of the charming scenery which offers itself to the views of the tourist, but rather mean to confine myself to the noble old memorial hall which at present contains the public archives of the province of Hesse-Nassau. In Prussia the administration of the public records is effected in a very simple and efficient way. While all matters of general interest, such as treaties of the kingdom with foreign powers, matters of reform in domestic policy and general legislation, correspondence with Ministers abroad, motives for new laws, etc., etc., are preserved in the general state archives in Berlin, each province has an archive of its own, which contains the more local documents and papers referring to its old political development and history. At the head of the whole is a director, at present the celebrated historian, Heinrich von Sybel. The archives of every province also have a chief, who is subordinate to the general director, and to whom a number of assistants are attached. These officials must have studied at a university, and are only appointed after having passed an examination in history and its auxiliary branches, such as palæography, epigraphy, numismatics, diplomatics, and reading of old, especially mediæval, Latin records. They are advanced according to their abilities. The solid education and scholarship of these gentlemen enable them to render valuable service to those who study in the archives, access to which is exceedingly liberal. Down to 1840 you can obtain a sight of any paper you may desire; in case of need the proper officer not only hands it to you, but assists you in using it, and points out to you supplementary documents.

To return, however, to Hesse-Nassau. Parts of it belong to the oldest political districts and ecclesiastical foundations of Germany—*e.g.*, Fulda, with its bishopric founded by St. Boniface; Hersteld and Fritzlar, with their celebrated convents; Gelnhausen, one of the residences of Friedrich Barbarossa. All these, as well as the castles of the imperial princes, counts, and barons, have had to give up their manuscript documents to the Marburg archives. Besides imperial orders and papal bulls, I saw three parchments sealed by King Pipin, and a number of missive letters issued and signed by Charlemagne. The most important documents concerning the time of the Reformation, the reign of Philip the Generous, of Hesse, and the political negotiations preceding and following the war of Schmalkalden, are deposited there. The manuscripts specifying the position and conduct of William of Orange and his successors throw a very important light on the history of the war of the Netherlands with Spain. The documentary proofs of the important part the Hessian Landgraves took in the Thirty Years' War, and the rôle they played in European politics in the eighteenth century, are likewise preserved among the files of the archives. There is, in fact, no period in European history of the last eleven hundred years for which the historian will not find new and interesting manuscript materials in the Marburg Castle. The greater part of these papers are admirably arranged, the drawers in which they are kept being ventilated, in order to keep them from moulding. It will, nevertheless, be at least ten years yet before the able archivist, Dr. Könnecke, will succeed in completing the necessary arrangements for making all these treasures available to the historical student.

The most interesting portions of the archives for an American reader are the papers referring to the sale of the Hessian troops to England and their participation in your Revolutionary War. Out of about thirty volumes containing the details of the sale of Hessian soldiers—beginning with the Venetian campaign against the Turks in Morea (1675) and coming down to the English war in Holland and Belgium against republican France (1794)—at least ten folios contain the particulars about the part which the Landgrave of Hesse and his troops took in your Revolutionary War. These volumes are splendidly bound in parchment, and were taken by the Landgrave (Elector) when, in 1806, flying before the French invasion, first to Schleswig and afterward to Prague, from which latter city they returned with the reinstated Elector to Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel. Here they were discovered in an attic of the palace by the above-named Dr. Könnecke, at whose suggestion they were incorporated with the archives of Marburg.

These volumes are a real treasure for every historical student, as they not only contain the diplomatic negotiations of the Landgrave and of his Minister, Schlieffen, with the English Government, and the respective treaties founded thereon, but also every day's orders and the letters issued and written by the Landgrave to his generals and colonels in America, as well as their answers and reports on the condition and conduct of their troops, well-drawn maps and sketches of the localities having relation to the Hessian headquarters.

Let me point out, as belonging to one of the most important episodes of the war, the proceedings before a court-martial on the capture of Trenton. They are specified in three volumes, and give the minutiæ of the examination of about fifty witnesses, participators in that affair. The Landgrave was quite shocked at this disaster, which turned the scales of the war in favor of the American cause, and could never forget and forgive it to his officers. Not only did he recall the chief commander of his troops, General Heister, although this meritorious officer could not be made responsible, but during the whole war he did not promote a single inferior officer who, under the command of Colonel Rall, had only obeyed orders. I beg here to remark in parenthesis that Rall was not at all the ridiculous figure that Washington Irving makes him, but an earnest and brave man, so much of a regular that he despised the "undisciplined peasants," and by his defeat was severely punished for his contempt of the enemy. He very well knew how to command a regiment, but could not handle a large force of troops on his own responsibility. Heister's successor, General Knyphausen (the captor of Fort Washington), was for years urged by the Landgrave to finish and send in the proceedings of the court-martial instituted against the surviving officers and men of Rall's command. Knyphausen, however, from delicacy of feeling for his unfortunate brethren in arms, from year to year, under all possible pretexts, delayed the transmission of his final report, and it was only in the last year of the war (1783) that he complied with the Landgrave's strict and ungracious orders. Finally, the court-martial censured only the dead officers and acquitted the surviving ones. Although these papers do not throw much new light on the affair at Trenton, they are full of interesting particulars which confirm the high estimate of all competent military critics of Washington's bold movement and its splendid execution. The Landgrave, I must confess, appears in his directions a much better man than a mere dealer in human flesh. He is his own minister of war, and a very good one, too; he knows and cares for everything, is pedantic, strict, and active, but of a small mental horizon, while he is filled with the pride of his position as ally of Great Britain and as chief of a brave army.

Another almost equal number of Hessian papers of the same character were, after the annexation of Hesse to Prussia, sent to Berlin, and are now on file in the archives of the grand staff of the army under Marshal Moltke. They formerly belonged to the Cassel Ministry of War, and were indexed by the former Hessian Colonel Sturmfeder, but are not so well preserved as those at Marburg. They refer chiefly to the transactions of Hesse-Hanau with England; give all the particulars about the financial business of the two contracting parties; the income from which was about £100,000 higher in favor of the Hereditary Prince than stated by old Schlaezer, Bancroft, and Kapp. Another interesting part of these papers forms a collection of about a hundred letters written by officers to their relatives at home, who were directed by the Prince to send them to him for his perusal. They give some charming sketches of American society at the time, and the elegance of manners prevailing in the old colonial families like the Beekmans, Phillipses, Morrises, and others. These letters bear the imprint of reality and truth, and are the more valuable as their writers, although enemies and foreigners, are involuntary witnesses and reporters of the real state of American society.

Another very interesting relic of old times I found at Marburg, in the possession of Dr. Könnecke, who accidentally had discovered it at Halberstadt, in a volume containing some twenty or thirty old pamphlets. It is the only copy of 'Sex Elegantissimæ Epistolæ' printed by William Caxton in 1483, and described under No. 52 in the work of Mr. W. Blades, 'The Biography and Typography of William Caxton' (London, 1877). The little pamphlet, containing only some forty pages, is unusually well preserved, with even uncut leaves. I do not admire the Caxton prints, since for elegance of cut of types, solidity of paper, and clearness of print they are much behind the old German and Italian incunabula. But tastes differ, and English book maniacs even exceed those of other countries. Mr. Könnecke was offered £300 by the British Museum for the little pamphlet; but being aware of the extraordinary value of this *unicum*, he asks £1,000, and is sure to get it. † † †

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.—III.

PARIS, July 6, 1882.

IN the year 1836 Madame Sand was engaged in her suit of separation from M. Dudevant, her husband, and was meanwhile making a revision of 'Lélia.' She expressed her ideal at that time to Madame d'Agoult, who was living at Geneva with Franz Liszt: "To throw yourself in the bosom of nature; to take her really as a mother and a sister; to cut away from life stoically and religiously what only belongs to vanity; to resist the proud and the wicked; to be humble and small with the unfortunate; . . . to live on almost nothing; to give away almost everything, and so to reëstablish the primitive equality and to revive the divine institution—such is the religion which I will preach in my corner." Lélia belonged to this religion; she was above love, though she could inspire it; she saw the virtues of a convict. She was, in fact, George Sand herself, with her curiosity and her insensibility. Madame Sand had such a strong fibre that when she wished to hear the piano she crawled under it, so as to absorb the sounds better. She recognized in Liszt the only artist who could give life to the wooden instrument. It is surprising, at the same time, to find her so poetical. Read this, for instance:

"I have moments of spleen; but I resist and I pray. To pray is an important, a difficult thing. It is the end of the moral man. I am only beginning to learn; I am at the lowest step of the staircase of Jacob. So I pray seldom and badly. But, badly as it is, I have a foretaste of infinite ecstasy and of emotions similar to what I experienced in my youth, when I thought that I saw the Virgin, a luminous apparition, pass like a sun over me. Nowadays I have only visions of stars. . . ."

She was learning astronomy; she always felt attracted toward science, but her science was poetical. She could not commit the names of the stars, nor find her way in the longitudes and the latitudes. She admired, but admiration is perhaps better than knowledge:

"No star," she says, "resembles another, when you look attentively. I had never understood this before this summer. Look, if you wish to understand me, at Antares, or the South, from nine to ten o'clock, and compare it with Arcturus, which you know. Compare Vega, so white, so tranquil all night, with the Goat, which jumps into the sky toward midnight, and which is red, brilliant, burning, as it were. Apropos of Antares, which is the heart of the Scorpion, look at the gracious curve of this constellation; it is something to kneel before. Look also, if you have good eyes, at the whiteness of the Pleiades; admire the delicacy of this little group at the dawn of day, in the midst of the nascent aurora. . . . God is the master of these treasures."

This is, in my opinion, perhaps the best of George Sand: it is her faculty of admiring, and of expressing her admiration. She was essentially a descriptive writer; in her worst novels there are pages which are as good as anything Rousseau ever wrote on the Alps or the Lake of Geneva; she was a naturalist and a poet. Her moral walk was mischievous—she had, so to speak, no moral sense; but she always recognized the "Deus ignotus," the hidden divinity which breathes and lives in nature, in plants, in things animate and inanimate. As soon as she was out of humanity's reach, she became noble and pure. She really hated mankind; it was troublesome; nature was always calm and serene:

"I have had my fill (*j'ai plein le dos*) of all great men. . . . Let them be sculptured in marble, or melted in bronze, and speak no more of them. As long as they live, they are wicked, persecutors, fanatical, despotic, bitter, suspicious. . . . They are worse to their friends than to their enemies. . . . Remain always good, stupid even, if you can."

This new volume of letters, which extends from 1836 to 1848, fully confirms what I said in my analysis of the first volume. Madame Sand was a man in character; she had none of the delicacies of her sex; she never knew what love was. Though she wrote volume after volume on the passion of love, she was only open to the sentiment of friendship; she often said of herself, "I am a *bon garçon*."

Madame Sand paid a visit to Madame d'Agoult and to Liszt, in Geneva, in September, 1836. She disliked Paris, and when she could not be at Nohant, she travelled as much as she could. "I hate Paris; I never remain an hour longer in it than I need. I become ill-tempered and insupportable there; I am always out of breath, busy, enraged against the fools who separate me from my friends—never doing what I wish, what I ought—always impatient to shake off the dust of this accursed city." She was becoming more and more republican and socialistic. She had made the acquaintance of the leading Saint-Simonians, and we find her scolding some of them for their moderation.

"I tell you," she writes to M. Guéroult, "that I have never known, and that I know, but one principle, which is the abolition of property." The time has not come, she acknowledges it, for the application of the principle, but she and a few others ought to keep in their hearts "the good principle, pure, without a spot, without the shadow of concession to any Jesuitical metaphysics and to a pretended morality in which men don't believe. A time will come when this good principle will have its day. We shall be no more, but our sons or our nephews, having received it from us, will speak and do something."

She was at times heartily tired of her work. She writes to Jules Janin: "You have no idea how disgusted I am with literature (I mean with my own). I am passionately fond of the country. I have all the indoor tastes: I love cats, dogs, children especially. I am no longer young. I should like to sleep at night. Help me out of the claws of Buloz, and I will bless you every day of my life. I will give you my manuscripts to light your pipe."

One of the least known and most interesting incidents in the life of Madame Sand is her journey with the famous Chopin to the island of Majorca. Chopin was consumptive, and Madame Sand took him with great difficulty from

Paris to Majorca. She had her two children with her, Maurice and Solange. Consumption is a rare malady at Majorca, and it was considered there contagious in the year 1839. Chopin and his companions were soon looked upon as if they carried the pest, and as pagans to boot, for they did not go to mass. The proprietor of the little house which Madame Sand had taken turned them out most brutally. Chopin could not well be transported back to France; Madame Sand fortunately discovered, in an old, abandoned convent of friars, a Spanish family, which was hiding for political reasons. This family, wishing to emigrate to France, sold all its furniture to Madame Sand. She lived in the Certosa of Valdemosa like an exile.

"Valdemosa," she writes, "a poetical name, a poetical place, an admirable, sublime nature, with the sea on both sides of the horizon, with formidable mountains above us. The eagles came over the orange trees of our garden, a line of cypresses ran from our house to the bottom of the gorge; under our feet were terraces covered with myrtles and palm trees. Nothing more magnificent! But it is right to lay it down as a principle that, where nature is good and generous, men are wicked and avaricious."

Madame Sand could hardly procure the necessaries of life, even for gold. She could not procure servants; nobody wished to take care of a man in consumption. With great difficulty Chopin had obtained a piano, and he consoled himself with playing in his cell. What music must have issued from the dying man of genius under that incomparable sky beside the blue Mediterranean Sea! Madame Sand gave lessons to her son. She worked day and night. Chopin composed; but after two months the climate became too cold, the clouds began to hang over the mountains, the roads became torrents. "All this would have been fine if poor Chopin could have borne it. Maurice did not suffer from it. The wind and the sea sang in sublime tones, beating our rocks. The immense and deserted cloisters creaked over our heads." There were no chimneys; it was impossible to make a good fire. It soon became necessary to quit the island; and as there was no carriage, Chopin had to be transported to Palma on a litter. On arriving at Palma he spat blood abundantly. The next day Madame Sand embarked with him on the only steamer of the place, which then took only pigs to Barcelona. Chopin arrived at Barcelona miserably ill. There Madame Sand, thanks to the French Consul, had him transported to a French man-of-war, and the French doctor of the ship took excellent care of him. The innkeeper of Barcelona demanded the price of a bed, in which Chopin had only slept once, as it was an *infected* bed. "Spain," exclaims Madame Sand, "is an odious nation." From Barcelona they went to Marseilles, and Chopin bore the crossing very well.

This second volume of the Correspondence is, on the whole, more interesting than the first; it is more rich, more abundant, more philosophical. The letter of September 27, 1841, for instance, to M. Charles Duvernet, at Lachâtre, contains a complete programme of religious philosophy. Madame Sand was at the time enraptured with the philosophy of Pierre Leroux. "I am certain," she writes, "that one day people will read Leroux as they read now the 'Contrat Social' of Rousseau. . . . When I was a sceptic, when I wrote 'Lélia,' with my head aching with sorrows and doubts on all things, I adored the goodness, the simplicity, the science, the depth of Leroux; but I was not convinced. I regarded him as a man who was the dupe of his own virtue. Now I feel differently; if I have a drop of virtue in my veins, I owe it to him, whom I have studied for five years." Age made her more calm, more hopeful, more confident in the goodness of God. She was no longer blinded by her passions; she did not feel so much the spur of personality. She always maintained that people gain by losing youth, since they lose at the same time what deforms truth, and their hearts get enlarged and milder. She felt like the conqueror after the battle, and said to herself at times: "I have played my part; the hour of rest is coming." The hour of rest never came, but her philosophy constantly became more practical. "We must live," said she, "as we ride: be very supple, not unreasonably oppose the horse, and have a very light hand; trot when we are in a hurry, and go pacing or jogging when there is a good sun and no hurry. God has done all things well."

These letters are full of such passages, which are at times charming. They are incoherent, they are addressed to very extraordinary persons, and many things are hardly intelligible now. They form, in their collection, a very curious commentary on the literary work of one of the most gifted and extraordinary writers of our time.

Correspondence.

BRITISH RULE IN INDIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: 'England's Work in India,' by W. W. Hunter, C.I.E., LL.D. (Smith, Elder & Co., 1881). This is the title of a pamphlet of 137 pages just sent to me by a correspondent in Ranikhet, in the Northwest Provinces, India, who is himself much interested in the improvement, and especially in the education, of that country. Mr. Hunter, the writer of the pamphlet, is at present engaged as president of a large and important committee now considering the best method of increasing the education of the people. He is the author of numerous books and papers on the subject of India, and it is believed no higher authority can be found. The spirit in which he writes is well expressed in the following words on page 135:

"I do not believe that races among whom we raise a taxation of 35 millions sterling, and into whom we have instilled the maxim of 'No taxation without representation' as a fundamental right of a people, can be permanently excluded from a share in the management of their finances. I do not believe it practicable to curtail for long the right of the freest criticism on their rulers, to 191 millions of British subjects, who have the speeches of our great statesmen at this moment ringing in their ears."

The pamphlet says, page 133: "An electoral body is being developed in India by the municipalities and local district boards. There are already 1,163 members in the municipal bodies of the Bengal and Madras Presidencies alone." And yet there are great difficulties in the way of this development, growing out of the habits, traditions, and want of education of the people. My correspondent at Ranikhet writes:

"As a fact, there is a large number of municipalities in Upper India with elected members; but it is found in almost every case that the people cannot be induced to go to the poll. They look upon an election as so much wasted power and trouble. People at home will not understand or believe this, and no doubt your countrymen would also find it hard of understanding."

Placing the right of suffrage in the hands of the uneducated and now incompetent millions of India is a measure which it is to be hoped will be introduced gradually and cautiously; but the interesting question which the pamphlet endeavors to answer is, whether or not British rule, after more than one hundred years of trial, has conferred benefit on the Indian races. Mr. Hunter well says that "no government has a right to exist which does not exist in the interests of the governed. The test of British rule in India is not what it has done for ourselves, but what it has done for the Indian people. By this test our work in the East must stand or fall."

Here, then, are some of the results: The multitudinous native states, the isolation of which was only broken by merciless wars, are now trading quietly with each other, bound together by railways and roads, by post and telegraph. India is a great, three-cornered country, stretching southward from Asia into the sea. Its northern base rests upon the Himalayan ranges; the chief part of its western side is washed by the Indian Ocean, and of its eastern by the Bay of Bengal. But there are gateways left by nature on the northeastern and northwestern corners, and through them during 700 years the warring races of Central Asia and Afghanistan poured in hosts of from twenty to a hundred thousand, paying for nothing, devastating every town, cottage, and farm-yard in their path, and burning and slaughtering on the slightest provocation, and often in mere sport. An invasion also meant usually a grand final sack and massacre at the capital of the invaded country. In the middle of the last century six such inroads on a great scale took place in twenty-three years.

The sea, which forms the natural defence of the rest of the country, was in like manner only a source of new dangers. On the Bay of Bengal the pirates from the Burmese coast sailed up the great rivers, burning the villages and massacring or carrying off into slavery the inhabitants. On the other side of the peninsula, in the Indian Ocean, piracy was conducted on a grander scale. Wealthy rajahs kept up luxurious courts upon the extortions which their private fleets levied from trading vessels and from the villages along the coast. The truth is, that the natural defences of India—the mountains and the sea—were in the last century equally powerless to protect the Indian races. Absolute protection is now everywhere extended by the powerful arm of Great Britain.

But protection from within is as necessary as protection from without. Anarchy breeds lawlessness and crime. The country was infested by professional banditti, formed into regular communities, and subsisting by spoil. There were *thugs* and *dacoits*, or hereditary stranglers and gang-robbers, who thought none the worse of themselves for their profession, and were regarded by their countrymen with an awe which, in the last century, could hardly be distinguished from respect. Now a completely organized police, and a criminal code framed by a commission composed of such men as Lord Macaulay and Judge Fitzjames Stephen, have changed all this, and, strange as it may sound, there is to-day less crime in India than in England.

"In the last century education in India was a monopoly in the hands of the priests—a power which they employed to subjugate the minds of the people. Under British rule education has been taken entirely out of the hands of the priests and has become the great emancipator of the Indian races. In ancient India a Brahman was forbidden, on pain of death, to teach the sacred books to the masses. . . . The Hindus were taught from their earliest childhood that they must remain imprisoned for life in the caste in which they were born."

Now there are two millions of boys and girls receiving public instruction.

"These two millions of native children are learning that every occupation and every profession in British India is open to every boy on the benches of an Indian school. . . . The rising generation in India have been freed from superstitious terrors; they have been led to give up cruel practices, and have learned to detest

and despise their forefathers' bloody rites. Widow-burning, infanticide, hook-swinging, self-mutilation, and human sacrifice—these are a few familiar relics of the old bondage under which the Indian intellect cowered and the Indian heart bled. Great as has been the material progress of India during the past century, its emancipation from ignorance and priestcraft forms a far more splendid memorial of British rule."

Another result is the revival of letters. The vernacular journals now exceed 230 in number, and are read every week by half-a-million of people. In 1878, 5,000 books were published in India, besides a vast importation from England. Of the printed matter, only 500 were translations, the remaining 4,500 being original works. Any one who has seen the poetry of Toru Dutt will acknowledge that poetic genius of a high order still survives in the Indian race.

The drama has been in all ages a great educator of the Indian races. The native theatre forms the best, indeed the only, school in which an Englishman can acquaint himself with the indoor life of the people. He suddenly finds himself in an era of intense dramatic productiveness.

Great cities have sprung up: Calcutta and Bombay have each about three-quarters of a million of inhabitants.

The foregoing gives the favorable side of Indian life, but there is another and a gloomy one. The great evil consists in a crowded population of small cultivators without capital, and with no restraints on marriage. Each Hindu marries as a religious duty, and marriage takes place at the close of childhood, quite irrespective of there being any means of subsistence. It is estimated that the population increases at the rate of two millions a year. The extent of the evil may be thus stated: Two-fifths of the people of British India enjoy a prosperity unknown under native rule, other two-fifths earn a fair but diminishing subsistence, but the remaining fifth, or nearly forty millions, go through life on insufficient food; and this number is constantly increasing. This is the fearful problem which remains to be solved; and it becomes intensified in importance when it is remembered that a failure of the crops, to which that burning land is always liable, may cause a famine which may sweep off in one season millions of the inhabitants.

On this subject, Mr. Hunter says, page 81:

"I do not, however, agree with those who think the problem insoluble. The permanent cure for over-population rests with the people themselves, and consists in those restraints upon marriage to which all nations of small husbandmen have sooner or later to submit. But we cannot wait till that compulsory lesson is learned, but must meet the difficulty by the resources of civilization. These resources may lighten the pressure of the population on the soil in three ways: first, by withdrawing large numbers to non-agricultural industries; second, by distributing the pressure over new or underpopulated tracts; third, by increasing the produce of the existing area of cultivation."

In the first direction, something has already been achieved. The new industrial life of India is already feeding millions of mouths, and before ten years are over will feed many millions more. India can command the cheapest and most dexterous manufacturing labor in the world. The country is also apparently on the eve of great mining enterprises. No one would have predicted in 1855 that Indian exports would rise from 20 to close on 70 millions during twenty-five years, and no wise man will now venture to predict the limits of the industrial development of India before the close of this century. In the second direction, also, something has been done to lighten the pressure of the people on the soil, and the Government is now reconsidering the question of encouraging both capitalists and laborers in the work of transferring the population from overcrowded to the underpeopled provinces. In the third direction, Mr. Hunter gives his reasons for thinking that improved methods of husbandry and irrigation will accomplish important results.

While the actual taxation for ten years ending in 1879 averaged 35 millions of pounds sterling, it has now reached 40 millions—not a large sum per capita: not nearly as large as it was previous to British rule and when the population was much less, but large in view of the poverty of the people.

In this communication I have made use of the ideas, and even of the language, of Mr. Hunter, often without finding it convenient to use quotation-marks. My object in writing is to correct impressions in regard to British rule in India which I cannot but think are erroneous, and which recent articles in the *Nation* strongly tend to create. G. W. B.

BALTIMORE, July 19, 1882.

Notes.

A WIDE circle of readers will be pleased to learn that Mr. Joel Chandler Harris is engaged upon a volume to be called 'Nights with Uncle Remus,' which will give a wider range to plantation subjects than the previous volume did; and also upon a story of slave life in the South.

Harper & Brothers will shortly publish 'Outlines of Ancient History,' by P. V. N. Myers.

A new metrical volume, 'Swabian Stories,' by Theodore Tilton, and 'Tristam of Lyonesse, and Other Poems,' by A. C. Swinburne, are promised immediately by R. Worthington.

McPherson's 'Hand-book of Politics' for 1882 will be ready soon after the adjournment of Congress. Like its predecessors, it records the political and Congressional events of the Representatives' term of two years. The indispensable character of this work makes a mere mention of its appearance sufficient. The publisher is James J. Chapman, Washington.

Funk & Wagnalls have in press 'The Schaff-Herzog Encyclopædia of Religious Knowledge,' of which Dr. Philip Schaff is the editor. It is based on the 'Real-Encyklopädie für Protestantische Theologie und Kirche' of Herzog, Plitt, and Hauck, with the full approbation of these editors.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have brought out in neat gray paper covers for summer reading Howells's eminently seasonable stories, 'A Chance Acquaintance' and 'Their Wedding Journey.'

Walton Van Loan, Catskill, N. Y., has issued a crude colored lithographic panoramic view of the Catskill Mountains, as seen from the east bank of the Hudson. The several peaks, hotels, towns, and other features of the landscape are helpfully designated.

No. 2 of the *Library* of Cornell University contains a desirable account of the apparatus—grammars, texts, dictionaries, and reference works—for the study of the Egyptian hieroglyphs; and seventeen pages of classified titles of works relating to mathematics, covering so far about one-eighth of the so-called Kelly Mathematical Collection of the Library.

The official announcement concerning the American School of Classical Studies at Athens states that the school-year will extend from October 1 to June 1, and members will be required to prosecute their studies during the whole of this time in Greece, under the superintendence of the Director (Prof. W. W. Goodwin). During the rest of the year they may study where they please. The school studies will be definite, and one or more theses yearly will be expected upon them from each student. There will be no school fees, but also no scholarships except such as may be offered by individual colleges. The School will extend reasonable facilities to Americans residing in Greece, but not formally enrolled as students.

The *Penn Monthly* has ceased to exist, and is to be regretted as an enterprise undertaken in good faith, and dealing with a more serious line of topics than the ordinary magazine. At one time it seemed as if the advocacy of protection were its chief *raison d'être*.

One of the greatest curiosities on the Continent of Europe, the Maison Plantin at Antwerp, is briefly described, with illustrations, in the *Portfolio* for July (J. W. Bouton). The views, however—one interior and two exterior—are rather tantalizing when one considers how the typographic treasures preserved in this museum lend themselves to reproduction.

For the first time the venerable 'Almanach de Gotha' is supplemented by an 'Annuaire,' intended to perfect the list of diplomatic and consular agents of the civilized nations of both hemispheres (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). It is identical in form with the 'Almanach,' but is not more than one-quarter as thick. It first gives the Ambassadors, Ministers, etc., of each country, and immediately afterward the Secretaries, Attachés, etc.—all arranged alphabetically for ready reference. Then comes a list under each country of the diplomatic and consular corps resident therein, in alphabetical order (*a*) by nationality, (*b*) by place of residence. Finally, the entire *personnel* is indexed. The national colors occupy four colored plates at the end. The editors crave and merit indulgence for the necessary shortcomings of a first edition. The 'Annuaire' will appear regularly in the middle of the year.

The bi-monthly *Lettres Chrétiennes*, published at Lille, is hereafter to contain an analysis, prepared by M. Ulysse Chevalier, of periodicals and of the transactions of learned societies, over two hundred in number, so far as they contain articles on the subjects which this periodical treats—namely, literature, criticism, education, the defence of religion, and philological or historical learning.

A striking bust of the historian Lanfrey, by the sculptor Mezzara, has been placed in the Town Hall of Chambéry, his native place.

The latest bibliography is Wagnerian. Nicolaus Oesterlein, honorary member of the Vienna Wagner-Verein, and ardent collector of everything in print relating to the master, has prepared an elaborate 'Catalogue of a Richard Wagner Library.' This work, of which Mr. Christern has received the prospectus, is divided into six parts, beginning with a record of all that has been written by Wagner himself, and including references to all that has been said for and against him. There will be a Baireuth section, and one entitled "Curiosa," in which the humorous element will not be lacking; an appendix on the sources of Wagner's *Stoffwahl*, and a full index. Moreover, yearly additions will continue the Catalogue indefinitely. The Brothers Senf, in Leipzig, are the publishers.

—Apropos of our note (in No. 890, p. 53) regarding military prison life in the United States regular Army as pleasanter than in the British service, a correspondent writes: "One of the best buildings at Fort Snelling is that in which sixty convicts—mainly recaptured deserters—have been gathered from all parts of the Northwestern department. I have tasted their bread, made of the world-famous flour, Minnesota *Straight*. There is no better brand. Their labor is out-doors, and light, for there is little to be done. Their life is easier than that of the

scanty garrison, for they sleep out their full sleep every night, while every man of the soldiers outside must stand guard every other night for four hours—a task doubly harassing because broken into two watches. I saw two files of soldiers load their guns and escort the prisoners to their work, yet was told that escapes were no rarity. A week before, four convicts were at work near the river, one of whom, as their sentinel stooped to drink, pushed him in, while another, seizing his gun, forced him to walk on before the squad for half-a-dozen miles into the woods, and then permitted him to return unarmed, while the deserters had been no more heard of. After all, perhaps Fort Snelling malefactors lack one mitigation of their seclusion which has been enjoyed by the inmates of the Wisconsin State's-prison at Waupun. There a prima-donna of no small local celebrity came in and sang all her favorite airs to the congregated criminals on Sunday, while the price of admission to her week-day concerts in the neighborhood was too high for workingmen to afford that luxury. Outsiders there complain that sentimentalists will do nothing for a poor fellow till he is *done for*—or has done something dreadful."

—"J. D. B." writes us, referring to an extract we recently made from Ireland's 'Emerson':

"The prayer at the close of Emerson's Middlebury address, you speak of (vol. xxxv., p. 17, i.) as by 'a Massachusetts clergyman,' was in fact offered by Rev. Stephen Martindale, the Congregationalist minister of Wallingford, Vt. By two or three witnesses let every word be established. My wife and I were both there, heard the prayer, knew the maker of it, and agree in our testimony."

—Under the title of "Notes" on the native trees of the lower Wabash and White River Valleys, Mr. Robert Ridgway contributes a valuable paper to the current volume of the Proceedings of the National Museum, the result of long and careful observations made by himself and other naturalists upon the forest growth of southern Indiana and Illinois. The region in question is of special interest, because here many of the peculiarly Southern trees, like the pecan, the water locust, the over-cup oak, and the bald cypress, reach their Northern limits, and because this forest is hardly surpassed by any other in the number of species of which it is composed, and the magnificent development attained by many individuals. The forests of western Florida or southern Arkansas are perhaps richer in species, but nowhere in the whole of Eastern America have as many large specimens of as many species been recorded as Mr. Ridgway finds in the lower Wabash Valley. Nearly all of our largest and most valuable broad-leaved trees are here found associated together; and in a single square mile of woods 75 species of trees, nearly all of the first class, were detected by him, or nearly as many as grow on the whole European continent. By actual measurement, 34 species are found to occasionally exceed 100 feet in height, while 17 others, although not measured, are believed to attain a height of at least 100 feet. The tallest individual measured, a tulip tree, was 190 feet in height, and individuals of 10 other species exceed 150 feet.

—Mr. Ridgway calls attention to the fact that the numerous small prairies which were common in the Wabash Basin at the time of its first settlement have become transformed into woodland, and that owing to this gradual change of prairie to forest the actual area of forest in Wabash and the adjoining counties in Illinois is greater than fifty years ago. Extensive woods of oak and hickory more than eighty feet high, and with trunks nearly two feet through, are now growing on what was open prairie within the memory of some of the present owners of the land. This is interesting as a slight indication of the solution of the mystery which involves the origin of the prairies, while the rapidity with which these new woods have sprung up shows that the reproduction of our failing forests can be accomplished in a shorter time than is generally supposed, if proper consideration and attention can only be given to the subject. Mr. Ridgway's paper is a most important contribution to the knowledge of our trees, and it is greatly to be desired that local botanists should more generally follow his example, and record their observations upon the original trees and woods of their neighborhood before these shall have disappeared from off the land.

—The late George P. Marsh's 'Compendious Grammar of the Old Northern or Icelandic Language'—the earliest Icelandic grammar which saw the light outside of Scandinavia—was written in 1834-5, but was not printed until 1838. It was not a mere translation, but was compiled from the three grammars of Rask, printed at Copenhagen (1811 and 1832) and Stockholm (1818), with noteworthy improvements in the sections devoted to inflection, and much new and valuable matter in the treatment of the syntax. A considerable portion of the work was printed during the author's absence from Burlington, and he was obliged to trust the proof-reading to a less competent person, so that the volume contains some errors of the press. For this reason the book was never published, but copies were freely given to students of the ancient Northern tongue. Mr. Marsh's own knowledge of that tongue has perhaps not been excelled, extending even to a complete mastery of the complicated metrical system of the skálds, enabling him to read the most difficult old Icelandic verses with ease. His papers on Icelandic literature and philology, contributed to the *American Whig Review*, the *American Eclectic*, and various foreign and domestic journals, still remain the best essays by an American on these subjects, and well deserve republication. His collection of Scandinavian books, which a few years ago was deposited in the library of the University of Vermont, is especially rich in editions of the classical works of Iceland, a department to which he continued to add even in his latest years. With the late Professor C. C. Rafn, Secretary of the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries at Copenhagen, Mr. Marsh conducted a correspondence which extended from 1833 to Rafn's death in 1864. Several of his letters are published in 'Breve fra og til Carl Christian Rafn' (Copenhagen, 1869). After the first one, dated Burlington, October 21, 1833, they are all written in thoroughly idiomatic Danish. Professor Rafn was accustomed to state that in the whole correspondence, which was largely written before Mr. Marsh had ever visited any part of Scandinavia, he had detected but a single grammatical error on the part of the American scholar—a mistake in the gender of a noun. He wrote Swedish, too, with equal correctness—not an easy task to a foreigner familiar with Danish, owing to the close similarity and delicate divergences of the two tongues; and his acquaintance with the more southern languages of Europe was almost as exact. He possessed one of the broadest of minds, with an abnormally absorptive memory, and his knowledge ran in many varied, but never shallow channels. At one time he was the only authority in this country on the art and history of engraving, and made considerable collections, which were subsequently sold, and are now, if we are correct, preserved in Washington. Officers of the Army were wont to envy his profound acquaintance with military science, while naturalists were amazed at his far-reaching studies in nearly every department of physical investigation. In fact, specialists of any kind rarely conversed with him without feeling sure that he had devoted himself, with extraordinary zeal, to their own particular department. But, like most men of this class, his published works do not fairly represent the immensity and variety of his attainments.

—The 'Annual Register' for 1881 (London: Rivingtons) is sure to be a much-consulted volume of the series, so many germs of great political changes are contained in it. The Parliamentary revolution begun by the Parnellites in fighting the Land Bill; the short-lived Ministry of Gambetta; the French occupation of Tunis, of which the real causes are clearly set forth; the military *coups d'état* in Egypt; the assassination of the Czar Alexander; the assassination of Garfield—these are some of the events which will not soon be forgotten, and whose consequences will form the staple of the history of the current year, when it comes to be written for the next volume of the 'Register.' The two most valuable features are the daily Chronicle of events and the Obituaries. In the "Retrospect of Literature, Science, and Art," a summary is attempted for the last two provinces, but literature is treated in detail, with an attempt at independent judgment on each of a certain number of books. The result is certainly anything but a high order of criticism, and we do not see why the summary method is not employed here as in the case of science and art. Some one might be found to do for England and America what the foreign colaborers of the *Athenæum* do annually for their respective countries, in estimating the literary product of the twelvemonth. The appendix gives in parallel columns the text of the Land Bill of 1881 as brought in, and of the Act as passed.

—That a man's portrait can serve to emphasize the oblivion that has overtaken his name and reputation, will be believed by readers of *Le Livre* for July. Champfleury opens the number with a mocking article on the "Forgotten Romantics," taking Siméon Chaumier for his first illustration, in all probability because there was an absurd lithographic likeness of him handy for reproduction. S. Blondel begins a series of articles on the writer's tools, and in the first place concerning the pencil, of which the earliest mention, he says, is in a printed book, 'De Rerum fossilium Figuris,' of the year 1565. Colored crayons we owe to Jacques Conté, a French chemist commissioned by the Revolutionary Committee of Public Safety to supply the loss of the English article when war had interrupted commerce. To this day, however, France has neither plumbago nor cedar-wood for making lead-pencils, and is obliged to import these essential materials. Lamartine, says M. Blondel, always used a pencil in composing, for fluency's sake. Several dozen sharpened pencils lay constantly before him on his desk. In its news department, *Le Livre* tells of the discovery among Thiers's papers of voluminous "Notes," in one parcel, which have all the appearance of being materials for *mémoires intimes*. They will probably be published, despite Mlle. Dosne's repugnance. Further on, we have some distressing details of the plunder and dispersion of Balzac's library and private papers upon the death of his widow. There appears to be some mystery about the fate of Balzac's correspondence with Mme. Hanska before their marriage. Her story that she had burned it is not credited.

—Arsène Houssaye wrote the history of the *Forty-first* chair of the French Academy—of the great rejected who, in his opinion, ought not to

have been rejected ; the outs who were greater than any of the ins ; men who could describe themselves, with sarcastic modesty, as did Piron, "qui ne fut rien, pas même académicien." M. Edmond de Goncourt, the survivor of two brothers who have written much together and written well, but are not members of the Academy, means to go far beyond M. Houssaye in his protest, and to rival Richelieu by founding a new academy. He has made a will by which he creates a society of ten men who are not to be members of the Académie Française. Each academician will receive annually 6,000 francs salary. This is more than the elder Academy pays, but money was worth more when that was founded. Each year the *Académiciens Goncourt* are to meet (a new Council of Ten) to adjudge a prize of 5,000 francs to the best prose work produced in the previous twelve months. The funds for the foundation are to be obtained by the sale of the books and bric-à-brac now contained in M. Goncourt's villa at Auteuil, and so well described in the 'Maison d'un Artiste.' Perhaps the house itself will serve as the headquarters of the Academy. The first members will, it is supposed, be Naturalists, for Goncourt belongs to that school. The next generation will have the amusement of seeing the Naturalism in the new academy gradually yield to whatever is to succeed it in French literature, as Classicism gave way to Romanticism in the Académie Française. It is the indiscretion of M. d'Hervilly, a friend of M. Goncourt, that has revealed this fine project to the public. It is to be hoped that the members-elect, if they know that they are nominated in the will, will not be too impatient for the opportunity of pronouncing their founder's eulogy : also that they and their successors will never give occasion for the writing of a 'Histoire de l'onzième Fauteuil de l'Académie Goncourt.'

—The force of party feeling and political hatred in France is a continual surprise to us Americans, in our present calmness, and is occasionally alarming to those who hope for the quiet success of the French Republic. Yet any American past middle age, who can recollect with what energy of dislike his grandfather pronounced the words "British," "regulars," "red-coats," and how he would inveigh against standing armies and monarchical government, may understand a late scene in the French Chamber of Deputies. A speaker had used the proverb, "Où il n'y a rien le roi perd ses droits." A member of the Extreme Left cried out : "Shall we never get rid of these old formulas ?" and showed that he could not endure the word "king," even so innocently used. It was a trifle; but it is one of many trifles which show an implacable feeling that we may pardon if we remember our pre-bellic anti-slavery days, and the feeling attached to "Copperhead" only twenty years ago.

—The painter Jadin, who died lately, famous for the portraits which he painted of those poodles which Parisian ladies of a certain class have been ill-naturedly said to care more for than for their children, had another claim to be remembered by posterity. He discovered the *Quartier Monceau*. Thirty years ago he bought a large tract of land next to the Parc Monceau for a trifle, established himself there, and made the place known to his friends, and now it is the favorite place of artists and millionaires, much to the advantage of M. Jadin's heirs, for he had found selling land even more fashionable than painting King Charleses.

—The effacement of national peculiarities, alias "unification" of the world, steadily pursues its course. Paris, which has taken from and sent to London innumerable ideas, has at last borrowed the famous Madame Tussaud's wax-work gallery. The judicious Parisian managers have improved upon the English show by adding the journalists—to conciliate the press: Zola is there as large as life and quite as natural. Otherwise the plan of the whole is the same : warriors and statesmen side by side with murderers and forgers, in their very habits as they lived ; for it is the boast of the prospectus that particular attention has been paid to exact imitation of the clothing, one of the surest indications of character. The man who likes "se faire remarquer" has his brilliant necktie; the man of quieter disposition, who shows "qu'il est de son essence de passer inaperçu dans la foule," is indulged in his taste. The necessary knowledge of this important fact has apparently been gained by personal inquiry, if the celebrities have not actually sat for their statues as they sit for their photographs nowadays. It must be an interesting study of contemporary character to visit the Museum, and see how many and who have flaming neckties. The exhibition after all is not more foolish than many others that have drawn crowds in Paris, and perhaps the favor with which it is received means nothing. But some observant Parisians complain that serious drama is less thought of of late years; that the theatrical public goes less and less to judge and more and more to be amused; that many people who once, when the drama was flourishing, would have attended the theatre twice a week, now go only when some play is making a sensation; and as the plays of that kind are kept on the boards a hundred or three or four hundred nights, they can go to such a theatre at least but once a year—whence decay of the love for the drama and decay of the dramatic taste. The same strain was the burden of the London press while "Our Boys" was having its run of a thousand and one nights. In all countries which have any drama worth mentioning the drama is always decaying in the estimation of the lover of the good old times; but it can hardly be doubted that there has been a change in the temper of Parisian audiences since the time when Hazlitt, visiting the theatre in 1824, found "the attention more like that of a learned society to a lecture on some scientific subject than that of a promiscuous crowd collected merely for amusement. There was an unvarying gravity in looks and demeanor, as if every one had an immediate interest in the character of the national poetry, in the purity of the French accent, in the propriety of the declamation, in the conceptions of the actor, and the development of the story." The last interest still remains. Do all of the former?

—The "Report on the Health of Wênchow" for the six months ending September 30, 1881, by Dr. D. J. Macgowan, is egg-full of curious matter. Having, as he ingenuously confesses, but little to say on the official subject of his report, and being apparently an accomplished Sinologue, the author has taken the opportunity to throw together a miscellaneous collection of memoranda concerning some of the prevalent superstitions of the Chinese, which are well worth preserving. Among other things, he has a word to say about "epidemic frenzies"—the popular crazes which at times affect whole communities, and of which the most noted Western example is the witch mania which devastated Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. These epidemics appear to be very common in China, the latest conspicuous instance being the terror created in 1876 by the supernatural clipping of queues, which doubtless our readers will remember. It seems that sorcerers are in the habit of scattering charmed bits of paper representing men, which are the means of disseminating evil spirits throughout the community. When one of these spirits enters a house he proceeds to cut off a piece of the queues of the inmates, and the sorcerer, on obtaining possession of this, can evoke at will the soul of its owner, which he is able thereafter to use as a servile demon, while the man dies through the loss of his spirit. The only cure is for the sufferer to cut off an inch or two more of the remainder of his hair and keep it for eighty days soaking in a cesspool, thus severing the mysterious connection between his head and the portion of hair in possession of the sorcerer. For prevention, reliance is placed on amulets and charms, and in 1876 the Governor of Kiangsu issued a proclamation embodying a charm of his own invention, to be posted over the doors of dwellings or to be worn as an amulet. He further recommended an anathema, attributed to Lao-Tsze, the founder of Taoism, which was to be chanted while copying it on yellow paper with the blood of a cock mixed in vermilion, the paper being thereupon burned and the ashes swallowed. Dr. Macgowan assures us that there was scarcely a house-door that was not protected by a charm, and scarcely an individual who did not wear an amulet on cap or sleeve ; but it subsequently appeared that the panic was the work of secret revolutionary societies, whose emissaries found little difficulty in creating a disturbance by clipping off a few queues from the unwary in each large city, and by loudly announcing in places of public resort that they had been treated in the same way. After this, any one who suffered from nightmare, or had an attack of colic, or met with any theft or misfortune, attributed it to the paper men let loose by the sorcerers.

—The first volume of the Scientific Results of the *Vega* Expedition ('*Vega* expeditionens vetenskapliga jakttagelser,' etc.; 8vo, pp. 812, 15 maps and plates ; Stockholm, 1882), edited by Baron Nordenskiöld, is recently received. For so solid a volume it is difficult to do more than indicate the nature of its contents, which, with the exception of Professor Hildebrandsson's contribution, are printed in the Swedish language. Professor Nordenskiöld devotes one hundred and sixty pages to an account of the voyage prepared for Mr. Oscar Dickson and forwarded at intervals during the voyage ; and to a discussion of the feasibility of trade with the icy coasts of the Siberian seas. Almqvist follows with the health record of the party, an account of the provisioning from a hygienic point of view, the mess-bills, and a temperature record for the interior of the ship compared with that of the outer air during the time spent in winter quarters. He also contributes a 'Study of the Chukchi Color Sense,' and a summary of the lichen collections made on the north coast of Siberia. The botanical results are extensive. From Doctor Kjellman we have papers on the seaweeds of the Siberian Sea, on the Phanerogamic flora of the north coast of Siberia, Novaia Zemlia, and Waigatz Island, and of the Asiatic coast of Bering Strait, whence he describes a new primrose (*Primula tschuktschorum Kj.*) and a new rush (*Luzula latifolia*). These are beautifully illustrated, together with two new grasses belonging to the genus *Glyceria*, which are described by J. Lange in a catalogue of the flowering plants prepared by Kjellman and Lundström. Kjellman also contributes an article on the domestic life and habits of the Chukchi, whose language is illustrated by a vocabulary prepared by Lieutenant Nordqvist. The article by Nordenskiöld on the Aurora at the *Vega* winter quarters, illustrated by a fine map, develops that hypothesis of concentric terrestrial aurora-crowns, or "glories" which in a condensed form has been made public in the 'Voy-

age of the *Vega*' and in the columns of *Nature*. It is well understood that this hypothesis is the most important contribution to the study of auroras which has appeared in a number of years. The observations for geographical position obtained by the expedition are discussed by Lindhagen. Highly important in this connection is the discussion (in French) by Dr. Hildebrandsson of the meteorological observations made during the journey and wintering; especially in view of the recent well-deserved impeachment by Woeikoff of the East Siberian isotherms in Wild's great temperature atlas of the Russian Empire. We may be prepared for a flood of light on the reported temperatures of Verkhoyansk when the observatory at the Lena mouth, just established, begins to turn in its records. The volume closes with Dr. Stuxberg's comprehensive article "On the Invertebrate Fauna of the Siberian Sea," illustrated by some beautiful woodcuts and a well-executed map of dredging stations. Among other additions to knowledge, the name *Weyprechtia* is applied to a new genus of amphipods, a well-deserved honor and a name appropriate to one who haunts those icy seas. A list is given of the range in depth on the Siberian and Novaia-Zemlian coasts of the mollusks found semi-fossil on the tundras of the Yenisei. This article is especially full and valuable on the crustacea, and it is to be hoped that it will appear in a language a little more accessible to ordinary naturalists than the Swedish. The magnetic observations are still in process of computation and reduction, and we learn by a letter from Baron Nordenskiöld that Prof. Petterson, the better to elucidate some interesting points in the hydrography (which has been placed in his hands), has this summer undertaken a trip to Spitzbergen for the purpose of testing by experiment some theories which the *Vega* material has suggested. The results will appear in the second volume, next autumn.

LECKY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Vols. III. and IV. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

Mr. Lecky has mistaken his vocation. He possesses the talents of an essayist. He has, unfortunately, undertaken the duties of an historian, and does not possess the proper qualifications for the due performance of his task.

Historians, indeed, are, we frankly admit, of most different kinds. What we object to in Mr. Lecky is that he is not capable (as far as his writings show) of excelling in any of the various departments of history. He does not pretend to be an investigator, or to explore the eighteenth century in the same way in which Mr. Gardiner is exploring the wide field of the seventeenth century. He hardly makes a show of dealing with any but the patent and well-known facts of his subject. The Annual Register, the speeches and writings of Burke, the letters of Junius, the correspondence of George III. with Lord North, Mr. Bancroft's history, and works of a similar character, Mr. Lecky has read, and read with care, with intelligence, and with insight. But his reading—though far wider than that of the typical "educated gentleman," who is supposed (quite erroneously) to have at his fingers' ends all the common facts of English history—is in kind not unlike the reading of any intelligent student who cares to know what may easily be known about England during the first twenty years of George III.'s reign. We may even doubt whether Mr. Lecky can boast of anything like the special knowledge as to the lives of particular persons and the details of special transactions which gives considerable value to the narrow but very acute speculations of Dilke. This author, who is most unduly despised by Mr. Lecky, investigated certain problems—as, for example, the mystery which hangs over Burke's early career—in the spirit of an acute detective, but he, after all, knew what research meant, and therefore added something to the stock of human knowledge. Mr. Lecky has never realized that history is nothing but the collection of facts and the sifting of evidence.

If Mr. Lecky is not an investigator, neither does he stand high among narrators. His facile and flowing style makes everything that he narrates agreeable reading, but it takes no great acumen to perceive that Mr. Lecky does not possess that rarest of all gifts, the power of telling a complicated story in a lucid and simple manner. No writer will ever achieve this feat who is not endowed with a keen sense of proportion, and with an eye for perceiving how a complicated subject can be simplified by being carefully distributed into its different parts. Of proportion, Mr. Lecky has no perception whatever. His two volumes afford hardly adequate space for telling the story which he has to tell; yet he wastes twenty pages over the letters of Junius. We deliberately use the word "wastes," because Mr. Lecky all but admits that he has nothing new to say with reference to a subject about which it is hardly worth the while of any sensible man to say anything at all. He holds, perhaps with reason, that Francis was the author of the celebrated letters. But in favor of this opinion he produces not a single argument which is not already thoroughly well known to any person who has ever cared to glance at a controversy which is now chiefly interesting because of the number of men of mark who have at one time or another taken sides in it.

There are writers, such as Mr. Froude, who have not the capacity to give an account of complicated events in the form of a clear narrative, but who yet can paint the scenes of the past. Is Mr. Lecky one of these painters? We cannot with truth answer the question in the affirmative. We have read all his volumes with care, but we cannot recall a single description, either of events or of men, which has left any permanent impression on our memory. Mr. Lecky, indeed, makes great and conscientious efforts to present his readers with a fair estimate of the different actors in the drama of English politics. He tells us a great deal about George III., about Chatham, about Lord North, about Wilkes, and about Washington; but when we have heard everything he has to say we remain without any clear, definite notion of the character of the persons whom he means to describe. There is, for example, no topic to which Mr. Lecky devotes more labor than to the attempt to paint and explain the antagonism between Chatham and Burke. He makes a good number of remarks on this subject which may suggest an explanation of the fact that two statesmen who towered above all their contemporaries in genius, who were devoted body and soul to the public service, who were on many points of a mind, and who for many years were engaged on the same side in the same battle against the reactionary Toryism of George III., still could never act together, and clearly looked upon each other with a suspicion amounting at times almost to antipathy. But though Mr. Lecky makes sensible remarks on the relation between Chatham and Burke, he does not make it in the least easier for his readers to realize what was the true character of the two men who, if they could have acted in unison, might, one is sometimes inclined to fancy, have changed the course both of English and of American history. No one, however, can paint what he cannot conceive, and Mr. Lecky, with all his command of language, lacks imagination. He could describe the men of the past if he saw them, but he has not the gift, granted alike to Carlyle, to Froude, and to Macaulay, of seeing the dead as they appeared when alive.

A writer who is neither an investigator, nor a narrator, nor an artist may nevertheless do good work by bringing into view the general aspects—the salient features, so to speak—of a remarkable epoch. This is the service which we had expected from Mr. Lecky. In his 'History of Rationalism' (by far the best book he has produced), and in the two first volumes of the present work, he displays ingenuity, fairness, and freshness of intellect. He is not exactly original, but he is not tied down to old formulas or received opinions. He can look at things for himself, and therefore has more than once proved that he can see matters which have escaped the attention of better-informed but less open-minded inquirers. There was therefore good reason to hope that we should at any rate get from him a fresh view of the reign of George III. In this hope we have been to a great extent disappointed.

What makes it something like a moral obligation on the part of a friendly critic to warn Mr. Lecky of his mistake in attempting a consecutive narrative of the annals of England during the eighteenth century, is the fact that our author's endeavor to achieve what he cannot accomplish all but hinders him from performing the work for which he is, so to speak, created. The last two volumes of Mr. Lecky's book are hardly equal to the first two; they contain nothing so good in its way as his account of Methodism. Nevertheless, like everything he writes, they exhibit to all attentive critics his unmistakable aptitude for the work of historical essay-writing—an aptitude beyond that of any living English writer. His merits are seen far more clearly in the episodes than in the main course of his narrative. Few things are better than his description of the Gordon riots. If he could have expanded the whole into an essay, he would, without doubt, have thrown most interesting light upon three closely-connected topics to which, as it is, he can scarcely do more than casually allude—namely, the fanaticism and ignorance, a century ago, of the English populace; the weakness of the central Government; and the very great risk incurred by the country during the first twenty-five years of George III. of being drawn into a revolutionary crisis like that which overwhelmed France in 1789. The following picture of the great riots is eminently suggestive. The reader who peruses it must remember that whole districts of London were at the moment lurid with the flames of burning chapels and houses, and were resounding with the shouts of a drunken mob.

"Strange to say, in the unmolested parts of the town the ordinary amusements still went on; and Horace Walpole notices that on this dreadful night Lady Ailesbury was at the play in the Haymarket, and that his four nieces were with the Duke of Gloucester at Ranelagh. The night was fortunately very calm, and the sky was clear and glowing with the reflected flames, save where dark volumes of ascending smoke from time to time overspread it. The streets in the quarters where the riot was at its height were thronged with idle spectators—many of them women with infants in their arms—gazing on the scene, and mixing with terror-stricken fugitives who were endeavoring to save some portion of their property. Spectators were, in most places, in little danger, for the rioters were busily engaged, and they might be distinctly seen by the glare of the flames pursuing their work of plunder and demolition, for the most part entirely undisturbed, in the midst of the burning houses. Wraxall went through a great part of the disturbed district on foot, without the smallest hindrance; and he noticed that, as he stood with his companions by the wall of St.

Andrew's church-yard, near the spot where the fiercest conflagration was raging, a watchman with a lantern in his hand passed by, calling the hour as in a time of profound tranquillity" (vol. iii., p. 562).

Change a few names, and the picture of London in 1780 might very well be the picture of Paris in 1789 or in 1791. In each case there is the same mixture of frivolity and of horrors; in each case respectable men stand by and view the violence of the "people" with the calmness of apathy or of sympathy; in each case the mob act with an order and system which seem almost to argue discipline and leadership, while the troops are inactive because their commanders are full of hesitation and of uncertainty. Nor does the likeness between the English riots of 1780 and the Parisian riots of 1789 consist wholly in the superficial and external circumstances of the moment. From the accession of George III. down to the end of the American war there existed among large classes exactly that state of feeling which in modern times we call revolutionary. Junius, Wilkes, Horne Tooke, and a thousand forgotten demagogues and libellers rose to an influence which their class has constantly possessed in France, and has but very rarely possessed in England. Nothing more brutal was ever said, or written, or believed about Marie Antoinette than was said, written, and believed about George's mother. In England, again, as in France, the turbulence of the mob and the insane suspicions of the populace derived half their importance from the fact that men of weight and of worth thought hardly better of the policy of the Court than did the electors who cheered Wilkes because he had libelled the King and the King's Ministers.

If Mr. Lecky had followed out fully the suggestive hints which he lets fall as to the condition of feeling in England, he would have done work of great importance, well worthy of his high talents and of his deserved reputation. As it is, we have a poor history, interspersed with suggestions for more than one admirable essay. In one instance at least Mr. Lecky fairly follows out the true bent of his genius. He gives an account of the war with the American colonies which may rightly be called a first-rate essay on the causes and the character of the revolt by the colonists against Great Britain. That his conclusions are in every respect sound we cannot assert. Their general result may be fairly enough stated in a very few words. The incompetence, the blundering, and the shortsightedness of George and his Ministers, and of the mass of the English people by whom they were supported, do not admit of exaggeration. The high character of certain leaders on the American side—and notably of Washington—becomes the more visible the more closely the details of the struggle for independence are explored. On the other hand, the oppression exercised by England in the colonies was not of the kind which drives men to madness. In the earlier stages of the dispute popular feeling was obviously against a final breach with the mother country; and up to the very end of the contest there was a very large and influential minority throughout the insurgent colonies in favor of England. There is, therefore, on Mr. Lecky's view, no reason to suppose that the attempt to maintain the unbroken unity of the British Empire was in itself destined from the first to failure. An English general of genius—a Wellington or a Clive—might, in his opinion, have given to the policy of George III. at least a temporary success. Mr. Lecky's pages are written in a spirit of the most impartial fairness, and, we may add, of keen sympathy with the results of the Revolution. But to this part of his work we may return.

SEWALL'S DIARY.—II.

Diary of Samuel Sewall, 1674–1729. Vol. III. 1714–1729. Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. vii. Fifth Series. [See *Nation*, Nos. 696, 697, 765, 766.]

We have already remarked that this volume of 'Sewall's Diary' contains very little which is illustrative of times and manners, and scarcely anything of historical value. Especially is the last true, and it is really surprising that a man who held the high office that Sewall did could have kept a regular journal for fifteen years, and yet noted down so few items of public interest in it. It is true it was a commonplace period. That, however, Sewall probably did not realize. Meanwhile questions, such as they were, did arise and occupied men's minds. The Legislature of the Province—composed of genuine Yankees, men "of small fortunes and mean education," to use the language of Shute's memorial to George I. in 1723—this Legislature was engaged in a perpetual warfare on the royal Governor. It was a paper-money period. It was a period of continuous Indian warfare. Of these public issues, and of the actions and utterances of the public men of the day in regard to them, we get from the diary nothing that is valuable, and little that is new.

Neither is it very much better as respects life and manners. In this respect, the third volume gives us nothing which was not to be found in the two already published. The Chief Justice still went on pleasantly noting the exact day in April when by their arrival the "swallows proclaim the spring"; and especially does he record on every Christmas day that no notice whatever is taken of it, but "The Shops were open, and Carts came to town with Wood, Hoop-poles, Hay, &c., as at other times." The question of publicly observing the 25th of December came up, indeed, for the first time in Massachusetts, as we find by the diary, in 1722. It was three days only before Shute, thoroughly worn out by his contest with the Legislature, slipped away without any formal leave-taking and returned to England. On December 19 he took Sewall aside in the Council Chamber and spoke to him about adjourning the General Court over "because of Christmas." As he himself would have said, the Chief Justice was a man "*antiquis moribus, prisca fide.*" The Governor could not have touched him on a tenderer point. Not to observe Christmas had since 1621 been a cardinal point in the Massachusetts creed. Sewall never lost an occasion for calling this to mind. On April 1, 1719, for instance, he characteristically records: "In the morning I dehorted Sam Hirst and Grindal Rawson from playing Idle Tricks because 'twas first of April; they were the greatest fools that did so. New England men came hither to avoid anniversary days, the keeping of them, such as the 25th of Decr. How displeasing must it be to God, the giver of our Time, to keep anniversary days to play the fool with ourselves and others." So now, when Governor Shute suggested the actual recognition of Christmas by an adjournment of the Legislature, the Chief Justice could only say that he "would consider of it." Two days later the suggestion took a formal shape. The Governor absolutely propounded it to the Council. A warm discussion ensued, during which "Col. Taylor spake so loud and boisterously for Adjourning that 'twas hard for any to put in a word." Finally Sewall stood up and declared that "the Dissenters came a great way for their Liberties, and now the Church [the Episcopalians] had theirs; yet they could not be contented except they might Tread all others down." No vote seems to have been taken, but the next day the Governor, who had announced himself as of "the Church of England," took advantage of his prerogative and adjourned the court over to Wednesday, Christmas falling on Tuesday. So on Tuesday the Chief Justice grimly saw fit "to stay at home and not go to Roxbury Lecture," which might have savored of an observance of the day, but instead thereof, "Visited my old friend and carpenter, Peter Weare, but found him gone to heaven."

A few other passages throw curious gleams of light on manners. The following is one of them, the scene being the church in the little village of Rehoboth, on the Rhode Island line, where the Chief Justice was holding court:

"Septr. 9, [1716] Lord's Day, Mr. Greenwood preached very well. Afternoon call'd William Brown and Elizabeth his wife to present themselves. They stood in the Fore-Ally and were admitted, Confessing their Sin of Fornication."

There is another and longer entry, under date of May 14, 1716, which illustrates strikingly the religious severity of the time. Two young merchants, having a ship ready to sail from Portsmouth, set out to go there from Salem one Sunday morning. Sewall was then going the Circuit and chanced to be at Newbury. He says:

"In the evening I had an inkling that two Merchants came from Ipswich. I said, How shall I do to avoid fining them. I examined Richard Gerrish [one of the two]. As I understood him, they lodg'd at Major Epes's on Satterday night, and went to the publick Worship there; and when the Afternoon Exercise was over, came to Newbury. They Travailed not in Service Time: and had a Ship at Portsmouth ready to sail which wanted their Dispatch. . . . I consulted with Col. Thomas, who inclin'd to admonish them as young, and strangers, and let them go.

"Newbury, May 14, 1716.—By long and by late I spake with Mr. Richard Gerrest, jun'r, and Mr. Peter La Blond [the other young merchant], by whom I understand they were at Mr. Wigglesworth in the morning and at Ipswich Meeting in the afternoon. Being in a strait, I had pray'd to God to direct. I considered that Col. Thomas was not a Justice there; that this Profanation of the Sabbath was very great; and the Transgressors fleeting from Town to Town and County to County could rarely be censured. . . . I came to this Resolution, that if they would make such a submission as this I would let them pass, viz.: We do acknowledge our Transgressions of the Law in Travailing upon the Lord's Day, May 13, 1716. And do promise not to offend in the like kind hereafter, as witness our hands.

"Richard Gerrish.
"Peter La Blond.

"This offer they rejected with some Disdain, and Mr. La Blond paid me a 30s. and 10s. Bill of Credit for both their Fines."

Under such circumstances as these it was small matter for surprise that a strong under-current of anti-religious protest existed. It certainly did exist, and sometimes manifested itself in unexpected ways. For instance, on January 8, 1717, the church in question being apparently the Old South, Sewall records:

"'Tis sad it should be so, but a virulent Libel was starch'd on upon the Three Doors of the Meeting House, containing the following Words:

TO ALL TRUE-HEARTED CHRISTIANS.

"Good people, within this House, this very day,
A canting Crew will meet to fast and pray.
Just as the miser fasts with greedy mind, to spare;
So the glutton fasts, to eat a greater share.
But the sower-headed Presbyterians fast to seem more holy,
And their Canting Ministers to punish sinfull foley."

The volume as a whole, however, as we have already said, is a record not of incidents even such as these, but of the grotesque details of the old man's courtings. His first wife died on the 19th of October, 1717—"Whereby," he records, "the Chamber was fill'd with a Flood of Tears. God is teaching me a new Lesson: to live a Widower's Life." The lesson seems to have been very imperfectly learned, for just three months and a half afterward, the old gentleman, being then hard on sixty-six, was already casting amorous eyes on Madam Wait Winthrop, who had been a widow three weeks less time than he

had been a widower, to wit: two months and twenty-seven days. Mrs. Winthrop was then fifty-four. Presently in 1719 he married the widow Tilley, and she suddenly expired, "to our great astonishment, especially mine," on May 26, 1720. On the first day of the following October, being then sixty-eight years and six months old, and just four months a widower, Sewall goes round to see Madam Winthrop, and begins another courtship by telling her: "My loving wife died so soon and suddenly, 'twas hardly convenient for me to think of Marrying again; however I came to this Resolution, that I would not make my Court to any person without first Consulting with her."

This courtship, which never resulted in marriage, was first begun, by the way, in a highly characteristic manner. The Chief Justice thus records it:

"Febr. 3, 2, [1718]. I sent Madam Winthrop, Smoking Flax Inflamed, the Jewish Children of Berlin, and my small vial of Tears, by Mr. Gerrish, with my service: She thanks me, and returns her Service to me."

These were all theological tracts of the time, such as Sewall was in the custom of showering about him on special occasions; but, under the circumstances, "Smoking Flax Inflamed" was certainly a happy selection. Three days later comes the following:

"Febr. 6. This morning wondering in my mind whether to live a Single or a Married Life; I had a sweet and very affectionate Meditation Concerning the Lord Jesus; Nothing was to be objected against his Person, Parentage, Relations, Estate, House, Home! Why did I not resolutely, presently close with him! And I cry'd mightily to God that He would help me so to doe."

It would have been well for Sewall if the help thus "mightily cry'd" for had been vouchsafed to him, for the old man, it would seem, must have turned in his grave, and his ashes cried out against the vandal-like desecration which was wrought, when, a century and a half later, every ludicrous detail of what afterwards took place was set forth in print:

> "Proclaim the faults he would not show;
> Break lock and seal; betray the trust;
> Keep nothing sacred; 'tis but just
> The many-headed beast should know."

Into the details of Chief Justice Sewall's numerous courtships in his old age we do not, for reasons already given, propose to enter. They are certainly graphic and entertaining enough, and they are now common property; but they were not written to be printed, and his descendants never should have allowed them to pass out of their possession. The thing has been done, however, and the poor old man stands before posterity in a way no other man ever stood. The picture, however entertaining, is not a pleasant one, and we shall not reproduce it. Those who wish to study it can do so by consulting the volume before us, more especially between pages 262 and 276.

RECENT BOOKS ON THE AZORES.

THE literature relating to the Azores is so very scanty—having been comprised until lately, so far as the English language is concerned, in three or four books and a few magazine articles—that the simultaneous addition to it of two readable works, within a month, is certainly a fact worth noting. It is fortunate that these two are so essentially different as to help rather than hinder each other. One is by a shrewd journalist, the other by a keen-eyed woman. The lady's book is unquestionably the better of the two—better planned, embracing better material, and better handled; it is also better printed, and more attractive to the eye; and, although the book of her male rival is illustrated (as we are twice informed on the cover), yet the illustrations are so cheap and poor as to add little to its value. But both works have their merits, and either will inspire a wish to make personal acquaintance with the quaint, unchanging, semi-tropical, half-Moorish "Western Islands," or Azores.

Mr. Lyman H. Weeks's 'Among the Azores' (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.) appeared originally in the form of letters to the Boston *Traveller* and *Herald* and other journals. In his capacity of reporter, Mr. Weeks has visited the smaller islands of the group as well as the larger, and has well portrayed their narrow and weary stagnation of existence—a thing picturesque and even fascinating for a few days to the untravelled American, and after that time inexpressibly wearisome. The author is also a botanist, or his Azorean life has made him such, and he gives us the scientific names, and sometimes the descriptions, of the beautiful ferns which are the glory of the wild Azorean flora; and he also depicts with some minuteness the world-famous gardens of San Miguel. All that can be done by English gardeners, transferred to a semi-tropical climate and furnished with almost unlimited means, has been done at Ponta Delgada. Shrubs, trees, and herbaceous plants have been imported from Africa, Asia, Australia, and America: it is what might be called, in the modern phrase, cosmic horticulture. There are ferns twenty feet high growing in grottos; there are a hundred varieties of camellia in a single garden; there is the beautiful Norfolk Island pine; the traveller's-tree from Madagascar; the Australian *Banksia*, lifting its heads of red and yellow flowers fifty feet in air. The garden of Senhor de Canto exhibits two hundred and fifty varieties of magnolia, and more than four thousand very rare exotics. Kew Gardens, in England, do not at all equal these more southern paradises; and one looks beyond them all, it must be remembered, upon the glorious background of the ocean. Mr. Weeks has a keen eye, not for flowers alone, but for local habits and traditions; but either he or his proof-readers must be sometimes careless about their Portuguese, or they would not give us *fas favour* for *faça favor* (p. 104), and *carapuca* for *carapuça* (p. 143)—this being the name for the curious horned hat of the San Miguel peasants. The author neglects his accents, too, and his José becomes almost always Jose. One of the best passages in the book is the sketch of an Azorean post-office, with the long and patient waiting of the people, and the extraordinary arrangement of the letters. It takes nearly all day to distribute the mail, however small, and the final delivery is thus effected:

"First the mail for the Custom-house, the civic governor, the military commandant, the captain of the post, and other important functionaries is handed, in neatly arranged packages, to messengers in waiting. The rest of the mail is arranged in alphabetical order, not, however, by the family, but by the baptismal names. Under A come all the Antonios, under J the Josés, and so on. Commencing with A, the clerk begins to read, in a slow, monotonous tone, all the addresses in regular order, something like this: 'Antonio Joaquim, Antonio José de Silva, Antonio Ignatio Roderigues, Affonso Lecpoldine de Almeida, Affonso Constantina Seza de Freitas.' A is always a long list, for the Antonios are numerous; F is large, for there are the Franciscos; J has a lengthy roll of Josés and Joãos; and M contains the Manuels and Miguels. The other letters of the alphabet are less fruitful, but if you happen to be so unfortunate as to be called Zachariah, Zebediah, or some kindred name, the tantalization will be perfect.

"Standing in this steaming, smoking, sweltering, jostling crowd during all this alphabetical harangue is not conducive to good humor, or to an admiration of Portuguese official methods; but habitués soon become marvellously proficient in calculating when their letter is to be called. When the office is first opened, only the A's fill the room; presently these begin to fall out, and the others take their places, until shortly the A's are all gone and the F's are in the majority; these in turn give way to the J's, who have been gradually dropping in, and who by and by yield to the M's; and so the work proceeds until the whole mail has been read over" (pp. 103–4).

Miss C. Alice Baker's 'A Summer in the Azores, with a Glimpse of Madeira' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) is a book of more delicate literary execution than that just described. Miss Baker is an eminent teacher, well known also for her lectures on American history; yet her little book is never oppressively didactic, and she has the activity and eager spirits which are said to characterize those of her profession when on a vacation trip. Her descriptions of Fayal, which is the Azorean island mainly interesting to Americans, are far more ample and satisfactory than those of Mr. Weeks; and this not so much from greater opportunities as from a better observing faculty. Each of them, for instance, spent a day in making the excursion to the *Caldeira*, or crater, in the centre of the island, but Miss Baker makes twice as much of it. Her delineations of street-life in Horta, the capital of Fayal, are by far the best, and it is the same with peasant life; and she gives rather more detailed information as to ways of living and prices of labor—points of some interest where the best dressmakers earn but twelve cents a day, and milk-maids eight cents (p. 60). It must be said, however, that neither writer adds anything to our knowledge of the curious inscriptions, in an alphabet not yet identified, which are to be found in some of the rural churches on the island of Fayal.

One of the most unquestionable traits in Miss Baker is a very uncommon talent for telling a story. We have rarely read anything in its way better than her narrative, as taken down from a sailor's lips, of the rescue of Boyle O'Reilly from Australia. Every touch tells, and not a word is wasted. We have no room to quote it (pp. 17–23), nor even to give the tale of the sea-captain's wife who saved her husband's life with warm plates (pp. 170–1), but we must spare space for an anecdote and a description. The anecdote is of the wife of a whaling-captain, who put in at Fayal and was the guest of the ever-hospitable American consul, Mr. Dabney. The Consul's wife, seeing the good woman sitting bolt upright for a long time in a straight-backed chair, kindly urged her to lie down upon a couch and rest. "No, I thank you," was the reply. "I've been a layin' for six months, and I think I'd rather set a spell" (p. 172). This may serve as a companion-picture to that of the monk in 'Hypatia,' who, after a week's boat-journey on the Nile, declines the primate's invitation to take a chair at Alexandria, and prefers to remain standing, inasmuch as "of sitting, as of all carnal pleasures, cometh satiety at the last." As to the description which we propose to quote from Miss Baker's book, it relates to an extraordinary mode of "coasting," or sliding down hill, which prevails in the excessively steep streets of Madeira:

"The sled holds two people, and is like the *carro* [sledge] cut in halves—a wicker body on low wooden runners, projecting a little, and rounded at both ends, to prevent accident. Two men guide each sled. A stout rope extends from the point of each runner to the hand of the guide on either side.

"The steep street, which is paved with small beach-stones set on their edges, and is worn flat and polished by the constant passage of *carro* and sled, is unusually slippery to-day after the rain. The men dare not give the sled her head. It is very dangerous. With one hand firmly on the back of the sled, the other grasping the rope, they plant their bare feet squarely on the smooth pavement, and brace back with all their strength. Their pose and action are superb. One man falls, and is dragged some distance, but manfully clings to the rope, and keeps us in the track. We go very slowly, but to us novices it seems quite

fast enough. We coast under trellises arching from wall to wall, between which the road winds. Some of these trellises are covered with great masses of bougainvillia in full bloom; others bear squash-vines with immense squashes supported by straps. Lower down, men are picking huge clusters of purple and white grapes, and drop them down into the sledge for us to eat as we go.

"At last we reach the rain-level; the guides put on their shoes, and then the fearful race begins. Running a little way, till the sled acquires a momentum, the guides then jump upon the hind-ends of the runners, where they stand on one foot, guiding the sled by the ropes and the free foot. There are four sleds. The runners of those ahead of us smoke, and smell of burning wood. We hold our breath, and, frightened, clutch each other's hands. Our speed is terrific. To our horror, we in the last sled, being a little behind the rest, see a lady on horseback slowly advancing up the hill. It seems impossible for us to pass her safely, even if she hugs the wall and her horse be quiet. It takes but an instant to see that he is not quiet, and that the approaching sled terrifies him. In an instant a lifetime is lived. There is a dreadful vision of three women killed or mangled; one, still more to be pitied, spared to tell the tale at home. Just as we reach them, the horse pulls away from his leader, turns his nose to the wall, his hind-quarters to the sled. We cower, throw ourselves far over to the other track. She and we are safe! Not a shriek nor a word has escaped any of us, but the two in the sled are faint and exhausted from the impending peril. A few more dizzy zigzags, and we are at the bottom. Fifteen minutes' coasting, including one or two stops, has accomplished what we were two hours and a half doing on horseback" (pp. 161–3).

Bright Days in the Old Plantation Time. By Mary Ross Banks. Illustrated by James H. Moser. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

THIS volume purports to be a narrative of the adventures of a little girl on a Southern plantation before the war. The conception is excellent, but it is loosely carried out. The self-consciousness of the author leads to a painful elaboration of details that are trifling and unimportant. The interest centres in the contrast between the little girl and the house-servant, a negro woman named Bet. Whenever these two are brought together the general looseness of style and intention disappears, and we are presented with a very vivid picture of the relations that existed between the negroes and the children of their masters. That there is a reasonable basis for such a picture is a tribute, not to slavery or to any of its results, but to the character of the negroes themselves. From every part of the South comes testimony to the effect that the faithfulness of the colored people to the families of their masters was based, not upon ignorance and thoughtlessness, but upon an affection more remarkable than any that has hitherto been chronicled in history or romance. There are occasional touches of character-drawing here and there in the book that are exceedingly vigorous; indeed, in contrast to the inconsequence by which they are surrounded, they are surprisingly vivid.

Perhaps it would be well to take the negro dialect on trust. Occasionally it is strikingly written, but it is not systematic. The lapses, occurring always at a critical moment, are characterized by an almost entire absence of that happy assimilation of thought and word, idea and expression, which is the secret of all dialect-writing. The negro dialect is something more than a mere jumble of curiously-spelled words. It is full of humor, and of that humble impulsiveness which has been so grossly misunderstood and misrepresented by the great majority of those who have attempted to convey the negro character into literature. Moreover, the dialect has a tone of its own: its words, its expressions, or its humor may vary with individuals, but its tone remains the same. It is the same in the dialect of the Atlantic coast and Sea Islands as in the dialect of the cotton and tobacco plantations: the methods are different, but the tone—the spirit—remains identical. Is it likely that a negro woman on a plantation, before the war, would have said: "I wan' ter 'gin de prepperashuns fur de 'tainment"? Is it likely that the leader of ceremonies at a plantation corn-shucking, before the war, would have exclaimed: "Come, boys, le's sing sumpin' suiterble ter de 'cashun. You'z all got on too much steam. Le's blow our whissels, er some our b'ilers mought bust"? It is possible, of course, that such expressions might have been used; but are they characteristic, are they typical? The fact that the ideas conveyed are sometimes in contrast with the words employed, gives to some of the negro talk a curious and not uninteresting flavor of the cracker dialect reproduced by such writers as Longstreet, Thompson, and Baldwin. Of the songs given, "'Way in de Kingdom" is one of the most characteristic spirituals we have ever seen. A play-song, "I'z in dis lady's gyardin," lacks the refrain-chorus of "Hol' de keys, ladies, hol' de keys." But has this song a negro origin? If so, how about

> "Come under, come under,
> My honey, my love, my own true love,
> My heart's been a-weeping
> This long time for thee"?

Even on the Sea Islands, where contact between the two races has been comparatively limited, the negroes have borrowed a number of folk-songs from the whites. They have also appropriated many of the signs and omens that belong to the lore of the whites.

Mrs. Banks has missed writing an important book not because her style is crude and her methods inartistic, but because she has failed to avail herself of the vast mass of material lying, so to speak, at her elbow.

The Boundary Disputes of Connecticut. By Clarence Winthrop Bowen. "Sunt certi denique fines, Quos ultra citraque nequit consistere rectum." Boston: Jas. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 4to, pp. 90. Portrait and 17 maps.

THE god Terminus seems to have wreaked a cruel vengeance upon the Puritan commonwealth which had despised his authority and dispensed with his services. He hopelessly confounded "the ancient landmarks which the fathers had set"; so that from the building of the first house in Connecticut, in 1633, it was two hundred and forty-seven years before any one could positively lay down the boundaries of colony or State. The story of this long uncertainty, of the diplomatic negotiations, the controversies in the royal courts, the violent assertions of jurisdiction on the one hand, and the violent resistance to it on the other, is the subject of Mr. Bowen's superb volume. He has rendered a substantial service by the laborious thoroughness with which he has explored not only the very numerous publications which constitute the existing library of Connecticut's history, but also the inedited original documents of that history. These sources are faithfully indicated in abundant foot-notes; and many of them are reproduced for the first time in the form of several of the maps with which the book is so amply illustrated. By these helps, not less than by the text, it is made easy to see how the eccentric zigzag which deforms the western boundary at its southern end, and how the two strange notches which break the northern boundary near the middle came to be the outline of the State. The means by which Long Island, and almost all that was not mainland, although once belonging to Connecticut, was wrested from it, so that now the State is bounded on the south, and almost, for a little distance, on the east, by New York, is also made plain. And it will not be remarkable if Mr. Bowen's condensed and unpretentious narrative shall leave upon any mind the impression that the little colony and State suffered the usual fate of the weaker in its controversies with New York and Massachusetts, and only got its rights when it had to do with a still weaker power that adjoined it on the east.

It must be added, however, in fairness, that the book is so good that it ought to be better. Its utility would have been none the less if, to the publisher's splendid letter-press and lavish illustrations, the author had contributed the graces of a literary elegance which perhaps may come to him with years and experience. "The Mohegan lands, which included the old Pequot country and (dependent upon which by right of conquest) the Wabbaquassett or Nipmuck country" (p. 25), is a startling bit of rhetoric. One is puzzled to know how Long Island (which is some twenty miles wide) could ever have been "the southern boundary" of Connecticut (p. 28); and yet the writer means that the Island was part of the colony. "This claim . . . was called by Rhode Island 'a legalized robbery,' and had been 'procured by an underhand dealing'" (p. 34); although the author only means to state the Rhode Islander's complaint. It is an odd anachronism to speak of the Province of Massachusetts and the Colony of Connecticut, in the seventeenth century, as "States" (pp. 36, 38, 61, 72). It was not in 1637 (p. 15), but on the 15th of April, 1638, that the settlement at New Haven began.

It would have been quite germane to the subject of Mr. Bowen's book if he had given a reasonably full account of the proceedings, in a Federal court specially constituted for the purpose, by which the Connecticut claim to jurisdiction over the northern part of Pennsylvania was finally terminated. The curious story of that claim, arising out of a grant running west to the Pacific Ocean, under which delegates used to be sent from Pennsylvania to the Connecticut General Assembly, is disposed of here in a few lines. But the volume partakes so much, in the splendor with which it is offered to the public, of the character of a gift, that the popular adage upon that subject may well preclude unfavorable criticism.

From Sword to Share; or, A Fortune in Five Years at Hawaii. By Capt. H. Whalley Nicholson. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 12mo, pp. xix.–348.

CAPTAIN NICHOLSON is an English Army officer, who has recently spent a year or so in the Hawaiian Islands, and who undertakes to show how a comfortable fortune may be made in five years on an investment of £1,500 in the sugar culture. His own abandonment of the "sword" for the "share" was quite too brief for any such desirable result in his own case; but as this circumstance is not made evident in his very readable but misleading book, we shall be able to render a cautionary service by revising his estimates.

'From Sword to Share' is intended to prove the following proposition: that any intelligent and active person who will start for Honolulu with the £1,500 in his pocket, and who will raise four crops of sugar, beginning with fifty acres on rent at half shares of the produce, and adding fifty acres annually to his farm, will at the end of that time have £7,750 clear profits, in addition to his plant (£650) and maintenance (£600) for five years on the plantation. We give an abstract of the figures by which this desirable result is made to appear: During the first fifteen months of residence the whole capital of £1,500 is invested in travelling expenses, implements, buildings, wages, and maintenance. The profits then come in on paper as follows:

First crop.—Half share of produce from 50 acres plant canes, at 3 tons per acre (net price in San Francisco, £1,650). Net profit	£150
Second crop.—50 acres rattoon canes, 50 acres plant canes. Net profit	1,350
Third crop.—100 acres plant cane, 50 acres rattoons. Net profit	2,500
Fourth crop.—100 acres plant, 100 rattoons. Net profit	3,750
Total profit over and above maintenance	£7,750

This sum includes the cost of the plant (houses, implements, etc.) referred to above. What the fortune of the sugar-grower would be after ten or twenty years' residence is left to the imagination.

The above estimate is a very alluring one, and it has a definiteness which will very likely tempt half-pay officers and others to follow Captain Nicholson's advice. While wishing them all success, we must make two corrections of the first importance in his estimates. And first, Captain Nicholson estimates that the rattoon-cane, or that which grows spontaneously during the second year from the roots of the cut plant-cane, will yield as heavy a crop as the latter. The fact is, that it cannot be depended upon to yield more than a half crop. This error is one which could not have been committed by a planter, and it makes our author's estimate of profits about thirty per cent. too high, even on theory. Captain Nicholson's second error is equally unpractical: he overlooks entirely the actual results of the Hawaiian planter's experience up to the present time. Substantially, they are as follows: There are now at the Islands fifty-one plantations owning their own mills, and twenty-two planters who own no mills, but send out their crop to be ground. A considerable number of both these classes of planters are in a fair way to make money, but only a few have made money as yet. The great majority of the planters on shares, so far from getting back their investment from the first crop, are still in debt. Of the whole number of plantations, not more than ten are yet unembarrassed and in a paying condition; and not one has ever borne out, thus far, the glowing estimates of Captain Nicholson. But, on the other hand, there can be little doubt that the investment of a moderate capital in Hawaiian sugar-planting by a person who has a knowledge of the business, and the energy to supervise its practical details, offers at the present moment (thanks to the Hawaiian Treaty) a favorable opportunity of profit. The amount of sugar exported from the Islands is still small, and it finds a ready market in San Francisco. The yield per acre (three to six, or even, in favored localities, seven tons) exceeds that of any other sugar-growing country; and the improved processes of irrigation now in use have removed the chief source of detriment to the Hawaiian sugar-crops, that of drought. We do not know how many soldiers the author's country might spare at present, but it is safe to say that a considerable number of energetic persons might venture the change from shop to "share" in Hawaii with a fair chance of success.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abel, C. Linguistic Essays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Allen, J. W., jr. Paul Dreifuss: His Holiday Abroad. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.

Annual Register: a Review of Public Events at Home and Abroad, for the Year 1881. London: Rivingtons.

Bugge, Prof. S. Studien über die Entstehung der nordischen Götter- und Heldensagen. First series, Part 2. Munich: Christian Kaiser; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

Besant, W., and Rice, J. "So They were Married." Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Blackie, J. S. Altavona: Fact and Fiction from My Life in the Highlands. Edinburgh David Douglas.

Callender, E. B. Thaddeus Stevens, Commoner. Boston: A. Williams & Co. $1 25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 10, 1882.

The Week.

CONGRESS had nothing to do with the motives that may have prompted President Arthur to veto the River and Harbor Bill. The veto was called for by the public interest, and was a patriotic and meritorious act in itself. The reasons upon which it was based were unanswerable. The President showed conclusively that some of the appropriations went beyond the constitutional powers of Congress, and that many involved a reckless waste of money. No appropriation bill ever was more wanton in its lavishness. No veto message ever was clearer and more irrefutable in point of argument. None has ever appealed more directly to the constitutional conscience as well as to the moral sense of members of Congress. In the face of all this, both Houses voted down the veto by majorities exceeding the required two-thirds. Democratic papers say that the Republicans have a majority in Congress, and are therefore responsible for all that is done. Republican papers say that the Democrats furnished the votes that made the two-thirds possible, and that many of the most extravagant and objectionable appropriations in the bill were moved and put in by Democrats. It is high time for the taxpayer who has to foot the bills, and the good citizen who does not want this Government to become a mere machinery of plunder and a sink of corruption, to look at this thing carefully and impartially.

Among those who voted to pass the River and Harbor Bill over the President's veto there were in the House of Representatives sixty-five Republicans, fifty-one Democrats, two Independent Democrats, and four Greenbackers. Of those who sustained the veto in the House, thirty were Republicans, twenty-four Democrats, and one a Republican Greenbacker. In the Senate there were eighteen Republicans and twenty-three Democrats against the veto, and twelve Republicans, three Democrats, and one Independent in favor of sustaining it, and saving the public money. In both Houses there was much lively and skilful "pairing" between Republicans and Democrats, all calculated to help the opponents of the veto. It appears, therefore, that as to this vote, by which eighteen millions are taken out of the Treasury, about six of which can be usefully expended, while the rest may be classed as a profligate waste of public money, the honors between the two parties are perfectly easy. Democrats and Republicans will lustily abuse one another when the question is which party shall have the offices. They fight one another tooth and nail on the stump and at the polls. But when it comes to draining the Treasury, a large majority of the chosen men of one party will harmoniously coöperate with a majority of the other like a band of brothers. They fight for the first seats at the table and embrace in the gutter.

It would not be surprising if an outside observer should make a mistake in a comparative estimate of the amounts of the various appropriation bills, considering the procrastination, slovenliness, and final haste which mark the passage of these measures. But when two members of Congress differ nearly $30,000,000 in their statement of the total, one or the other is convicted of gross ignorance of a subject with which he ought to be familiar. On Saturday Senator Allison, of Iowa, said the sum appropriated this year was $294,243,097 36, an increase over last year of $77,500,000. Representative Hiscock of New York said on the same day that the total was $265,469,000, and the increase $48,297,000. Here is a disagreement, in precise figures, of $29,203,000 as to the annual growth of Congressional extravagance. Either comparison is sufficiently shameful, but when members do not know even how much money is wasted, the waste is partly explained by the incapacity or negligence of those whose duty it is to prevent it. There is a like variance as to details—Mr. Allison putting the increased payments for pensions at $47,719,693, and Mr. Hiscock at $34,000,000 — a difference of $13,719,693. The disagreement as to the total may be accounted for in part by the fact that Mr. Hiscock included in his estimate only the regular appropriation bills, while Mr. Allison added the amount, more than $24,000,000, embraced in other bills authorizing expenditure of money—as it was entirely proper for him to do in a financial comparison, because, whatever the bill may be called, the draft upon the Treasury is the same. But even upon this theory there is still a difference of $4,634,225 70—Mr. Allison making the total of the regular bills $270,103,225 70, and Mr. Hiscock making it $265,469,000. As to pensions, while nobody has been able to tell precisely what expenditure the reckless Arrearages Act will in the end involve, it ought to be easy to ascertain what sums are appropriated under it from year to year. Yet the Iowa Senator and the New York Representative are nearly fourteen millions apart. Another member, Representative Atkins, of Tennessee, agreed with neither of the others, but said that the total excess for the year was $78,247,000.

Mr. D. B. Henderson, Secretary of the Republican Congressional Committee, denies indignantly that women in the Federal service have been subjected to political assessments. "Nowhere in the United States," he says, "has any woman or child been asked to contribute." Mr. Henderson's warmth in this matter is rather surprising. Upon Assessor Hubbell's theory—that the officeholders who secured their offices through the supremacy of the Republican party ought to pay a part of their salary to maintain that supremacy—why should not a woman or a child who has an office pay for it as well as a man? But Mr. Henderson is making a distinction without a perceptible difference. The Hubbell assessment really falls upon those whose means of support are diminished by it. If a clerk with a small salary and a large family is required to give two per cent. of his pay to the Congressional Committee, his wife and children certainly do contribute in a substantial way.

The *Times*, it seems, was wrong in saying that "A. Thomas," to whom Mr. Folger wrote so thoughtfully on the subject of "voluntary" assessments, was a myth. It appears from the Congressional Directory that Alfred Thomas, of the Miscellaneous Division in the Second Comptroller's Office, is the person who was longing so earnestly to contribute to Mr. Hubbell's fund, and inquired of the Secretary whether he might do it safely. This lends a human interest to the correspondence which it would otherwise lack. What a relief it must have been to Alfred and his fellow clerks, and what joy must have spread throughout the Miscellaneous Division when the news came that they might after all contribute!

The meeting of the National Civil-Service Reform League, which took place on Wednesday at Newport, listened to a very eloquent and pointed address from Mr. George W. Curtis, and adopted some resolutions which, if vigorously acted upon, will exercise an important influence on the elections in several Congressional districts. Mr. Curtis pointed out that while the President had given the subject of civil-service reform at least a respectful discussion in his message, and "urgently" asked for the appropriation of $25,000 for a Civil-Service Commission, and while a committee of the Senate had instituted some serious and valuable inquiries into the comparative workings of the old and the reformed systems, and favorably reported to the Senate two bills embodying schemes of practical reform, the House of Representatives treated the matter with the most demonstrative contempt, at first refusing even to pass the appropriation asked for by the President, and finally passing it only at a reduced figure, amid jeers and jibes. From the whole attitude of the House it is evident that, as long as that body is composed of the same elements as now, no practical measure of legislation in any important degree changing our civil-service system is to be hoped for. It was in view of this fact, as well as of the general recklessness which of late has developed itself again in the use of the patronage, the conduct of our legislators, and the management of the party machinery, that the meeting thought it timely to recommend to the civil-service reform associations in the different parts of the country a more active participation in political movements than they have hitherto ventured upon. They are asked in the first place to interrogate the candidates for Congress nominated by the political parties about their views and conceptions of duty concerning definite measures of legislation necessary for the reform of the civil service, and then to urge the friends of the cause to vote only for such candidates as give satisfactory guarantees in that respect.

And in case the candidate of neither party gives such satisfactory guarantee, then the friends of civil-service reform are called upon, wherever practicable, to put in the field candidates of their own.

The hard-headed men of Maine will scarcely accept as conclusive Mr. Blaine's hasty treatment of the shipping question in his campaign letter published lately. He says that those who favor the admission of "foreign-built ships to American registry" desire to "break down what they call the odious monopoly of the coasting-trade." The friends of free ships do not propose to interfere with the coasting trade at all. Every measure introduced into Congress to enable Americans to buy vessels where they are cheapest, in order to compete for a share of foreign traffic, has contained a provision that the European-built vessels shall not be used in the coasting-trade. This is not the first time that Mr. Blaine has seemed to forget that the people of his State read the newspapers. While he assumes that such a measure would be injurious to the wooden ship-building of Maine, he does not say that the builders of that State are not perfectly able, as we believe they are, to compete with those of any country in constructing vessels of that kind, and therefore need no protection. He mentions the gratifying fact that by the end of 1882 they will have launched "as large a number of wooden sailing ships" as they ever did in a single year, but he does not add, what ought to occur to the builders, that but for the high tariff, which he holds to be an indispensable condition of prosperity, many of the materials which are used in a ship would be so much cheaper that the profits of the yards would be greatly increased. Mr. Blaine admits that the carrying-trade has been largely transferred to iron steamships, but he does not go on to say that owing to our inability to build these vessels as cheaply as they are built in Europe, and the absolute prohibition of their purchase there, we do not have them at all, and our share of the foreign carrying-trade has consequently shrunk from 75.5 per cent. in 1855 to 16.2 per cent. in 1881. It will be surprising if the men of Maine and other States do not finish for themselves Mr. Blaine's incomplete story.

Mr. Blaine, aside from instructing his constituents on the tariff, wants the American people to take the following view of coming political campaigns: "Personal discussion of candidates, in the presence of really important issues, sinks below the notice of the intelligent voter." Mr. Blaine was never more mistaken in his life. We have no doubt that he himself, as a matter of personal convenience, would like the intelligent voter to abstain from examining the character and record and general fitness of candidates. But never within the memory of this generation has the intelligent voter seen more reason and been more inclined to scrutinize the personality of the candidate closely. And the more intelligent the voter is, the more keenly and searchingly he will look at his man. If Mr. Blaine wants to satisfy himself of this, let him, for instance, run for the Presidency himself.

The Tariff Commission on Wednesday gave audience to a manufacturer of bicycles, who complained that by reason of the duty on steel he was put at a disadvantage amounting to $13 50 on each bicycle in competition with the pauper bicycle of Europe. It was suggested to him by the representative of the iron and steel interest on the Commission that an increase of the duty on bicycles would fit his case. He replied that it was not the home market which he had in view—American manufacturers controlled the American trade now—but he wished to have a fair chance to sell in foreign markets. Brazil, for instance, imported bicycles largely, and American makers could sell in that market as cheaply as English if they could get their raw materials on the same terms. If there is any "infant industry" in the United States, it must be the bicycle industry. If there is any which needs protection, it must be that. Yet it appears that the only thing it asks of the Government is to be let alone and permitted to make its own way, being neither helped nor hindered by the tariff. This was a very unreasonable position for an infant to take, and we do not wonder, therefore, that the suggestion was made to the bicycle manufacturer that his proper course was to insist on "drawbacks"—that is, to demand $13 50 cash from the Treasury for every bicycle exported. The poor man thought that such a step would be attended with embarrassment and uncertainty. And here, as the French say, "the incident terminated." The Tariff Commission, on the whole, is shedding considerable light on a dark subject. We trust it will go on in a spirit of frankness, and elicit as many facts as possible. The public will be able to draw their own conclusions from them.

One of the questions with which the Tariff Commission should be prepared to grapple is this: Is hay a "manufactured" or "unmanufactured" article? The natural answer would be that it is unmanufactured. To be sure it is "cured," but only by lying in the sun, just as corn ripens by standing there. If hay is not an unmanufactured article, neither is wheat. The United States Circuit Court in New York gave this rather obvious answer to the question, but it does not satisfy Senators Frye and Hale, of Maine. A very fine crop has been gathered in that State, but that of New Brunswick is also "equal to any ever grown in the Province." The New Brunswickers will as usual have more hay than they want, and will send some to the United States and so compete in the market with the haymakers of Maine. The duty on hay was twenty per cent. ad valorem until last March, when the Court decided that it could be entered at ten per cent. as an "unmanufactured" article. The Senators regard this as clearly wrong, and appeal from the Circuit Judge to the Tariff Commission. They do not specify the peculiarities of hay which distinguish it as a "manufactured" article, but they do say that one of the duties of the Commission is "the correction of such errors as this," and they predict the certain restoration of the twenty per cent. duty at the next session of Congress. The bill for the relief of the Maine haymakers ought to be preceded by a preamble briefly showing how hay is "manufactured."

The Star-route defence came to a sudden end on Monday, the defendants' lawyers announcing that they had no more testimony to put in. Whether the jury will find any of them guilty or not, it is of course impossible to tell; but the failure of Brady to take the stand is, morally, a confession of guilt on his part. After Walsh had testified to Brady's admission that he levied a regular tax on all the contractors, it would have been out of the question for an honest man to avoid taking the stand to defend his reputation. Brady's silence is the same thing as saying that he dares not expose himself to cross-examination. At the beginning of the trial his eagerness to vindicate his reputation was very marked. Now that his opportunity has come, he is as dumb as an oyster; which is exactly what might have been expected.

The great Tilden income-tax case seems to be at length in a fair way of being brought to an end. The suit was begun against Mr. Tilden while he was running as a candidate for the Presidency, and it has therefore been going on for some six years. His counsel have delayed it whenever they had any opportunity, and when they have not done so, the Government has, until the suit has become a puzzle to most people. Mr. Edwards Pierrepont, special counsel for the Government, seems to have come to the conclusion that the Government has no case, and the Secretary of the Treasury and the Attorney-General have agreed upon the following as the rule of conduct appropriate to the occasion (it appears in a letter on the subject, written last May by Mr. Folger to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue): "It is due to the citizen that he be brought to trial, or that he be freed from the expectation of it, and if there is not enough in the facts to refuse him the latter, it does not seem to me just or worthy of the Government that it exact or take from him a price for the privilege." In other words, if the Government has no case, it should not insist on the payment of costs by the defendant as the price of its being discontinued. The counsel for the Government here has been instructed to act in accordance with that principle. But six years really seems a long period to have been occupied in arriving at this conclusion.

The appointment of Mr. W. W. Astor to be Minister at Rome, in place of the late George P. Marsh, is from any point of view an unfortunate one. Mr. Marsh was a man of great distinction as a scholar and had long diplomatic experience. Mr. Astor is a young man whose experience is not more than sufficient to qualify him for the position of attaché or, at best, secretary on a foreign mission. He has no distinction except that of being a member of a very rich family, and in politics he is chiefly known as having so dissatisfied the voters of his district by his obedience to "Machine" rule that his running for Con-

gress resulted in the election of a Democrat. What makes the matter worse is that this is the reason why he is appointed; it is a "Machine" appointment, to reward him for defying public opinion in the interests of the "Machine."

The call for a State Convention issued by the Republican Committee on Wednesday is of the stereotyped form. "The Republicans of the State of New York are requested to send delegates" to Saratoga on the 20th of September. There is no broad or precise definition of the class of voters who are summoned. Who, for example, are "the Republicans" in this city to whom the invitation is extended? Are they the comparatively few members of the Assembly District Associations, or all the members of the party who elect the ticket, when it is elected? If the business is managed this year as it has been in other years, nobody will be allowed to vote for delegates to the Convention who is not a member of one of these associations. It is very hard to get into these societies—that is, hard for Republicans who are not the followers of a boss, who profess individual convictions and reserve any right of independent action. It is very easy to get out of the societies. Let a member put himself in opposition to the boss, or even take a critical attitude toward him, let him show any independence whatever, and he will be expelled. It is, therefore, a very difficult matter for Republicans who vote for the party's candidates to get a chance to vote for the delegates who nominate the candidates. For most of them it is impossible, and not more than one in ten is allowed to vote for these delegates. Herein consists the viciousness of the present organization, and, so far as this city is concerned, the State Convention can be described as representative only by an abuse of words. The Committee unanimously and with applause resolved to pay the expenses of the indicted and convicted political assessor, General N. M. Curtis, and the fine imposed upon him.

It was reported before the Indiana Democrats met in State Convention that they were greatly troubled by the "whiskey question." It comes up now, not in the form of a proposed legislative prohibitory measure, but in that of a Constitutional amendment to be submitted to the people. To say that the people could not be trusted to decide this or any other question would be for the Democrats to fly in the face of all their "cherished traditions." At the same time they were reluctant to submit it. The platform adopted on Wednesday tries to extricate the party from its embarrassment by resolving against the amendment, but in favor of submitting it, provided the submission is made "at a time and in circumstances most favorable to a full vote"—that is, at a general election. The treatment of the tariff question was more familiar, though scarcely so successful. The Indiana Democrats demand such a revision of the revenue laws as shall "establish a tariff for revenue" and at the same time "promote the industries of the country." In other words, freetraders and protectionists, such as Senator Voorhees, are invited to unite on common ground in support of "the teachings of Thomas Jefferson," which are put in the forefront of the platform, and in opposition to the rascally Republicans, who are belabored in good round terms for passing the Federal election laws and for "the frauds and perjuries of 1876."

A minute telegraph "war" has broken out in Dayton, Ohio, between the Western Union and the Mutual Union Companies. The Mutual Union has, it seems, a system of electric call bells by which a customer desiring to transmit messages turns a small crank in his place of business, signalling a small boy in the Mutual Union office, who then comes after the message. Sometimes, however, the customer sends messages addressed to a place where the Mutual Union has no office. In such cases the enterprising manager of the company, instead of sending the boy back with a polite message regretting the inability of the company to transmit it, has it forwarded by the Western Union Company, whose office is next door. This the Western Union officers say is an immoral and illegal practice, because by means of it the Mutual Union imposes upon its customers the belief that it has offices where it has none, and that it can "handle" business for help in which it actually has to go to the Western Union. They accordingly have refused to receive or transmit any such messages in future. But the laws of Ohio compel all telegraph companies to receive and transmit messages forwarded by other companies, and the Mutual Union has begun suit to enjoin the Western Union from further refusal of despatches. It is difficult in the forum of morals to see how any one is imposed upon by such a practice, as customers must be perfectly well aware that the Western Union has more offices than the Mutual Union. Indeed, their knowledge of the fact is probably the cause of the popularity of the Mutual Union's call system. The proper redress of the Western Union would seem to be to have a call system of its own.

Two months ago Mr. Keely, the inventor of the celebrated Keely motor, began, by order of court, to reveal to Mr. Boekel the secret of his invention. After seven weeks' constant revelation Mr. Boekel declares that he does not yet understand it, and is inclined to think that "recognized mechanical sciences cannot reach the thing." This must be very disappointing not only to the stockholders, but to Mr. Keely himself, who has announced his intention of taking out a patent. It would obviously be impossible to patent a process or invention which could not be explained or described, for the law requires description for the purpose of identification. Mr. Keely may raise the point that the constitution of Mr. Boekel's mind makes successful revelation to him impossible, and might insist on the appointment of some new person as the depositary of the secret. But the probability is that the Keely secret will long remain one of the mysteries of science.

The week in Wall Street has been uneventful. Although the surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced about one-half (to $2,684,425), and although $1,200,000 was shipped as an "arbitrary transaction," which showed a loss to the shippers, yet the loan market for money remained easy for borrowers, and the call-loan rate did not rule above 3½ per cent. At the Stock Exchange the upward movement in securities for a time halted and hesitated, active influences having been brought into play to depress prices. Late in the week, however, a fresh start toward higher figures was taken. The developments respecting the crops were not uniformly good during the week, but the conclusion seems inevitable that all the principal crops, excepting corn, will exceed the yield of any previous year. The Egyptian trouble certainly was not narrowed in importance during the week, and the probability of a general European complication has increased. This, after first disturbing all the financial interests centring in London, would, for a time, be a great help to all our markets. General trade is very good for the season, and the prospects for the autumn are excellent. Progress was made during the week toward a settlement of the labor troubles. The freight-handlers in this city very generally returned to work, having failed to secure the advance in wages for which they struck; the iron-workers and mill operatives also gave signs of conceding the claims on account of which they stopped work several months ago.

The one important incident in the progress of the Egyptian difficulty during the week has been the British occupation of Suez, despite the comically frantic opposition of M. de Lesseps. Meantime, troops are arriving from India, and the preservation and free operation of the Canal are practically assured without a "mandate," on the simple principle of *beati possidentes*. The diplomatic incongruities and contrarieties have not diminished. The Conference still amuses itself with sessions, to which the Russian delegate has returned, and with propositions of one sort or another, which are all invalidated by the duplicity of the Porte and the reservations of France and England. No troops have actually been forwarded by the Sultan, nor has he yet proclaimed Arabi a rebel; and both public sentiment and official expression in England show a strong aversion to his doing now what the Conference was called (by England herself) to press him to do. The British Government has distinctly given notice in Parliament that its military lodgments in Egypt, "in virtue of the Khedive's proposal," must not be meddled with by the Conference. Like MacMahon at the Malakoff, it is there, and it means to remain. France, on the other hand, is not there, and has spent the week in endeavoring to form a Cabinet to succeed Freycinet's. M. Duclerc has announced his policy to be simply the country's will, and freedom of action for the country. As the country has no will, except to wait, he will have plenty of leisure to read, in the August *Contemporary Review*, Prof. Sheldon Amos's views of "reconstruction" after Arabi has been suppressed. This writer abolishes the Dual Control, and introduces a single "supervising power, acting through its ordinary diplomatic representative, who will in all respects exercise the peculiar powers entrusted to a British Resident in a native Indian State."

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 2, to TUESDAY, August 8, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR'S veto of the River and Harbor Bill met with almost unstinted praise from the newspapers of the country of almost every shade of political opinion. Nevertheless, on Wednesday, the House of Representatives promptly took up the bill and passed it over the veto, by a vote of 122 to 59. Of the affirmative voters there were 65 Republicans; of the negative, 28. The Senate, immediately after the reading of the veto, on Wednesday, took another vote, and passed the bill over the veto by 41 to 16. So the bill has become a law. It is thought that the President, in his annual message next December, will recommend that the customary River and Harbor Bill be omitted for 1883.

The session of Congress drew rapidly to a close during the week. In the Senate, numbers of the smaller bills were passed each day, and great progress was made with the large appropriation bills. On Wednesday the Senate passed a bill leasing the Salt Springs in Indian Territory and appropriating the royalty therefrom to the Cherokee school fund; also a bill making some minor changes in the pension regulations. In the evening, the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was passed, the total amount being more than $25,000,000. It contained appropriations for the purchase of the Franklin and Rochambeau papers, and $15,000 to enable the President to carry out the law to promote the efficiency of the civil service. The clause commits the Government to competitive examinations and a proper distribution of places. On Thursday, the Senate passed a resolution to print 300,000 of the agricultural reports, at an expense of $219,000. The Internal-Revenue Tax Bill was resurrected, and a debate took place on the tobacco tax. After fruitless discussion, the matter went over without action. The House adjournment resolution was laid on the table for future action, and a bill was passed to provide for deductions from the gross tonnage of United States vessels in taxation, in order to put them on a footing with foreign ships. A law was passed extending to foreign vessels the provisions of inspection laws now applicable to domestic vessels. On Friday, the House bill establishing diplomatic relations with Persia was approved.

There was a further fruitless discussion of the Tax Bill in the Senate on Friday, and in executive session an attempt was made, in the interests of the Stalwarts, to reconsider the nomination of a New York postmaster. Senator Miller took occasion to denounce the attitude of his colleague, Senator Lapham, in very severe terms. The motion to reconsider was laid upon the table, only Senators Lapham and Conger opposing. On Saturday, the Naval Bill was passed, the Senate receding from its position in regard to the closing of the Navy-yards for one year only. Discretionary power was given the Secretary of the Navy. The Senate also receded from its position on the mileage question, as a part of the Deficiency Bill, and passed a separate resolution appropriating $33,000 for the mileage of Senators who attended the Extra Session of 1881. Senator Miller obtained the floor to speak on the Knit-Goods Bill, which raises the duty from fifty-five to eighty-nine per cent. The Democrats were caught napping, and, notwithstanding many efforts to prevent it, the bill went to a vote and was passed, 36 to 15. After midnight, the conference report on the Sundry Civil Bill was adopted. The Senate was again obliged to accept the restrictions of the House. Appropriations for the purchase of the Rochambeau and other historical papers were stricken out. The appropriation for the Signal Service was cut down.

In the House of Representatives on Thursday, a resolution was reported for final adjournment at noon on Saturday. A lively discussion ensued, in which each party tried to put the blame for lack of reduction of taxes during the session upon the other. The resolution was finally passed without a division. Mr. Hutchins, of New York, on Friday, offered a constitutional amendment that it shall take two-thirds of all the members elected to each House of Congress to pass a bill over the President's veto, instead of two-thirds of the members voting. The Conference Committee on the Naval Bill reported that they had agreed with the Senate on all points but one. Instead of abolishing the office of Commodore, it was agreed that only half of the vacancies in the grades of the Navy shall be filled by promotion, until the number of officers is reduced to a certain point. The report was agreed to, and a further conference ordered. The conference report on the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill was presented and agreed to. The Sundry Civil Bill was debated, and of the 247 Senate amendments, only forty-three were agreed to. In all cases where the Senate had increased the amount appropriated there was non-concurrence.

Three remaining appropriation bills were rapidly disposed of on Saturday by the House. The Naval Bill was finally passed as agreed upon by the Conference Committee. The Deficiency Bill was finally disposed of on similar conference recommendations. At 10:30 o'clock, the report of the conferees on the Sundry Civil Bill was agreed to. Among other items, is one appropriating $25,000 for the transportation to this country of the bodies of Lieutenant De Long and his dead comrades of the *Jeannette*. Among the minor bills disposed of was a bill for the inspection of ocean-going steam-vessels, and one to pay mileage to Lieutenant Schwatka, the Arctic explorer, on account of his trip to the Arctic regions. A resolution for a joint committee of Senators and Representatives to inquire into the needs of the American ship-building industry during the recess was passed.

At the session of the Senate on Monday a number of miscellaneous bills and resolutions were hastily passed, among them the bill pensioning the widow of the late Brigadier-General Ramsey, the bill abolishing the export tax on tobacco, the joint resolution appropriating $60,000 for fees of United States District Attorneys for the last fiscal year, also the resolution for an investigation as to the loss of the *Jeannette* and the death of Lieutenant De Long, and the resolution for a joint select committee on American ship-building. A concurrent resolution for adjournment *sine die* at 5 o'clock P. M. gave rise to a severe attack upon the dilatoriness of the House in preparing the appropriation bills by Senator Plumb. He placed all the responsibility for the extended session upon them. The resolution was not passed. The Senate went into executive session and confirmed a number of nominations, among them that of John A. Luby to be Surveyor at Albany. It was opposed by Senator Miller. On Tuesday morning the Senate voted to adjourn without day at 3 P. M.—yeas 27, nays 17. The opposition votes were cast by Republicans. After the transaction of unimportant business, and the usual complimentary vote to the presiding officer, Senator Davis, with a few remarks, declared the Senate, at 3 o'clock, adjourned *sine die*.

The House spent part of Monday in finishing the uncompleted session of Saturday, and the rest of the day was occupied in a farcical contest over the Tax Bill, as introduced by Mr. Robeson, for mere party advantage. It adjourned without transacting any business in the evening. On Monday the House met, concurred in the Senate resolution for adjournment at 3 o'clock, and at that hour was adjourned *sine die* by Speaker Keifer.

The bill to regulate the carriage of passengers by sea, known as the Deuster Steamship Bill, has received the approval of the President, and is now a law.

President Arthur sent to the Senate on Thursday the nominations of William Waldorf Astor, of New York, to be Minister to Italy, and Major John C. Kinney, to be United States Marshal for Connecticut. The first named is a peculiarly political nomination, Mr. Astor being a Stalwart ex-State Senator who voted steadily for Mr. Conkling's return to the United States Senate. He was, on that account, defeated for Congress in a strong Republican district in this city. Mr. Astor's nomination has been confirmed by the Senate.

Mr. Blaine has written a long letter on the Maine campaign. He thinks that the issues are the sustaining of the Maine judiciary in their decision against the Garcelon fraud, the tariff, and the general prosperity as affected by Republican supremacy.

A number of political conventions were held on Wednesday. The Iowa Republicans nominated J. A. T. Hull for Secretary of State. The platform reaffirms the Republican platform of 1880, approves President Arthur's Administration, asks for an equitable revision of the tariff and legislation to control inter-State commerce. The Indiana Democrats nominated W. R. Myers for Secretary of State, Francis T. Hard for Attorney-General, and other State officers. The platform approves Jeffersonian principles, asks for civil-service reform, reduction of taxation and the tariff, and protection for American citizens abroad. The platform of the South Carolina Democrats also favors civil-service reform and a reduction of the tariff. The Ohio Prohibitionists on Thursday nominated Ferdinand Schumacher for Secretary of State, and other State officers.

Two Republican conventions were in session in Atlanta, Ga., for several days last week. Both conventions approved the nomination of General Gartrell, the Independent Democratic candidate for Governor.

On Wednesday, the Republican State Committee of New York met in this city and decided that the convention should be held at Saratoga, on September 20, and that the apportionment of delegates should be the same as last year—496 for the entire State. The Democrats met at Saratoga on Tuesday, and called a convention for Syracuse, Sept. 21.

Speaker Keifer has been nominated for Congress, unanimously, by the Republicans of the Eighth Ohio District.

In the Star-route trial, at Washington, on Wednesday, Mr. A. C. Buell, editor of the Washington *Capital*, testified as to his relations with Brady and Walsh, and the articles he had written on the subject of Star-routes. The testimony on Thursday was unimportant. Henry M. Vaile, one of the defendants, testified on Friday as to the business relations of the contractors.

The Government introduced some rebutting evidence in the Star-route trial on Monday and Tuesday morning. Mr. Bliss then announced that the prosecution had introduced all its testimony except that of Mr. Spencer, who was not in Washington. The Court would not grant a postponement of the hearing until he could be produced. Affidavits and counter-affidavits as to his testimony were filed. After some testimony by the defence in surrebuttal, the case was closed as far as evidence is concerned, and the rest of the afternoon was spent in making arrangements as to the final arguments by counsel.

A meeting of the National Civil-Service Reform Association was held at Newport on Wednesday. It was attended by a large and distinguished body of delegates. An executive session was held in the morning, after which Mr. George William Curtis, President of the Association, delivered an admirable address, in which he arraigned President Arthur for the removal of competent officers. The collection of political assessments was severely denounced. A reference was made to the active civil-service reform agitation in Pennsylvania as a movement which, if not heeded by parties, would yet construct parties. Mr. Carl Schurz, from the Committee on Resolutions,

reported resolutions, which were unanimously adopted, urging the friends of reform in the coming Congressional elections to interrogate the candidates as to their views on the subject, and to vote for the candidate giving most satisfactory assurances of his sincerity in the support of reform; and that if either party candidate fails to give such assurance, the friends of civil-service reform present one, if practicable, whose views are favorably known. The various civil-service reform associations are advised to prosecute offenders against the political assessment law, and the National League to test the legality of the Hubbell circular. The President of the National League is requested to bring Daniel Webster's famous civil-service letter to the attention of the Executive, and request a similar order for the correction of such abuses. A committee of five was appointed to issue an address on the subject of civil-service reform to the voters of the United States. The subject is to be also brought to the attention of clergymen and professors and friends of education.

Before the Tariff Commission, during the week, a number of industries and arts have presented their pleas, some for a reduction of the tariff, others for an increase. The advisability of putting works of art on the free list was presented on Thursday. The jute and gold-leaf industries were represented on Friday.

The steamer *Gold Dust* exploded her boilers on Monday, near Hickman, Ky., killing twenty-four and wounding forty-eight of those on board.

Three thousand men have been thrown out of employment in Chicago by the temporary suspension of work in a pork-packing establishment. The high price of corn has caused little to be fed to hogs, and few good ones are in the market.

There is yellow fever in Matamoras, Mexico, and one case in New Orleans. There are disquieting rumors in Texas, but no authentic case has yet been reported.

Rear Admiral John C. Beaumont, of the United States Navy (retired), died in Newmarket, N. H., on Wednesday, at the age of sixty-one.

Mr. Artemas Hale, of Bridgewater, Mass., the oldest ex-Congressman, died on Friday, at the age of ninety-eight. His Congressional career began in 1845.

Rear Admiral McDougal, of the United States Navy, died at San Francisco on Monday.

Gen. Gouverneur Kemble Warren died at his home, in Newport, R. I., on Tuesday evening, at the age of fifty-two. Since the decision of the Court of Inquiry as to his conduct at the battle of Five Forks he had manifested symptoms of great mental depression, which hastened his death.

FOREIGN.

A scare occurred among the British troops at Alexandria early Wednesday morning, which was at first greatly exaggerated. It seems that a picket, consisting of six men and a corporal, were sent to take possession of a clump of trees, about the middle of the British outposts, along the Sweet Water Canal. About two o'clock in the morning, fifty mounted Arabs approached, under cover of the embankment of the canal, and attacked the outpost. A number of shots were exchanged, but the picket hastily beat a retreat to the pumping station, 400 yards in the rear. Four companies were sent to support them, but the enemy had already disappeared. It was at first supposed that the picket had acted in a cowardly manner, but it was subsequently announced in the House of Commons that they had obeyed previous orders.

All the British troops were ordered to the front on Thursday morning, in expectation of an attack. An alarm was caused during the day by rumors of an impending massacre at three o'clock in the afternoon. The police exercised increased vigilance, but no disturbance occurred. The English soldiers at Alexandria are much overworked, and there is a deficiency of officers. Sir Garnet Wolseley, although suffering from Cyprus fever, sailed from England for Egypt on Wednesday. A reconnoissance was made by the British troops on Thursday afternoon to a point five miles beyond the Ramleh outposts. The enemy's position was found to be almost abandoned. A few shots were fired, but there were no casualties. The troops returned at dusk.

There was a small skirmish on Friday morning on the left front of the British lines. The enemy's attack was promptly replied to by part of the Forty-sixth Regiment. There were few casualties. A reconnoissance in force was made on Saturday afternoon, about five o'clock. The Marines, Rifles, and the South Staffordshire Regiment advanced along the canal and the railway, driving the enemy from their outposts. All their available troops were brought into action in front of their principal line of intrenchments at Kafr-el-Dwar. The Egyptian infantry held their ground with considerable steadiness. The armored train, with Nordenfeldt guns, did splendid execution on the Egyptian earthworks. The engagement lasted until sunset, with a heavy loss to the Egyptians. As there was then no sign of an advance by the enemy, the British retired in perfect order. The object of the reconnoissance was to repair the railway track, and to compel the enemy to display what force and what guns they had in front of their main position, and the object was completely attained.

The total loss of the British by the skirmish on Saturday afternoon was four killed and twenty-nine wounded. Among the killed was Lieutenant Vyse, a very promising young officer. The loss of the Egyptians is estimated at more than two hundred. In the opinion of competent military men in Alexandria nothing has been gained by this engagement to compensate for the heavy loss. On Monday another skirmish between armored trains took place at Mahalla Junction. The forty-pounder of the British caused the enemy to withdraw.

Suez has been occupied by British marines, and M. de Lesseps formally protests against it as a violation of neutrality obligations.

On Friday the transport *Catalonia* left England for Egypt with troops. Queen Victoria inspected it at Portsmouth. She wished the officers a prosperous voyage and a speedy return. Sir Evelyn Wood was on board.

The official rebel journal at Cairo has published the decision of the great national meeting held on July 29, which declares for Arabi and denounces the Khedive. Arabi has issued a proclamation that the Sultan has deposed the Khedive. His force is estimated at 70,000 men.

The acting Consul-General of the United States in Egypt telegraphs that the archives of the Consulate are safe at Cairo. It was feared that they had been destroyed.

At Constantinople, the Conference has been making progress during the week. When it met on Wednesday, M. Onou, the Russian representative, was present, but gave no reason for it; however, it is said that reassuring explanations by England were the cause. Lord Dufferin explained England's action at Alexandria to the delegates. He said that the forts had been destroyed as a measure of defence; England's sole object was to re-establish peace and order, secure free navigation of the Suez Canal, and restore the authority of the Khedive. The Ottoman delegates made an extended declaration. They denied inaction on the part of the Porte, asserting that it was ready to send troops under the terms of the identical note; but that England's subordinating her acceptance of coöperation with Turkish troops to the proclamation of Arabi Pasha as a rebel was not in accord with that declaration of the Powers. The Porte hoped that the Conference would agree to the issuing of the proclamation simultaneously with the presence of Turkish troops in Egypt, and not before they landed, as England demanded. Count Corti, the Italian Ambassador, brought forward proposals of his Government, in regard to the Suez Canal, providing for the concurrence of all the Powers, Turkey included, in a police supervision, of an exclusively naval character, of the Canal, it being reserved to the Powers to decide upon other action should this be insufficient. The representatives of Germany, Austria, Russia, and Turkey immediately signified adhesion to the proposals, but the English and French representatives declared that they must first consult their Governments before coming to a decision.

At the sitting of the Conference on Saturday, Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador, accepted the principle of collective protection for the Suez Canal. The French Ambassador was forced to reserve his opinion, owing to the political crisis at home. The other delegates accepted collective protection, with the modification that there should only be provisional supervision of the Canal. Lord Dufferin again insisted that Arabi should be proclaimed a rebel, and demanded a written statement of the Porte's adherence to the identical note. At Monday's sitting of the Conference the Turkish delegates accepted the conditions proposed by the Powers in their invitations to the Porte to intervene in Egypt. A protocol was drawn up which was signed by all the members. Said Pasha has promised Lord Dufferin that the Porte will issue a proclamation declaring Arabi a rebel.

The new French Cabinet was officially announced in Paris on Monday as follows: M. Duclerc, President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. Fallières, Minister of the Interior; M. Develle, Under Secretary of the Interior; M. Devès, Minister of Justice; M. Duvaux, Minister of Public Instruction; M. Tirard, Minister of Finance; General Billot, Minister of War; Admiral Jauréguiberry, Minister of Marine; M. Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs; M. de Mahy, Minister of Agriculture; M. Pierre Legrand, Minister of Commerce and *ad interim* of Public Works. On Tuesday the Premier declared his policy in the Chambers. He accepts the vote of the Chamber of Deputies on the Egyptian credit as determining his foreign policy. The vote of the Chambers will also determine his home policy. Senator Duclerc is seventy years of age, an ex-journalist, and a stanch Republican.

Amid cheers, Mr. Gladstone announced in the House of Commons, on Thursday, that he would not take up the Arrears Bill until Tuesday, as he did not wish to do anything precipitately before arriving at what might be a momentous decision. On Tuesday afternoon Mr. Gladstone, moving the consideration of the amendments of the House of Lords to the Arrears of Rent Bill, said that he should have to ask the House to dissent substantially from the first amendment. The Government will propose to enact that either a landlord or tenant can initiate proceedings subject to ten days' notice. Mr. Gladstone did not ask for a rejection of the second amendment, but to amend it so as to provide that in a case where a tenant's right is sold within seven years, the landlord shall have a lien on the proceeds for the arrears he has been deprived of by the action of the bill to the extent of one year's rent, the landlord only to have this lien if the sum realized by the sale of the tenant-right equals three years' rent. The first amendment was rejected by a vote of 293 to 157, and all of Mr. Gladstone's proposals were agreed to.

A strike is threatened among about 5,000 of the Irish constabulary. They demand increased pay.

A riot occurred in Trieste, Austria, on Wednesday, caused by a petard being thrown into the ranks of the Society of Veterans by members of the Italian faction.

GOVERNMENT ECONOMY.

THE discreditable fact that the chairmen of the committees on appropriations of the Senate and of the House of Representatives differ to the extent of many millions in their statements of the amounts of money actually appropriated at the late session of Congress, is a sign of the confusion and the random methods which prevail under the present practice of disposing of the public funds. On Monday Senator Plumb made a speech in which the House of Representatives was severely but justly taken to task for its dilatoriness in maturing the appropriation bills. It appears that not one of the important ones reached the Senate until near the close of the fiscal year, and some of them only after its close, so that when the term of the old appropriations expired the Government would have been without funds for its daily needs had not the makeshift of continuing for a limited period last year's allowances been resorted to; and that the Senate had no time for a careful consideration of details before acting on the bills. Now when, in ordinary, quiet times, we see a House of Representatives toil for six months or more over a few appropriation bills to provide for the current needs of the Government, the Senate following in its wake, and then the chairmen of the committees which in the two houses of Congress have this subject in charge, and are obliged carefully to consider and digest it, both being experienced and conscientious gentlemen, differ widely as to the sums of money which have been allowed, and, as the final outcome of it all, a reckless profusion of expenditures which alarms the whole country, every intelligent observer will readily conclude that there must be something very crude and reprehensible in our way of doing these things.

There are certain simple principles which in a well-regulated Government household will never be lost sight of. We are levying taxes for the purpose of raising money to defray the necessary expenses of the Government. This is the object, and should be the only object. We should therefore first know what the necessities of the Government are, and then adjust our system of taxation to those necessities. In this way the Government will be provided with what it needs, and the people will not be burdened with taxation which is not required. Those who make appropriations of money, as well as the people generally, will then never cease to be clearly conscious of the fact that every dollar appropriated has to come from those who pay the taxes, and that every increase of appropriation must necessarily be accompanied by an increase of the taxes to be imposed upon the people. Whenever this system is followed—that is to say, whenever the proper relation between income and outgo, between taxes and expenditures, is properly and constantly observed—there will be reasonable and systematic economy, and if a spell of extravagance ever occurs, it will not last long.

What is our way of doing things? We have been long continuing a system of taxation yielding revenues far beyond our actual needs, and the result is, that instead of first ascertaining what the necessities of the Government are, and then providing for them by appropriate taxes, we raise an abundance of money by taxation, and then leave it to the inventive genius of Congressmen to discover purposes for which the money may be spent. It does not require the gift of prophecy to foretell the consequences. Even the wisest and most virtuous assemblage of men would, under such circumstances, feel itself subject to a very great temptation; while an assemblage of politicians, mostly elected under the influence of the spoils system, will wish nothing better than to be tempted in order to succumb. We have no reason to be surprised when we read in the newspapers that the principal question asked and considered by such politicians under such circumstances was, how to spend the surplus so that each one might have the greatest possible benefit from it. The loading down of appropriation bills with an endless variety of schemes, and the bewildering confusion created by the general grab game, so that at last nobody knows how much money has been voted away, and the only certain thing is that the amounts are alarming, are the natural result of such a system or want of system.

It is obvious how much in the way of bringing order out of chaos would be accomplished by introducing the practice of having a complete budget of necessary expenditures, and of the taxation required to cover them, prepared by the executive branch of the Government and submitted to Congress at the beginning of each session. What we have now is merely the estimates of the different departments of the amounts of money they want. What is needed is, aside from the grouping together of these amounts, showing the total sum required by the Government for the year, a clear statement of the different kinds of existing taxes, with their yield, and the opinion of the Executive as to what taxes will best subserve the purpose, what taxes may be cut down or abolished, and so on. A clear summing up in a statement of this kind would be sure to attract the attention and to reach the understanding of every intelligent taxpayer. It would be generally assumed that the Executive, having the best information about the actual needs of the Government, would ask for all the money really needed, while the distinct personal responsibility assumed by it in making its demands and statements would keep it within the bounds of proper economy. The Appropriations Committee would find much of their work done before they sat down to it. The proper relation between appropriations and taxes would become much clearer not only to the minds of Congressmen, but to the minds of the people too, and the latter would be likely to exercise a much more intelligent and effective vigilance over the former, and thus keep them from running into wild extravagance beyond the figures of the budget. The necessity of a change of this kind has never appeared more urgent than after the experiences of the present session. It should be seriously considered, and might, if foreign examples are not allowed to be conclusive, at least be tried as an experiment.

WHAT IS AN "OFFICER"?

THE Attorney-General's recent opinion that the term "officers" used in the Anti-Assessment Act does not include members of Congress, was founded in great measure on the interpretation given to the word by Judge Story in his commentaries on the Constitution. As the decision of Mr. Brewster does not dispose of the question finally, and it is sure to come up again, it is worth while before the matter passes out of the public mind to examine it a little more carefully than the Attorney-General or Mr. Hubbell has been disposed to do.

The Constitution of the United States provides (Art. 2, sec. 4.) that "the President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States," may be removed from office by impeachment. This Mr. Justice Story, in his commentaries, criticises as follows: Sec. 789. "Who are 'civil officers,' within the meaning of this constitutional provision? . . ." "The sense in which the term ["civil"] is used in the Constitution seems to be in contradistinction to *military*, to indicate the rights and duties relating to citizens generally, in contradistinction to those of persons engaged in the land or naval service of the Government. . . ." Sec. 790. "All officers of the United States, therefore, *who hold their appointments under the National Government*, whether their duties are executive or judicial, in the highest or in the lowest departments of the Government, with the exception of officers in the Army and Navy, are properly civil officers within the meaning of the Constitution, and liable to impeachment. . . ." Sec. 791. "A question arose upon an impeachment before the Senate in 1799, whether a Senator was a civil officer of the United States, within the purview of the Constitution, and it was decided by the Senate that he was not; and the like principle must apply to the members of the House of Representatives. . . . The reasoning by which it [the decision] was sustained in the Senate does not appear, their deliberations having been private. But it was *probably* held that 'civil officers of the United States' meant such *as derived their appointment from and under the National Government*, and not those persons who, though members of the Government, derived their appointment from the States, or the people of the States. In this view, *the enumeration of the President and Vice-President, as impeachable officers, was indispensable; for they derive, or may derive, their office from a source paramount to the National Government.*" Judge Story then proceeds: "And the clause of the Constitution now under consideration does not *even affect* to consider them officers of the United States. It says, 'the President, Vice-President, and *all civil officers* (not all *other* civil officers) shall be removed,' etc. The language of the clause, therefore, would rather lead to the conclusion that they were enumerated *as contradistinguished from*, rather than included in the description of, *civil officers* of the United States." By this construction it is shown that the President is not a "civil" officer, and as the term "civil" is used in contradistinction to "military" (sec. 789), it follows that he is a *military officer*. This conclusion might have

been further strengthened by a reference to Art. 2, sec. 2, of the Constitution: "The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States." But having accepted this construction, our gratification in having the question settled is disturbed by the suggestion that this may not be a *final* opinion. We remember that it was implied that the President was not an officer of the United States at all; that the President derived, or might derive, his office from a source paramount to the National Government. But the conclusive proof of this proposition is not given with the same fulness with which Judge Story demonstrates that the President is a military officer of the United States, and we find great difficulty in harmonizing this view with the following clause of the Constitution: Art. 2, sec. 1. "The Executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years. . . ."—which clause has always been regarded as creating and establishing the office of President. The result of the discussion seems to leave the meaning of the word officer under the Constitution involved in grave doubt. Yet it is upon this discussion that the Attorney-General founds in great measure his conclusion that it is perfectly plain that members of Congress are not officers within the meaning of the act of August 15, 1876, Chap. 287, sec. 6, and that it is idle to carry the question before the courts. The section is as follows: "That all executive officers or employees of the United States not appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, are prohibited from requesting, giving to, or receiving from, any other officer or employee of the Government, any money . . . for political purposes. . . ."

The question raised is as to the meaning of the words "any other officer." The Attorney-General says:

"But it seems that a member of Congress is not an officer of the United States in the constitutional meaning of the term In the case of Blount, on an impeachment before the Senate in 1799, the question arose whether a Senator was a civil officer of the United States within the purview of the Constitution, and the Senate decided that he was not. This question arose under the fourth section of the second article of the Constitution.

"'Other clauses of the Constitution,' observes Judge Story in section 733 of his work on the Constitution, 'would seem to favor the same result, particularly the clause respecting appointments of officers of the United States by the Executive, who is to commission all the officers of the United States, and the sixth section of the first article, which declares that no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office, and the first section of the second article, which declares that no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.'"

This is a continuation of the argument in the "Commentaries" quoted under section 791, above. The Attorney-General then cites section 3 of the Fourteenth Amendment and certain sections of the Revised Statutes in which members of Congress are contradistinguished from other officers in a similar way. He concludes as follows:

"Section 6 of the act of August 16, 1876, being legislation of the same character as that just referred to, it is fair to assume that the word 'officer' is there used in the narrower sense adverted to, and that it does not include a member of Congress. The provisions of that section are intended to regulate the conduct of the inferior officers of the Executive Department of the Government, etc., with respect to these and other officers, etc., who are in the public service as ordinarily understood. To place a construction there which would embrace among the latter those who are not officers in the common acceptation of the word, and thus enlarge the penal effect of these provisions, would not be warranted by any sound rule of interpretation. Upon these considerations, I am of opinion that a member of Congress is not an officer of the Government within the meaning of that section."

Upon this reasoning he assumes (1) that members of Congress "are not officers in the common acceptation of the word"; (2) that to place a construction upon the Act which would embrace members of Congress would "enlarge the penal effect" of its provisions; (3) that this "would not be warranted by any sound rule of interpretation."

These propositions will be considered in their order. (1) Are members of Congress officers in the common acceptation of the word? The Attorney-General himself says upon this point:

"Unquestionably, the station of members of Congress, Senators, or Representatives is a public office, taking these terms in a broad and general sense, and the incumbent thereof must be regarded as an officer of the Government in the same sense. Thus provision is made for administering 'an oath of office' to the members of both Houses of Congress; so the words, 'Every person appointed or elected to any office of honor or profit, either in the civil, military, or naval service,' employed in Section 1756, Revised Statutes, which prescribes an oath of office, includes members of Congress; so in Section 1786, which provides that 'whenever any person holding office, except as a member of Congress,' etc., the station of member of Congress is distinctly recognized as an office."

In Olmstead *v.* the Mayor of New York (42 New York Superior Court, 481), the following definition of an officer is given: "An officer is one who is invested with an office." This raises the question, What is an office? The following definition of an office was given in the same case: "An office is a right to exercise a public function or employment, and take the fees and emoluments belonging to it." Similar definitions have been given in other cases, but they are not very satisfactory. The following definition may be found in United States *v.* Hartwell (6 Wall., 393): "An office is a public station, or employment, conferred by the appointment of Government. The term embraces the ideas of tenure, duration, emolument, and duties." The word "appointment," as employed in this definition, must include *election;* otherwise, all elective offices would be excluded, and among them that of President. So, also, for the same reason, the word "Government" is manifestly used in a similarly broad sense. The word "appoint" is used in the Constitution in relation to certain elective offices—*e. g.*, Presidential Electors. "Each State shall *appoint* . . . a number of Electors" (Art. 2, sec 1). Strictly considered, the clause "conferred by the appointment of Government" does not appear to be any part of the definition of an office. It simply states *how* an office is *conferred*, not *what* an office *is*. Nor does it appear to be a distinguishing mode of conferring an *office*. There are public employments which are not offices, which are "conferred by the appointment of Government." A special agent appointed by the Secretary of War, to superintend the construction of a public building for which an appropriation is made, under the implied authority arising from the appropriation and attending circumstances, is not an officer. He is an employee. So, civil surgeons appointed by the Commissioner of Pensions, under Section 4777 of the Revised Statutes, are not officers (United States *v.* Germaine, 99 U. S., 508).

An office is a public employment, and something more—that is, some further qualification is necessary to distinguish it from those public employments which are not offices, such as special agents, employees, and others. This was probably perceived by the Supreme Court in United States *v.* Hartwell, but the clause employed for the purpose does not appear to supply the necessary qualification. An office appears to be distinguished from all other public employments by its being established by law. The Constitution provides that the President ". . . shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint, Ambassadors, other Public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and *which shall be established by law*" (Art. 2, sec. 2). Considered grammatically, there may be doubt whether the clause, "which shall be established by law," relates to "appointments" or to "officers," but logically, it relates to *offices*. It is to be read, all other *offices* of the United States which shall be established by law.

The distinction is also indicated by the difference in the source of the right of an officer and of an employee to compensation. The compensation of an employee arises from contract, either expressed or implied. The compensation of an officer is the reward which is authorized by law to be paid to him. It is given upon grounds of public policy, by reason of the public employment. The right of an officer to the compensation of an office does not arise from contract, either by reason of his appointment or of services rendered by him; it is a statutory grant, and as such it is incident to the legal title to the office. The amount and character of the compensation of an office are subject to the control of Congress, except in those cases in which such control has been restricted by the Constitution (People *v.* Tieman, 30 Barbour, 195; Emboy *v.* United States, 100 U. S., 680).

If this reasoning is correct, an accurate definition of an office of the United States would be given as follows: An office is a public station, or employment, established by law. In its fullest extent, it would comprise a title, possession, a tenure, a term, public duties and powers, and personal rights and privileges of the incumbent.

Under the last or any of the definitions given above, a member of Congress would be an officer of the United States. The fact that Congress has in some instances used language which implies that, *in those cases*, it distinguished its members from other officers, would not warrant the inference that the words, "any other officer," used in the act of August 15, 1876, were not intended to include members of Congress. The effect of such an infe-

rence would be to insert an exception in the act, so that the phrase would read: "Any other officer, *except* Senators and members of the House of Representatives." There is no ground for assuming that if the attention of Congress had been called to the subject it would have made such an exception. The presumption is that Congress used the words in their ordinary and *general* sense—*i.e.*, that it intended precisely what it said. To justify the construction proposed, it must be clearly shown that the words "any other officer" do not in their ordinary and general sense include members of Congress. This the mere fact that they have sometimes been used in a narrower sense fails to do.

The second and third propositions of the Attorney-General are: (2) to place a construction upon the act which would embrace members of Congress would enlarge the *penal* effect of its provisions; and (3) this would not be warranted by any sound rule of interpretation. The language is not as clear as could be wished, but it appears to imply that where general words which are sometimes used in a broad and sometimes in a narrow sense are employed in a penal statute, the rule does not warrant the interpretation of them in their broad sense. There is, however, an important consideration here which is not referred to by the Attorney-General—namely, the nature of the mischief and the remedy. When this act was passed, it was well known to Congress that contributions for political purposes were made through its members. To have excepted them from the provisions of the act would have been to impair, if not to entirely nullify, the statute. To do this by construction "is not warranted by any sound rule of construction." Moreover, the rule of strict construction does not mean that a narrow sense must be given to the words, but that the case must come within the words; thus "house" includes not only "abode," but "building" (State *v.* Powers, 36 Conn., 77). That is, they are not to be extended by implication. Penal as well as beneficial statutes are to be so construed as fairly to suppress the mischief and advance the remedy (Parkinson *v.* State, 14 Md., 184); and are to extend to every case within the mischief, if within the words (Hoffman *v.* State, 29 Ala., 40). We are bound to interpret penal statutes according to the manifest import of the words, and to hold all cases which are within the words and the mischief to be within the remedial influence of the statute (The Schooner *Industry*, 1 Gall., 114). In United States *v.* Winn, 3 Sum., 211, it is said:

"Now, I do not think anything material in the construction of this statute can turn upon the rule, so ably and strenuously expounded at the bar, that penal statutes are to be construed strictly. I agree to that rule in its true and sober sense; and that is, that penal statutes are not to be enlarged by implication, or extended to cases not obviously within their words and purport. But where the words are general, and include various classes of persons, I know of no authority which would justify the court in restricting them to one class, or in giving them the narrowest interpretation, where the mischief to be redressed by the statute is equally applicable to all of them. And where a word is used in a statute which has various known significations, I know of no rule that requires the court to adopt one in preference to another, simply because it is more restrained, if the objects of the statute equally apply to the largest and broadest sense of the word."

Of course the Attorney-General may be right, and this argument wrong. But no fair-minded man will agree with Mr. Brewster that this question is too plain to be discussed.

CAMP-MEETINGS.

THE *Tribune* of Monday, in speaking of the camp-meeting season, declares that with every year the projectors of these gatherings recognize their undertaking more and more to be merely a "business enterprise," like a beach hotel, or an excursion; while "the old-fashioned camp-meeting, with its zeal, its excitement, its real fervor, and its blasphemy, is rapidly becoming an almost extinct social phenomenon," and regrets that "the manner in which these meetings have been conducted hitherto has not justified the belief that the convocation of huge crowds in a seaside resort to bathe, flirt, pray, and repent of their sins at once, is conducive to the successful presentation of the cause of Christ."

The projectors of camp-meetings might obviously defend themselves against this criticism by urging that a huge religious seaside pilgrimage is impossible without a carefully planned business organization, and that from the time of the Crusades to the present day no large heterogeneous multitude has ever got together and remained together for some time without a good many things happening of a sort to make the judicious grieve. As to the "old-fashioned" camp-meeting, they would probably say that the camp-meeting must always be very much what the community is: it is a democratic and voluntary assemblage; and if it was more zealous and fervid fifty years ago than it is now, this must be simply because the community has lost its zeal and fervor. That is no reason why it should not obey its religious instincts, such as they are.

Of course it is impossible to deny that camp-meetings may do some good. We have no means of comparing the condition of society as affected by camp-meetings with its condition as it would be without them. But as a religious phenomenon, their continued success is one more indication of the general change which is coming over religion all over the world, as dogmatic faith of all sorts loses its hold on men's minds, and as the old mediæval idea of penance as a necessary means of salvation becomes more and more unpopular. Were it possible to imagine a good mediæval monk conducting a camp-meeting, nobody can question that it would be a very different affair from any camp-meeting that we know anything about now. In the first place, he would not select a cool place to hold it in. He would argue that, the road to spiritual grace being through mortification of the flesh, a meeting of the sort in summer ought to be held in as hot a place as possible. Instead of the seaside he would, therefore, select a city, and, if he knew the United States, would probably pick out New York as, on the whole, the best place for his encampment. By selecting a few unimproved up-town blocks for his camping-ground, and holding an occasional prayer-meeting in a down-town "garden," he could probably inflict enough physical torture on his hearers to make them ready to do almost anything he assured them was good for their souls. By forbidding the consumption of ice-cream, separating the sexes, and so cutting off all opportunities for "flirting," and prohibiting all use of the public baths, he would still further promote the misery of his congregation; while with vivid pictures of how infinitely greater their suffering in a future life would be if they did not turn from their sins and repent, he would make them feel the practical value of religion.

Such camp-meetings as these were not tried in the middle ages or set on foot by the Calvinistic inheritors of the mediæval ideas of future rewards and punishments, chiefly because railroads were unknown, and locomotion was consequently difficult. Monastic life at its best was, however, based on the theory that happiness hereafter was only to be obtained by misery here; and had the monks had railroad facilities, there can hardly be a doubt that they would have got up just such camp-meetings as we have suggested. But they could only have been successful in an age of belief. In an age of doubt like ours, exactly the opposite policy has to be pursued: people have to be tempted and wheedled into religion, not frightened or persecuted into it. As the world has become skeptical, and the necessity of "having a good time" while life lasts has become impressed upon people's minds more and more, religion, which must always offer inducements of some kind to detach the worldling from his ordinary pursuits, is obliged to make very different propositions to him. The camp-meeting is merely one of the agencies for doing this, just as the æsthetic movement in "swell" churches, with its appeal to the love of painting, music, and ornamentation, is with a different class. Of course, as the class is less cultivated and intelligent and refined, the inducements held out will be less so too. Instead of appealing to the ear and eye and the mind, an appeal may frankly be made to the stomach. People who would not care a straw for mural paintings may be tempted by ice-cream. A family which does not know the difference between a Gregorian chant and *La ci darem*, may be induced to join the movement by the prospect of daily surf-bathing. From this point of view the camp-meeting as an institution merely illustrates a religious extreme. The same country which, a hundred and fifty years since, produced Jonathan Edwards, has now for a certain class of the community so modified the terrible dogmas that he taught that his successors find one of the most popular forms of worship to consist in a protracted picnic.

THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT ON EGYPT.

LONDON, July 24, 1882.

THE debate in the House of Commons on the vote of credit for the expenses of the British expedition to Egypt begins to-night. But before party controversy has developed, not to say distorted, the position of the Government, it is worth while examining with some care the assumptions from which the British Foreign Secretary, Lord Granville, starts, and to which he has given distinct expression in the despatch, just issued to the public, which was addressed to Lord Dufferin, British Ambassador at Constan-

tinople, on the 11th of July, the day of the bombardment.

Lord Granville refers back to the treaty of the 15th of July, 1840, which, he says, "provides that the administration of the country should devolve on the descendants of Mohammed Ali in the direct line." This, by the way, is a very summary, and therefore inexact, account of the transaction referred to. It was in fact a convention to which Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and the Porte were parties, the purpose of which was to protect Constantinople against Mohammed Ali, the rebellious but all-victorious Viceroy of Egypt, on condition that the Porte guaranteed to the Viceroy the hereditary government of Egypt, and also life-government of southern Syria. The terms of submission of Mohammed Ali were incorporated in the convention; but they were not conformed to at the time. It took a year to secure Mohammed Ali's compliance, and it was not obtained without active military operations by the British fleet on the Syrian coast, including the bombardment of Acre, and direct political pressure by Commodore Napier. However, the submission on the terms of the convention of July 15, 1840, was ultimately secured so far as Egypt was concerned, and the fact of it was recited in a protocol agreed to by the conference of London on July 12, 1841, between the same Powers which were parties to the convention. France, which, in spite of long holding off, the day after joined the other Powers in a treaty for the protection of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, may be held to have implicitly acquiesced in the arrangement.

Lord Granville might have dwelt on the circumstance that Great Britain took the lead in all these transactions, and was, in fact, more responsible than any other single Power for the separation of Egypt from Turkey and for the proper administration of Egypt under the dynasty of Mohammed Ali. The history of this earlier relationship to Egypt is a necessary preface to the concern of Great Britain in the recovery of the country from the financial ruin and degradation which were the consequences of the misgovernment of Ismaïl, the ex-Khedive, and Mohammed Ali's grandson. His Lordship passes lightly over the circumstances which led to and justified the interference of England and France in the latter part of Ismaïl's reign, for the purpose of financial reconstruction, though he describes with precision the nature of the institution of the European "Control." The real justification of this special interference must be sought and found in the peculiar measure in which, in Egypt, bad finance and a reckless system of borrowing were implicated with every form of bad government. It needed great pressure on the Khedive to procure his assent to the Commission of Inquiry of 1878, in which all the chief European Governments were represented, and which reported on the whole state of the country and of the administration so far as the national finances could possibly be affected by it. The most important recommendation it made was in favor of restricting the irresponsible despotism of the Khedive. It was this unlimited control of the Government which enabled him to borrow money to any amount he pleased from astute European money-lenders, and to oppress his people by extortionate taxation and wild military undertakings involving tyrannical modes of conscription. The report and recommendations of the Commission were adopted by the states of Europe, and France and England were practically charged to act upon them. After many tentative and unsuccessful efforts to introduce a reign of order, and to promote solvency under the Khedive Ismaïl, he was finally displaced, and his son Tewfik made to reign in his stead. The new Khedive thus reigned by a strictly European title, while the English and French officials, to whom was entrusted an absolute veto on all Ministerial acts which they might hold prejudicial to the financial settlement, exercised an effective check on capricious rule. At the same time a number of special arrangements, boards, commissions, and liquidation schemes, were put in working order under European administrators, with the view of paying a reduced interest to the bondholders in a way least burdensome to the people, and of ultimately freeing the country from its obligations.

Of course such laborious and comprehensive intervention as this could not be carried out without exciting all sorts of animosities against Europeans, and stirring to organized opposition all those who had vested interests in abuses and corruption. It was easy in the minds of Englishmen at a distance to confuse the love of native misgovernment with a patriotic sentiment of resistance to the intrusive foreigner. The army was the most centralized and cohesive of all the persons and bodies which suffered from retrenchment and reform. It thus naturally happened that among the army, even so early as in the last year of Ismaïl's reign, a revolutionary spirit first manifested itself. Lord Granville tersely describes the successive steps by which the military authority obtained ascendancy over the civil.

It has been said in some quarters that it is no imputation on the essentially patriotic character of an Oriental revolution that it first finds voice in the army, because in Eastern countries the army usually represents the only part of the population which is not depressed to the level of what would be slavery in the West, and consequently unable to entertain or express any political cravings. But this excuse at least demands that the rank and file of the army should, from the first, share in, if not anticipate, the action of their leaders; and it is more than a suspicious sign if, for some months, or rather for two years, the only malcontents are a few of the chief officers, and the only political demands urged relate to personal advancement, to promotion, to increase of pay, and to the transfer of effective power over the army from the civil authority to the officer of the army.

Lord Granville explains the bombardment to have been a matter of "simple and legitimate self-defence." He says Her Majesty's Government had no right to expose the fleet by a course of passive neglect to the increased danger which the threatening preparations involved, and he notices that those preparations were persisted in "in defiance of the orders of the Sultan, of the wish of the Khedive, and in contravention of the explicit assurances" of the military authorities. It is scarcely worth while, except as a matter of abstract legal interest, to inquire now whether the bombardment was, in fact, a declaration of war in itself, or, like "reprisals" and "retortion," an isolated act limited to its immediate purposes and consequences, and which might or might not be followed by a state of war. No doubt a state of war would have been held to exist during the bombardment itself, so far as to carry with it all the consequences of the distinction between "combatants" and "non-combatants," and of the restrictions of needless severities and of good treatment of prisoners and the like. But the state of war was local and transient, and could not have borne any legally extensive interpretation beyond the precise necessities of the case, as prescribed by humanity and legal analogy. The concluding passage of Lord Granville's despatch puts the English case concisely and yet adequately.

On the whole, it is seldom that so large an amount of unanimity has existed in the country on the eve of war. The daily papers, by an extraordinary energy of telegraphic correspondence almost from hour to hour, have kept the people thoroughly well informed, and, on the whole, the papers are nearly of one mind. The main criticism in to-night's and to-morrow's debate will be of an *ad hominem* kind, addressed to Mr. Gladstone's Government, for engaging in a similar active foreign policy to that which they condemned in the case of Lord Beaconsfield's Government. Other criticism will be founded on the delay, and some of the incidents of the diplomacy. Of course, those who resent all sorts of intervention will have their say, though it will scarcely be expected that Mr. Bright will endeavor to defend in words the arbitrary line he has drawn, by leaving the Government, between assenting to a demonstration of force and joining to command the use of it. A.

"PARSIFAL" AT BAYREUTH.

BAYREUTH, July 23, 1882.

THE rehearsals for the impending performance of "Parsifal" are making satisfactory progress. Every morning and afternoon a few dozen carriages containing the leading vocalists of all Germany and Austria may be seen creeping up the hill, about a mile beyond the centre of the town, on which the Wagner Theatre stands. The rules as to the exclusion from the rehearsals of non-participants are this time most rigidly carried into execution. An enterprising foreign critic who endeavored to secure admission under the protecting wing of a prominent vocalist soon discovered that he had reckoned without his host. Wagner, fearing that he might yield to the urgent solicitations of friends, has put the whole matter into the hands of a festival committee, with summary orders not to make any exceptions. This enables him to maintain toward his patrons the friendly-severe attitude of Kaiser Wilhelm, who tells his servants when they make a blunder, such as leaving open a door, that if they do so again he will inform the court marshal.

Wagner himself is, as usual when he superintends the production of a work of his, in a state of incredible activity and nervous tension. Doubtless his Italian tour last winter was undertaken principally with a view to lay in a good stock of vitality and health for the great demands the months of July and August were to make on him. During the rehearsals he is omnipresent and omnipotent—like a ship's captain or a general, who knows the duties of all his subordinates better than they do themselves. One moment he stands before the orchestra and begs them to repeat a certain passage more softly or with more emphasis and expression in the individual parts. The next moment he is in the middle of the auditorium, studying the effect of the scenery. Returning to the stage, he stands before the vocalists, shows them how to interpret certain passages, how and where to stand, what mimic expression to assume, how to hold their hands, and how to walk; all of which shows that Wagner while composing has the image of the whole situation with all its details as clearly before his eyes as if he saw it in its stage embodiment. So closely, indeed, does he anticipate the general result that, where an error of calculation does creep in, it affects him like a terrible disappointment. This happened a few days ago, when it was found that one of the intended very effective scenic transformations took more time than the progress of the music allowed it, so that it had to be modified somewhat. But if anything succeeds according to his wish and intention he expresses his satisfaction with the innocent happiness of a child. Frau Cosima Wag-

ner had assisted him, it seems, in devising some of the floral decorations for the scene in the wizard *Klingsor's* castle in the second act, where the charming flower-girls endeavor to allure the "guileless fool" *Parsifal*. When this scene was first presented Wagner shouted to Frau Cosima, in the auditorium, "You see, my dear little wife, that we can get up something together, after all." I quote this little incident chiefly as another illustration of the assistance occasionally rendered great men by their wives.

While Wagner is thus busy every day for five or six hours, notwithstanding his sixty-nine years, it is natural that he should not be very accessible to strangers. All his personal and epistolary intercourse is during the festival as far as possible attended to by his wife. It is only in this way that Wagner is enabled to give all his time and attention to his artists. These are all so devoted to him that they gladly sacrifice their whole summer's vacation, and large sums of money for "starring engagements," for the mere honor of singing at Bayreuth and for the benefit of Wagner's personal instruction. Never, surely, have artists been more devoted to their teacher and the task he has set them. Two of the vocalists chosen to act the part of *Kundry* (one of the most wonderful of creations) told me on the same day that they were repeatedly unable to restrain their tears—and these were only imperfect rehearsals. The piano score gives no idea of the beauty of the music, especially in the third act, in which Joseph Rubinstein has done some inferior work. The enthusiasm the music creates in all the artists is the most convincing proof of its grandeur, and it is this enthusiasm alone which enables them to interpret their terribly difficult parts in an effective manner. For it must be remembered that the time devoted to rehearsals is this year very brief—less than four weeks. Wagner's intention at first was to have full rehearsals for those vocalists only who appear on the first night (every leading part is to be sung by three artists in turn), the others being present in the auditorium to take notes. Some of the artists, however, objected to appearing without preliminary rehearsal, so that the plan of operations had to be altered and extended, much to the discomfiture of the poor instrumentalists, who are obliged to sweat in their "mystic abyss," which affords them only this advantage—that they can play without their coats on, or even in bathing-suits if they please, as no one in the auditorium can see them.

The poor tourists and critics who came here a week before the first performance, in the hope that they might get into the theatre during the rehearsals without the assistance of the Nibelung's Tarnhelm, by which they might make themselves invisible, are now obliged to spend their time in visiting the sights of Bayreuth—Jean Paul's house, the lovely Hermitage; King Ludwig's castle, with its parks, gem-covered Apollo temple and complicated waterworks, once the residence of the sister of Frederick II., who here wrote her well-known memoirs; or the Lustschloss and Park Fantasie, the property of Duke Alexander of Würtemberg, but now to be sold to some wealthy private persons; or the tower commemorating the victories of the Franco-German war, erected on the top of a hill high above the Wagner Theatre, from which a charming view is obtained of Bayreuth and the numerous groves, wooded hills, and picturesque villages in the neighborhood. About the time of sunset the top of this tower is one of the most romantic situations a poet could find to await inspiration, and I should not be surprised to hear that Wagner was frequently seen there with a note-book in hand. After supper many of our rehearsal excluded tourists or pilgrims may be seen on the piazza of one of the two restaurants built at the sides of the Wagner Theatre, watching to get a glimpse of the artists as they come out. Behind the theatre there is usually a group of Bayreuthers, trying to catch such of the sounds as will penetrate through the walls. These Bayreuthers of course seldom have money enough to pay thirty marks for an admission ticket, but they are all full-blooded Wagnerites nevertheless. Who would not esteem the man who has given Bayreuth for music the importance Weimar once had for poetry, and who once in a while enables every Bayreuther to rent his spare rooms at the rate of a dollar a day, where ordinarily he could only get a quarter? To all appearance, the Bayreuthers are going to be more rational this time than they were during the Nibelung festival. On that occasion they threatened to kill their goose for the sake of its one golden egg; and the indignation aroused by their extortions was so great that it threatened to make another festival impossible. In 1876 I had to pay with a friend ten marks ($2 50) a day for a small damp room with two beds; this time I have a large airy room, facing a lovely garden, for four marks a day. A good *table d'hôte* dinner can be secured at the Hôtel Sonne, amidst all the "Parsifal" singers, for fifty cents, and an excellent bottle of Rhine wine for the same price. These are not ruinous prices for those who can afford to come to Bayreuth to hear "Parsifal"; and it is possible to get along much cheaper yet at the restaurants, where, too, one can hear the instrumentalists discussing their parts, or a group of flower-girls drinking unæsthetic beer and criticising the flowers allotted to them on the stage because the petals in some of them are pointed the wrong way. To the Bayreuthers these flower-girls are an object of especial interest; and there are indeed few features of the "Parsifal" scenery which are not already spoken of as familiar objects in all the beer-houses. Yesterday I even met a little butcher boy who whistled the four simple notes of the bell motive out of which Wagner in the first act constructs such a wonderful symphony.

Those who have kept an eye on Wagnerian criticism in newspapers and pamphlets since the "Nibelung" performances in 1876 must have been frequently surprised or amused at the extreme animosity constantly shown toward poor Bayreuth. Not only the enemies, but some even of the friends, of the new music-drama are convinced that the plan of building a special theatre and organizing a series of festivals in a small provincial town was only a whim of Wagner's, which he was enabled to carry into execution through the generosity of a royal friend and his numerous admirers, who formed themselves into societies to further his project. Any one of the German capitals, we are told, with its old-established opera-house, would have been a more favorable place for successfully realizing such a plan.

From a financial point of view this is doubtless true, for Germans as a class are too poor to make a long tour (or Bayreuthiad) every three years to hear an excellent operatic performance; and it is quite possible that Wagner exaggerates the advantages to be gained by freedom from the turmoil and excitement of city life, and the concentration of the mind for days at a time on one object. But those who thus plead for the large cities thereby show that they have not read the history of Wagner's life. He was obliged to conceive the plan of Bayreuth because no German capital offered him an opportunity to produce his Tetralogy in accordance with his own intentions and principles. The great success achieved by that work in 1876, and in every German city where it has since been produced, has of course so completely changed the state of affairs that it is safe to say there is not a single manager in this country who would not have jumped at the opportunity to produce "Parsifal" on any conditions its author might name; and if Wagner should change his mind in regard to this drama as he did with his Tetralogy, and, instead of reserving it for Bayreuth in subsequent years, give it over to the managers, at least two-score would send in their offers on the first day. But this was not so before 1876.

One important consequence of the festival of 1876 has been that, whereas previously good Wagner singers were rare, they are now to be heard in every city, and it can be seen at the present rehearsals that Wagner has much less to suggest and correct than six years ago. A single hint often suffices to render easy a passage previously considered almost unsingable; and when we consider that without these hints there would have been no traditions as to the correct manner of singing Wagner's latest works, one cannot be sufficiently thankful that the idea of Bayreuth was realized. At the same time it remains doubtful if Bayreuth will ever become what Wagner intended it to be—a dramatic high school at which vocalists may meet every summer for practice in the new style. My private opinion is that he will not be able to resist the tempting offers for "Parsifal" that will soon be made to him by various managers; and that the next Bayreuth festival will not take place until his new drama, "The Victor," or "Buddha," as it is variously called, is completed.

"Parsifal" will be of interest not only from its intrinsic merits, but as a complement to "Lohengrin." Many admirers of this first grail tragedy have often wished to know something more about the abode of the Knights of the Holy Grail from which *Lohengrin* was sent to succor the unhappy maiden *Elsa*, in accordance with the mission of these knights. In "Parsifal" this wish will be fully gratified, as its hero is the father of *Lohengrin*, with whose adventures and temptations it deals. In his 'Thematic Guide Through the Music of Parsifal' Hans von Wolzogen protests against the current notion that Wagner's dramas are based on the mediæval poems of Christian authors. The germs of the various legends which Wagner has used came to Europe through the Aryan migrations from Asia. They were adopted by the mediæval poets and dressed as epics in the manners and customs of their own time. The legend of "Parsifal" was introduced into Germany from France by Wolfram von Eschenbach, whose poem throughout shows the influence of Chrestiens de Troyes's "Conte du Graal." Wolfram's "Parzival" is called by Johannes Scherr the first great work of German idealism, and is placed by Vilmar as a psychological epic side by side with Goethe's "Faust"—a psychological drama. With Wolfram's poem Wagner's has many features in common; but it avoids all the epic details, and with genuine theatric instinct combines its most dramatic features with different versions by other poets; the result being a work of much greater unity and poetic value than that of any of its predecessors. It would be interesting to compare these different versions with one another did space permit. As it is, I can only say that Wagner retains the old Spanish signification of the word grail (or gral), a cup, and namely, the cup that was used at the Last Supper and subsequently received the crucified Saviour's blood; whereas in Wolfram's poem the grail is a sacred stone, which was given into the care of Titural and his pious knight on the Mount Monsalvat, which is inaccessible to sinners. For the much-disputed word Parsifal (Parzival, Perceval,

Peredur) Wagner adopts the interpretation of Görres, who derives it from the Arabic Parsch-Fal, *i. e.*, the pure or guileless fool.

BISMARCK AFTER THE CRIMEAN WAR.—I.

BERLIN, July 12, 1882.

THE second volume of the book 'Prussia in the Bundestag' has made its appearance much sooner than had been anticipated. It comprises the years 1854–1856, and is chiefly devoted to the Eastern war and its consequences for the Prussian policy. While in the first volume we made the acquaintance of an able young ambassador, who had to fight his way with subaltern characters and to contend with comparatively insignificant diplomatic trifles, in the present one we meet a prominent statesman, who, although behind the scenes, plays an important part on a large historical stage. The stagnant Federal Council was as dull and of little account as ever; it was, as Bismarck expressed himself, like a mill which clacks a great deal, but makes little flour, and the road to it was a very sandy one, on which the Ministers wasted their strength in vain. The necessity of reforming the Diet was everywhere felt; but as to the ways and means by which such an object should be accomplished, confusion and embarrassment ruled supreme. Bismarck was the only Minister who had formed firm convictions and settled plans to effect a radical change in that rather superfluous body, but he did not think it practicable to put the ball in motion just at that time.

It was when the present volume opens—viz., toward the end of 1853—that the petty routine of the Diet was stirred up by the Eastern entanglement, and that Bismarck found occasion to try his hand in larger political questions. In his letters he is as vivid and provoking as ever. They abound in good-humored attacks, sharp criticism, and benevolent sarcasms on his colleagues. "All the diplomatists except myself," he writes on February 28, 1855, "are highly satisfied with the news that Prokesch has been recalled. I do not consider his successor, Rechberg, as bad in his political aims, but more able and more energetic." The Austrian Secretary of State, Count Buol-Schauenstein, paid a flying visit to Frankfort to receive the homages of the Ministers accredited there. At his invitation they all went to see him with the sole exception of Bismarck, who characterized the Austrian Secretary as follows: "I wish that only for one hour I could be what Buol thinks himself all day, for then my glory before God and man would be firmly established for all time to come." It must have been a fine collection of diplomatic mummies at the Frankfort Diet, at least as depicted by Bismarck: the English Minister, a sportsman who cared for nothing but riding and fishing; the Frenchman, also a horseman and sportsman, whose time was solely occupied by these noble passions; the Austrian, a conceited fool; and the *dii minorum gentium*, irresolute ninnies. It is only against the Austrian ambassador that a bitter malice pervades Bismarck's remarks, who is stung by his colleague's stupid arrogance, and with the sharpest repartees pays back what he has to swallow. On another occasion the French Minister at Berlin, the Marquis de Moustier, blamed Bismarck's conduct and policy in the Crimean war: "It will lead you to Jena," the Frenchman said; whereupon the German answered: "Why not to Leipzig or Waterloo?"

But all these rebukes, animosities, and hostilities were tempests in a teapot, in comparison with the threatening aspect of public affairs. It is not my province to sketch the Crimean War, the less as its details do not fall within the range of Bismarck's activity. Suffice it, therefore, to say that Prussia's policy during that whole time was weak, vacillating, and unsatisfactory to all parties concerned. The irresolute King wavered from one side to the other: to-day opened negotiations with the Czar of Russia, who considered him as a mere tool, whose opinion it was not worth while asking for, and, alluding to his love of champagne and his old-womanhood, contemptuously nicknamed him "Veuve Clicquot"; to-morrow trying to come to terms with England, who did not trust him. At another time he feared and at the same time despised Louis Napoleon as an adventurer, and then again he distrusted Austria. By some of the other Governments, also, gross blunders were made. Austria, for instance, was not at all better, but she had a policy of her own, and changed her position and aims with more outward decency and pretence. Berlin at that time was a nest of intrigues between the Russian and Franco-English adversaries. Even high officials betrayed state secrets to the parties which paid well for them. Sebastopol would not have been taken so soon if the French Minister at Berlin had not bought the Russian reports representing the weak state of that fortress in the Emperor of Russia's own words. There were two parties striving for triumph in the immediate surroundings of the King—Bunsen, who stood up for the English view of the war and a quadruple alliance against Russia, and General Gerlach, who was an enthusiastic admirer of Czar Nicholas, and wanted to win Frederick William IV. over to the Russian side. Aside from these influences, Bismarck peremptorily demanded that Prussia should keep aloof from any connection with the ambitious schemes of Austria, and he finally succeeded in having her wooings rejected by Prussia. The only man, therefore, who saw clearly in these matters was Bismarck.

It cannot, accordingly, be wondered at that under such circumstances a general contempt of the Prussian policy prevailed in Europe. After the war she stood isolated, and was looked down upon as a second-rate power, whose friendship was considered of no importance whatever. Bismarck's relations to the Crimean War begin toward the end of 1853, when Austria and Prussia had concluded a treaty (afterward not carried out) by which they guaranteed to each other their non-German provinces, and for which they both wanted the consent and accession of the Federal Diet. Bismarck was opposed to this policy from the beginning. He by this time had learned enough of overbearing Austria, who not only wanted the support of Prussia for carrying out her own plans against Russia, but at any moment was ready to throw the weight and burden of the war on Prussia. "What interest have we," he reasoned, "to act as policeman for Austria? What extraordinary service has Austria rendered us to make us respectfully follow her tracks? Is it to reward her for having discredited us with the smaller German States, or trumpeted to the world that the Emperor Francis Joseph is master of Frederick William IV., and leads him wherever he pleases? If Austria wants to pick up a war of conquest against Russia, let her do it at her own expense. We have nothing to defend at the mouth of the Danube, and had better keep away from her ambitious quarrels." What Bismarck positively wanted to accomplish was not the acquisition of a larger or smaller tract of territory, but, after the conclusion of peace, such relations to the European Powers that he could arrive at a plain settlement with Austria, which for him meant as much as her exclusion from the Confederacy.

His views are fully given in a letter which, on April 26, 1856, a few weeks after the conclusion of the Paris peace, he addressed to Herr von Manteuffel, then Secretary of State. At that time Louis Napoleon was at the height of his power; all Europe flattered and courted him, or offered him alliances. Prussia was diplomatically more humiliated than (from a military point of view) by Jena. The following letter forms a terse review of past events, and gives a clew to the next ten years of Prussian policy and European history. I am bound to give its principal parts in full, as I should not do justice to its strength and vigor if I were only to epitomize it:

"There is very little confidence in the preservation of the peace just concluded," he says, "and all the Cabinets of Europe regard the near future with a certain discomfort. Great and small are trying to preserve the amity of France, and the Emperor Napoleon has the choice of alliances offered him. It does not seem as if the extravagant endeavors of Orloff had shaken the apple from the tree: it will fall of itself when it is ripe, and Russia will catch it. Count Buol's *acte de soumission* and Austria's ambition to become the first of the Rhenish Confederate States [an allusion to the Rhenish Confederation under the first Napoleon], provided that Prussia will be satisfied to occupy the second or third rank, have, as it appears, been received with a courteous reserve by the Emperor Napoleon. The officious *Wiener-Presse* therefore does not give up the hope of a Catholic league with France, and in the meantime praises the Voltairian Kaunitz because that statesman stood for France [with which, under Maria Theresa, he concluded an alliance]. The German middle States are, as heretofore, ready to submit to that one of the German great Powers which has the best prospect of the support of France, and to look for assistance to the latter if circumstances should make it advisable.

"England places no less value on the continuance of her good relations with France, and the wedded life of the two Western Powers, although grown a little morose, will not too hastily be divorced. A rupture would be the most expensive and dangerous alternative that could happen to both of them. The war has raised and elevated the French fleet, and in a possible conflict with Napoleon England would have to prepare herself at the same time to divide and set her forces against Russia and America. The present state of the English land force also recommends the preservation of the Western alliance, and the annoyance at 'the French peace' will at the utmost find a vent in teasing France. Louis Napoleon, on the other side, will for the present be kept in check by the state of his finances and by the apprehension of domestic difficulties. If he should force a rupture with England, he would do what he could beforehand to raise the French national feeling against 'perfidious Albion' to such a degree that all English attempts to create disturbances in France would glide off like water from a duck's back.

"It is very improbable that Louis Napoleon will begin a war merely for the sake of a war, or that he is stimulated by the conqueror's ambition. On the contrary, he will preserve peace as long as he can reconcile it with the disposition of the Army and consequently with his own security. Should he nevertheless want a war, he will know how to keep open a question which at any time will offer him a pretext not too wanton or too unjust to act upon. The Italian question is at present particularly well adapted for this purpose. The disorder of her public affairs, the ambition of Sardinia, the Bonapartistic and Muratistic reminiscences, and the Corsican fellow-countrymanship, offer a great many starting-points to the oldest son of the Roman Church. The hatred against the Italian princes and the Austrians smoothes his road, while in Germany he can expect no help from our democracy and from the princes except on condition of his having already proved his strength without them. Although the war is not so near at hand as gloomy prophets affirm, new political groups will nevertheless be formed whose importance and influence are based on the possibility of a war under a fixed constellation of alliances."

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Correspondence.

A NATIONAL CIRCULATING LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you have the kindness to direct me to any circulating library from which, by pay-

ment of a fee, I could obtain the best standard and new books?

Why has nobody started a Mudie in this country? I find my inclination and bank-account in a constant quarrel in reference to buying many books of which if I could only obtain the examination for a fraction of their value, it would be a consummation devoutly to be wished. There are, doubtless, many others situated as I am, far from all libraries, desirous of keeping pace with the best thought of the day, yet not wishing to buy *all* the books they would like to read. I am, for example, at present greatly interested in French dramatic criticism and literature, but find the bills from my Paris bookseller running too high in the course of a year. Are there not, peradventure, three or four others pursuing the same study in reach of the long arms of the Postmaster-General, who would be glad to join together and procure such books as might be wanted, forwarding the volumes from one address to another according to a previously arranged plan? As Sydney Smith said to his Vestry, in reference to a block pavement about St. Paul's: "All you have to do, gentlemen, is to put your heads together and the thing is done."

There are a dozen volumes on the proverbs of different nations which I would give one-fourth their cost to read; the same of German pessimistic literature, etc. What can be done for us?

I am, sir, very respectfully yours,

G. M. Gould.

Peach Orchard, Lawrence Co., Ky.,
July 30, 1882.

[Such a book-club as our correspondent suggests could easily be established if any energetic person would take the lead. But that sort of thing does not do itself. It must be done, too, by one of those who are to be benefited by it. No one else will face the very considerable labor of getting up the club and then of running it. Local book-clubs are plenty in New England for the purchase of American literature and for sending it around within the limits of a town. Their secretaries will testify that it is not easy to get *and keep* their members together. To start a national club would be a more arduous undertaking, on account of the difficulty of finding out what scholars are desirous of joining it; and running it would be still harder, on account of the difficulty of getting an agreement in the choice of books. It is one thing to buy cheap books which people who pay a moderate annual fee are willing to read for amusement or desultory improvement, and quite another thing to satisfy a number of subscribers, paying large subscriptions, in the selection of costly books for serious study. If each subscriber wants a different book, there is no saving; the economy comes from two or more agreeing upon one book and being content, even if not eager, to see some of the books chosen to gratify others.

The extent of our country is not a difficulty worth mentioning. It costs very little to send a book by mail, and no more to send it from New York to San Francisco than to Brooklyn. The financial difficulty is entirely solved if enough persons can be got to combine; and, paradoxically enough, the difficulty of suiting all tastes diminishes in exact proportion as the number of persons to be suited increases. If the right man could take hold of the work, it could be made as great and as rapid a success as the Chautauqua Course and the Society for Home Studies.

But there is another way in which our correspondent may gain his object. There are various proprietary libraries in the country which allow their books to circulate widely. Take, for instance, the Boston Athenæum. For about $200 one can buy a share, without any formality of election, as one buys a share of bank or railway stock. At the present rate of interest this is equivalent to an annual expense of $6 or $7 a year. An annual payment of $5 obtains the loan of one new book and three old books at the same time. The postage would be the same as under the club system. The purchases include a large number of English and French books, but fewer German. Moreover, the Library Committee, we understand, are always ready to purchase good books which are asked for by the proprietors. Here is an organism, already established, which seems able to save our correspondent many Parisian and London booksellers' bills. The Athenæum, by the way, publishes a monthly list of its additions, which may give him some more exact idea of their character than we have space for.

We have spoken of the most noted proprietary library in the country. There are others, of less cost, which would probably furnish correspondingly less varied reading. The shares in the Providence Athenæum, for instance, cost, if we remember right, only $15, and the annual fee is $5. The supply of English books is large, about 900 volumes a year; French books, however, are sparingly purchased and by fits and starts; the older books, of less interest to our correspondent, are about 40,000 in number, and are said to be very well selected. Possibly it is the existence of these small Mudies that has prevented the establishment of anything like the great London library.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

A holiday volume, to be called 'Harper's Christmas Pictures and Papers, Done by the Tile Club and its Literary Friends,' and of which the size of page will be twice that of *Harper's Weekly*, will contain a wood engraving by Cole (after a painting by Vedder) measuring thirty-three by twenty-one inches.

Mr. Henry J. Morgan, Keeper of the Records, Canada, is preparing a new edition of his 'Sketches of Celebrated Canadians and Persons Connected with Canada'; and also 'The Bibliotheca Canadensis; or, a Manual of Canadian Literature.'

Close upon Mr. W. M. Griswold's author and subject index to certain German historical periodicals, comes a quite similar index ('Autoren- und Sach-register') to the *Deutsche Rundschau* from the same fertile source (Bangor: Q. P. Index). The *Rundschau* dates from the year 1874.

We have received the first instalment of Prof. Harrison's edition of 'Beówulf' (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.), consisting of the text, 101 pp., from the fourth edition of M. Heyne. Paper and press-work are admirable, and the editing, so far as we have had an opportunity of examining, is scholarly and accurate. A second part, to consist of a Glossary prepared by Prof. Sharp, is soon to complete the work, which will then commend itself readily to the needs of American students. We hope to be able to speak of the completed work more at length, after having made a careful comparison with the fresh collation of MS. and texts just published by Wülcker.

J. B. Lippincott & Co., the present publishers of W. H. Prescott's writings, have issued 'Leaflets' of selections from his works, made for homes, libraries, and schools by Miss Josephine E. Hodgdon. The advocates of the pueblo theory of Central American civilization will have to bestir themselves with tracts on the other side.

Chief-Justice Martin's 'History of Louisiana,' originally published in two volumes in 1827, and of late years hardly obtainable, has been reprinted in a single volume by James A. Gresham, New Orleans. It is prefaced by a very entertaining account of the author's singular character and career, by Judge William Wirt Howe; and Mr. John F. Condon adds a rather bald and informal register of events from 1815 (the close of Judge Martin's 'History') to 1861. Imperfect as the latter is, it supplements in a good many particulars the corresponding summary appended to Gayarré's 'History of Louisiana—the American Domination.' The publisher has prefixed an attractive portrait of Martin.

In the *American Naturalist* for August, Gen. Benjamin Alvord, U. S. A., discussing the compass-plant, of which he was the earliest scientific observer, makes a curious disclosure concerning the well-known passage in 'Evangeline' concerning this plant. Longfellow based his simile on information supplied him by General Alvord in January, 1847, but on his own responsibility called the plant "delicate," whereas it is even coarse and sturdy. Corrected by his informant after the first edition, the poet substituted the word "vigorous" for "delicate" in later editions. A criticism by Sir J. D. Hooker on the earlier epithet leads General Alvord to remark that "in England the first editions [of Longfellow] are most read."

It is safe to assert that a very large majority of our readers are ignorant of the existence of a National Park on Mackinac Island, Michigan; that Senator Ferry, of that State, obtained the sanction of Congress for it in 1875; and that it contains 911 acres, or about two-fifths of the total area of the island. It is already a considerable summer resort; and in the double interest of visitors and hotel-keepers, Lieut. D. H. Kelton, U. S. A., who is stationed on the adjoining military reservation, has compiled the 'Annals of Fort Mackinac' (Chicago: Fergus Printing Co.), which make agreeable reading. The historical information is considerable, and the legends are skilfully narrated. It was on this romantic island that Alexis St. Martin placed science under obligation by being shot in the stomach.

The report of the Boston Board of Health becomes annually of greater importance among documents of the same kind. That for 1881–82 records the fact that in the ten years 1872–1881 the mortality of children under five years has diminished from 42.17 to 36.75 per cent. This period nearly coincides with an unprecedentedly long exemption of the city from a small-pox epidemic, the last having subsided in August, 1873, since when, up to October, 1881, there were but twenty-seven cases and two deaths. The Board recommend revaccination of all graduates of the public schools who have attained the age of fifteen. Loss of time and consequent loss of wages are the chief motives with the laboring classes for avoiding compulsory vaccination. The report gives a unique photograph of the legs of a small-pox patient on the eleventh day—a "beautiful case." The photographer was the head nurse himself.

The Providence Public Library's *Monthly Reference Lists* for July give references for the history of Local Self-Government, particularly in this country, and for European Interests in

Egypt. Mr. Foster's notes show that he has more than a superficial acquaintance with the works and periodicals referred to.

The more recent numbers of the 'Anecdota Oxoniensia' series, now publishing by the Clarendon Press, embrace (Semitic) Rabbi Saadiah's Commentary on Ezra and Nehemiah; (Classical) the English MSS. of the Nicomachean Ethics, described by J. A. Stewart, M.A., and a collation of Nonius Marcellus, Harleian MS. 2719, by J. H. Onions; (Mediæval and Modern) 'Sinonoma Bartholomei,' edited by J. L. G. Mowat. This last is a medical glossary from a fourteenth-century MS. "Petroleum" already occurs in it, in the form "petraleum."

L. W. Schmidt sends us Parts 28–30 of the new thirteenth edition of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon,' completing the second volume with the word *Bibelerklärung* (Scriptural exegesis). The most important articles are on mining (*Bergbau*), to which eleven pages are devoted; Berlin, fifteen pages, with a map and plates of public buildings; population (*Bevölkerung*); and Bible. Under *Berg*, a table of mountain heights for all the world is given; under Besançon, a map of the town and its environs. Other maps are of Asia, of Persia and its neighbors on the east, and of Bavaria, all colored. There are illustrations of the anatomy of the eye and of the famous iron hand of Götz von Berlichingen, which is still preserved at Jagstfeld.

—On the 5th of July, a parcel of manuscript of Poole and Fletcher's great 'Index to Periodicals,' containing the material for about twenty printed pages, was stolen from the express on its way to the printer. Imagine the state of mind of the editors! Manuscript of that kind cannot be written out from the imagination of an editor. The indexes of some periodicals might, so far as they were concerned, furnish an imperfect substitute; but the twenty pages could never be entirely replaced without going over from beginning to end all represented in the Index—over 4,000 volumes, the three years' work of some fifty coöperators. But, fortunately, while the editors were considering how much of this could be undertaken without delaying their printer too long, the manuscript was found under a street-counter, where it had been thrown by the disappointed thief.

—The third volume of Mr. Henry J. Morgan's 'Dominion Annual Register and Review' (Montreal: John Lovell & Son) is a double issue, covering the years 1880 and 1881. It is, like its predecessors, full of interesting information concerning the progress of our neighbor republic, few as are the points at which her affairs come in contact with our own. The settlement of the Fortune Bay difficulty by payment of indemnity is one of these points, and the most important during the period indicated. The great internal concern of the Dominion, meanwhile, has been the building of its Pacific railroad, and the Government contract for this, signed in 1880, was confirmed by Parliament early in the following year. The Government on the one hand brought the islands of the Gulf of St. Lawrence into telegraphic communication with the mainland, and on the other purchased the Western Union's lines in British Columbia, and now works them itself, to the great advantage of the public, it is said. It also granted a twenty years' monopoly to a company proposing to lay a cable direct from Vancouver's Island to Japan. It acquired a title to the Arctic territory adjoining British North America. Finally, on December 4, 1881, it took a census which revealed a total population of 4,324,810. Some of the subjects of legislation were the legalizing of marriage with a deceased wife's sister or deceased brother's widow, a bill for which passed the House, but was thrown out by the Senate by a very small majority (33 to 31); amendment of the functions of the Supreme Court, which is only seven years old, and is regarded with jealousy by the French Canadians; and improvement of the civil service. To this last end a commission of inquiry was appointed, and appears to have recommended the introduction of competitive examinations, as the minority opposed it. A list of appointments, by the way, large and small, Dominion and provincial, is printed by Mr. Morgan without unduly taxing his space. The chief party incidents of the year were Mr. Mackenzie's retirement from the leadership of the Opposition in favor of the Hon. Edward Blake and the death of George Brown, editor of the Toronto *Globe*. Mr. Morgan furnishes a diary of remarkable occurrences, abstracts of notable trials, and a readable summary of achievements in literature, science, and art. The literary product is not to be despised, though it is strongest in historical works like Ryerson's 'Loyalists of America,' and Rattray's (unfinished) 'Scot in British North America,' unless we admit (as Mr. Morgan does) Goldwin Smith's 'Cowper' and 'Lectures and Essays.' Marchand's translation (unfinished) of Kalm's journals of his travels in America, Gagnon's 'Chansons Populaires du Canada,' and Todd's 'Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies' are also deserving of mention. There are now no fewer than seven historical societies in the Dominion, one of the youngest, that of Nova Scotia, being perhaps the most vigorous and promising.

—A curious feature of parliamentary terminology and procedure across the border is what is called "the six months' 'hoist,'" which, in the absence of any glossary, we can only conjecture to mean postponement of a measure for that term. Mr. Morgan relates at some length an amusing incident which occurred in the House in May, 1879, when a Toronto barrister, seated on the floor, uttered "some offensive remarks" loud enough to be heard by the member for Shefford, against whom they were directed, who was then making a speech. This resulted in the barrister's expulsion from the House, and exclusion after repeated efforts to return. He accordingly addressed a note to the member and sent it in to him in these terms: "Sir—I desire to state out of the House what I stated in it: you are a cheat and a swindler." For this the writer was ultimately called to the bar of the House, and made an humble apology, with many regrets for having "infringed upon the privileges of the House of Commons of Canada"; but, in regard to the note, he said he was advised and believed that the act did not constitute a breach of the privileges aforesaid, not having been committed within the House, and not referring to any action of the member in his Parliamentary capacity. Still, if the House thought otherwise, he would apologize for that, too. The House did pronounce his spoken words a breach of privilege, but put up with his apology, not deeming it prudent to contest the point raised as to their jurisdiction over his "libellous and defamatory" communication.

—A correspondent writes:

"Hundreds of newspapers in recent obituaries of the late George P. Marsh give as the day of his birth the *seventeenth* of March. Their authorities, if we asked for them, would be found to be 'Appletons' Cyclopædia' in all editions, or 'Chambers' Cyclopædia,' or Cooper's 'Men of the Time,' or Drake's 'Dictionary of American Biography,' or other similar works, which are echoes of Appleton. In 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia' and Lanman's 'Biographical Annals of the United States Civil Service,' however, Mr. Marsh's birthday is set down, not as the seventeenth, but as the *fifteenth* of March; and the true date is the fifteenth. During the winter of 1844–5, Mr. Marsh and family being in Washington, it was my fortune to occupy his house in Burlington. His family Bible was daily before me, and I chanced to examine the family record, and noticed that his birth was entered as having occurred on the fifteenth of March. That date arrested my attention, and clung to my memory all the more because it was my own birthday. Moreover, I had already long kept a commonplace book, and under the heading of March 15 I then wrote, 'G. P. Marsh, born 1801.' The entry is now before my eyes. As Mr. Marsh's Bible may have perished, or may be now in Rome, its testimony regarding the first fact in his life will be welcome to those who have observed the conflict of biographical authorities."

—Mr. Quaritch has just issued a prospectus of an edition, to be published by subscription, of 'The Republic of Cicero,' reprinted from the edition of Cardinal Mai, with English translation and notes, by G. G. Hardingham, of the Middle Temple. This book, if well done, would be welcome undoubtedly to many readers, and especially to those whose old copies of Cicero's works do not include the important portions of this treatise discovered by Mai. The prospectus, however, opens with a curious misstatement, which it is surprising that Mr. Quaritch, with his wide acquaintance with books, could have let pass. The first sentence asserts that "the Latin text has never yet been published by the English press." This is an error. We have before us a copy of the Latin text printed and published in London in 1823—a reprint of Mai's edition of the year before, with his preface and notes. It contains a plate representing the nine persons who took part in the dialogue, and a facsimile of the Vatican palimpsest, both reproduced from Mai's edition. It forms a well-printed octavo volume of lvi. and 349 pages, and was published by J Mawman.

—A specimen page of text and of translation accompanies the prospectus, and we make bold to say that this is a most creditable proceeding, for no one can read Mr. Hardingham's version of this selected passage without an instant conclusion that his work is worthless, and that the schoolboy who should submit such a translation would justly deserve a flogging, or, in modern phrase, "to be dropped." His blunders render the whole meaning unintelligible. The true sequence of thought is destroyed, and the significance of special phrases lost. We can give but brief examples, but they will be sufficient. Cicero, speaking (i., § 44) of the rise of a popular tyrant, describes him as "audax, inpurus, consectans proterve bene sæpe de re publica meritos," which Mr. Hardingham renders: "Audacious and wicked men often cutting to pieces those who have deserved well of their country." In the next section, which treats of a mixed form of government, occurs the following sentence: "Placet enim esse quiddam in re publica præstans et regale, esse aliut auctoritate principum partitum ac tributum; esse quasdam res servatas judicio voluntatique multitudinis," which may be freely rendered: "It seems well that something should exist in the state preëminent and royal; that something should be determined by the authority of the chief men, and that certain other things should be reserved for the judgment and will of the multitude." Of this simple statement Mr. Hardingham makes the following complex one: "For it is best that there should be some certain person presiding over public affairs and representing regal state; another over the division of lands and collection of tribute, taxes, and the appropriation of the revenue, to be under the authority of the princes; and those pertaining to servitude, rights, and duties to be by the judgment and will of the people." We have nothing to add save that Mr. Quaritch ought to withdraw his prospectus and beg the pardon of those correspondents to whom he has sent it.

—Mr. Francis Galton has in a recent number of *Nature* (July 6) applied his method of "composite portraits" (see *Nature*, May 23, 1878) to the solution of the question why artists represent running horses in positions which instantaneous photography shows it to be impossible for them to assume. Taking the attitudes of the galloping horse, as represented in one of Muybridge's photographs, he finds that a certain group of successive positions may be selected in which the hind feet are, in relation to the body, comparatively motionless and extended to the rear, while the fore feet are rapidly altering their position. A second group may be selected in which these conditions are reversed, the fore legs being free from the ground and extended to the front. Now, in observing a running horse it is difficult to watch closely both the fore and hind legs of the animal simultaneously. Hence a mental image of the moving horse seems to be formed by combining the images of the fore and hind legs in those positions in which they most distinctly impress the retina (that is, in the positions in which their motion is slowest), without any regard to the fact that these positions are not assumed synchronously by the two pairs of legs. It is accordingly found that a composite picture formed by combining the forequarters of the horses in the second with the hindquarters of those in the first of the above-mentioned groups is not at all unlike the conventional figure of the running horse. The same writer has also (*Nature*, June 13) suggested a simple way in which the eye can verify the results of instantaneous photography. This consists in viewing the moving object through a hole in a screen behind which a second screen with a slit in it is rapidly moved by a spring. At the instant when the slit is opposite the hole the moving object is seen, and, as it is only visible during a small fraction of a second, it, of course, appears stationary. In this way views can be obtained of galloping horses similar to those with which Muybridge's photographs have made us familiar.

—Some six years ago Mr. Alfred Marks, known to our readers as the Secretary of the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London, was led to undertake a study of the St. Anne of Leonardo da Vinci. A cartoon of this subject (otherwise known as the "Holy Family") from the master's own hand is in the possession of the Royal Academy, while the Louvre possesses his painting of St. Anne and the Virgin; and it would appear from Mr. Marks's researches that Vasari, in describing the cartoon of St. Anne executed for the Servite monks of Florence, confounded these two designs. In a paper lately read before the Royal Society of Literature, Mr. Marks exhibited photographs of a number of copies or adaptations of the Louvre composition, and named others, in all some twenty; whereas of the Royal Academy's cartoon no duplicate is known. He concluded that it "represented an early stage in the development of an idea which found final expression in a work resembling the Louvre picture." He argued that it could not possibly have been executed under the circumstances mentioned by Vasari, and was disposed to identify it with one mentioned by Lomazzo as being in the possession of Aurelio Luini. It reached England in 1760, and turned up in the Royal Academy somewhat mysteriously, in 1791. The place and date of its production Mr. Marks would make Milan before the fall, in 1500, of Lodovico Sforza.

—Theological science has been so completely and so rapidly changed by the investigations of the past fifty years, that none but specialists in it can keep pace with its progress. The active clergyman and the educated layman must depend for their information upon encyclopædic works of one sort or another. It is to precisely these classes that a new 'Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften in encyclopädischer Darstellung' is addressed. Its arrangement is in the form of separate treatises on the accepted topics which go to make up the whole volume of theological science. The editor, Professor Otto Zöckler, of Greifswald, promises the completion of the whole work, in three volumes, before Christmas, 1883. The first half of volume i., which has already appeared (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), contains the general introduction and the beginning of the Biblical Exegesis; this subject will be completed in the second half-volume. Volume ii. will contain the history of the Church and the first part of Systematic Theology, and volume iii., Ethics and Practical Theology. The names of the authors of these several treatises, among which are those of Grau of Königsberg, Harnack of Dorpat, Cremer of Greifswald, and Luthardt of Leipzig, are a guarantee that while this traditional and unsatisfactory division of topics has been adhered to, the treatment will be based upon the latest results in all departments of inquiry. The tone of the whole will be conservative and defensive as against all assaults of unbelief. Copious references to books add very greatly to the value of each essay.

—The *Preussische Jahrbücher* of Berlin in the June number publishes an excellent article on the Panama Canal Question—viz., "Die rechtliche und politische Seite der Panama-Canal-Frage," by Dr. Rudolf Schleiden, from 1853 to 1864 Hanseatic Minister-Resident in Washington, and one of the most learned and accomplished German writers on public European and on international law. The author, having witnessed the negotiations following the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty at our seat of government, and being personally acquainted with the majority of the diplomatists and statesmen who have had to deal with the Central American question, gives a clear and exhaustive synopsis of the several stages of the proceedings, and throws much new and important light on the American and English policy in that quarter. This valuable essay, comprising only sixty-six pages in octavo, should be translated in order to make it accessible to the English-reading public.

—The disagreement of doctors is proverbial. It extends, apparently, even to Ph.D's. The general public do not care much how Greek is pronounced; still, a few old college graduates would be glad to have practice universally agreed upon, so that they should not always feel at sea when pronouncing the name of a Greek hero or goddess. But it is not to be. Hardly has a generation with much difficulty learned to say for Δημήτηρ, not Dēmētĕr, but Daymaytayr, and for Ἀθήνη, not Athēnē, but Athaynay, and for φέρητε, not fĕrētĕ, but fĕraytĕ, when M. Schweisthal, pupil of the École Pratique des Hautes-Études, proposes in his 'Essai sur la valeur phonétique de l'alphabet latin' (Paris: Leroux, 1882) to change all this, and pronounce Dĕmētĕr, Athĕnĕ, fayretay; and the *Revue Critique* says that he is right. The new Latin pronunciation was established more lately than the last-but-one Greek, as we suppose we must call it. The time for reaction against it has not yet come, but we live in dread of learning some day that Kikero is not Siseronian, and that Waregeel was not, after all, the protégé of Aoogoostoos.

THE JOURNALS OF CAROLINE FOX.

Caroline Fox: Her Journals and Letters. Edited by Horace N. Pym. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

THESE delightful 'Journals' are full of interest on two different accounts. Their first and most obvious charm is that they contain not exactly pictures, but faint outlines and sketches of Mill, Carlyle, Hartley, Coleridge, Sterling, and others who have left more or less mark upon their age, and of whom every one would wish to know more than we are ever likely to know. Readers, however, who take them up on account of the references which they contain to celebrated characters ought to be warned at once that Miss Fox, who put down her notes and memoranda simply for her own use, or the use of her friends, and never wrote a word which was meant to catch the public eye, was, with all her rare gifts and graces, not endowed with that peculiar talent which enabled writers like Miss Burney or Boswell to give to the scenes and conversations of every-day life a kind of dramatic vividness. Caroline Fox was certainly not a literary artist; she was not even a born reporter. There is not throughout her pages a single vivid version of any of the numerous conversations in which she took so keen an interest. She does not, for the most part, tell us what her friends said, but (a quite different thing) what were the topics they talked about. Her literary deficiencies are, however, more than compensated for by the charm which her own nature exerted over all the persons with whom she came in contact. At Penjerrick every one was at his best. The sympathetic and religious side of John Mill's character developed itself freely as in a congenial atmosphere. Carlyle seems to have got free for a moment from the tendency to identify the disorder of his own digestion with the general disorder and unsatisfactoriness of the world. Mrs. Carlyle and her husband are seen in a gayer, and certainly more amiable, aspect than that in which they have been represented to the world in some recent publications. "She plays all manner of tricks on her husband, telling wonderful stories of him in his presence, founded almost solely on her bright imagination; he, poor man, panting for an opportunity to stuff in a negation, but all to no purpose. Having cut him up sufficiently, she would clear the course. They are a very happy pair." In the company of Caroline Fox and of her family, John Sterling poured out all the stream of his bright and easily-flowing thoughts. Every one, in short, felt that Penjerrick was the home of love, goodness, and life, and accordingly brought forth all that was bright and lovable in his own character.

Hence we see Sterling in Caroline Fox's 'Journals' for the first time as he really was, and feel that we understand the answer to what must be to many people rather a puzzling riddle. What was it that made him the darling or the hero of friends in many ways so much more remarkable than himself? Hare wrote one life of him, Carlyle wrote a second, John Mill was all but writing a third; yet none of Sterling's friends could have maintained, or did maintain, that in his short existence he did any work of permanent importance. No one who looks at the writings which he has left, and which, unfortunately for his reputation, have been published, can maintain that he was a man of first-rate ability, or that he was a person of anything like genius. It were simply ridiculous to put him in the same line with Mill or Carlyle. Yet for all this he excited not only affection, but warm admiration, in the minds of friends who ought to have been no mean judges of character. The power of doing this is just as much a talent or a capacity as any other endowment, and the problem to be solved is, What was the "something" about Sterling which gave him his peculiar attractiveness? Any one of the sketches of Sterling's conversation given by Caroline Fox goes a good way to explain the character of the fascination

which he exercised over his friends. Take this passage, which is merely one out of a score:

"Sterling came and walked with us to Pennance Cave on a day as brilliant as his own imagination. Some of our subjects were the doctrine of Providential interference and the efficacy of prayer as involved in this question. His view of prayer is that you have no right to pray for any outward manifestations of Divine favor, but for more conformity of heart to God, and more desire after the imitation of Christ. He would not, however, dogmatize on this subject, but would that every one should act in this matter (as in every other) according to conscience. He views sincerity as the grand point, and a sincere, however erroneous, search after truth will be reviewed with indulgence by the Father of spirits. Spinoza is an illustrious example—a truly good, conscientious, honest man, who recognized a Deity in everything around him, but omitted in his system the idea of a presiding and creating God."

Now, the notable point in this version, or abstract, of Sterling's talk—and the same thing holds true of all Caroline Fox's reports of his conversations—is that it does not contain a trace of the "brilliant imagination" attributed to him by his friends. But it does show that he possessed certain qualities which account for the admiration he excited among those who loved him. He was clearly a man intensely interested in all the moral and religious questions of the time. He was, we take it, full of life. He easily received and reproduced the ideas which, as the expression goes, were "in the air." He shared to the full the reaction against the dogmatism which, under different forms, had characterized the orthodoxy no less than the unorthodoxy of the eighteenth century. He was one of the earliest of "sympathetic" talkers and writers who have swayed public opinion during the last forty years. He was one of the first of that class of men, much more numerous now than in 1840, who found it impossible to remain clergymen, and yet cherished feelings and aspirations very different from those which have marked "infidels" of the type, say, of James Mill. He had ceased to belong to the Church, yet he was in many ways, in character, a clergyman. There is something, in fact, almost humorous in his habit of laying down the law or dogmatizing upon matters about which he could have known no more than other people—that is to say, very little at all. There was nothing on which he had not a view, and his views were, we doubt not, expressed with the fervor of sympathy and belief, and in vivid if not in eloquent language. When to all this we add that Sterling died young, so as to leave to the imagination of his friends the power of picturing to themselves all that he might have accomplished had his life been lengthened, we can well understand why he left behind him not only affectionate regrets, which his lovableness undoubtedly deserved, but also a reputation for something like genius, to which he assuredly had no claim. "Whom the gods love die young," and the greatest blessing of youthful death is to leave with those who loved one the illusions still possible as long as experience has not given the lie to the expectations of affection. John Mill, Thackeray, and Carlyle were all, we believe, of Sterling's circle. Each of these men has shown the world what he could do, and has left his mark on the age. But, having had the opportunity of showing what they could do, they have of necessity also betrayed the limits of their powers, and did not, we suspect, leave among such friends as survived them anything like the feeling of loving admiration which surrounded with a halo the memory of Sterling.

However this may be, it is from Caroline Fox's 'Journals,' far more surely than from either the prosaic memoir of Hare or the unsatisfactory life by Carlyle, that candid readers will obtain a true picture of a man whose chief claim to be remembered lies in the strangeness of his having obtained posthumous fame without having produced any of the works, or done any of the acts, by which a place is generally gained in the memory of the world. We have purposely insisted upon the light thrown by Caroline Fox on his character, because this affords a striking illustration of the feature in her 'Journals' which will be found of most interest by ordinary readers. Of the hundreds who have read or will read them, by far the greater number will, naturally enough, value them because of the information they give us about men such as Mill and Carlyle. A limited body of more thoughtful students will perhaps find that Caroline Fox's own character is of more interest than that even of the most celebrated among the men who enjoyed her friendship. Persons who feel in this way will regret that for once the writer of a diary, and a woman whose whole soul must have been occupied with religious thoughts and feelings, seems to have been too little of an egotist to care to record much about herself. You feel Caroline Fox's charm not from anything she writes about herself, but from the way in which her nature elicited the love and confidence of all who came across her. Nor can you separate the writer of the 'Journals' from the circle in which she lived. Her father, her brother, her sister—all form part with herself of the home at Penjerrick. Quakerism was there seen in its most attractive aspect, and not for the first time won the sympathy of men who, like Mill, had but little belief in the doctrines either of Quakerism or of any other religious creed.

Indeed, the second source of interest possessed by this work lies in the thoughts which it suggests as to the relation between Quakerism and modern life. There is in this matter something strange, not to say paradoxical. In its origin, Quakerism appeared to be one of the wildest developments of the spiritual turmoil generated by the religious contests of the seventeenth century. To Cromwell, Baxter, or Bunyan, George Fox and his followers must have seemed fanatics whose eccentricities and errors brought discredit on the cause of Puritanism. Cromwell's statesmanlike largeness of mind might warn him that Quakers were no subjects for persecution or punishment; but Cromwell, or any man of Cromwell's time, would have utterly disbelieved a prophet who had foretold that the disciples of George Fox were the only Puritan sect who would be able to ally themselves with the thoughts, and to a certain extent to acquire the sympathy and share the feelings, of the approaching eighteenth century. Yet this has in fact been the case. The Calvinism of the Protector and of Bunyan is, for practical purposes, a thing of the past. Quakerism may be about to perish as a special creed; but, if it should perish, it will not have lived without having produced a permanent effect on English thought and feeling. Moreover, once and again, and notably in the case of Mill and Voltaire, Quakerism has been proved to have for men who would scarcely call themselves Christians an attraction hardly possessed by any other form of Christianity. As you consider the relation between John Mill and the "Friends" at Penjerrick, you see, to a certain extent, in a particular case, the explanation of a more general phenomenon. Quakerism had three or four points of contact or of alliance with the general spirit of the eighteenth century. A Quaker might believe—as, no doubt, many Quakers have believed—most of the dogmas of orthodox Protestantism; but every one can see at a glance that no dogma is an essential part of Quakerism in the same way in which certain doctrines or dogmas are essential parts of Calvinism or of Roman Catholicism. A Deist, a Freethinker, or a Quaker could, on different grounds, and no doubt in a somewhat different sense, agree in the belief that dogmas were not of the essence of religion. Quakerism, again, was a creed of toleration. We have almost forgotten the extent to which the philosophic and political movement of the eighteenth century was a reaction and protest against religious persecution. On this point Voltaire was not only in name, but in reality, in perfect sympathy with every Quaker. Freedom from the spirit of dogma, and the religious belief in toleration, made it specially easy for Quakers to accept the results of scientific inquiry. Robert Were Fox (Caroline Fox's father) was an investigator respected and admired by the leading scientific men of his day. Penjerrick was not the place where any voice would be raised to check inquiries into the secrets of nature. This, it must be remembered, meant a good deal more in 1835 than in 1882. Quakerism, lastly, was from the first intimately allied with humanity, and philanthropy was the real religion of the eighteenth century.

In this, more than in any other single point, lay the difference between Quakerism and Calvinistic Puritanism. The Puritans, Macaulay has taught the world, denounced bear-baiting, not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators. The dictum goes a good deal nearer the truth than most epigrams. It at any rate hits one of the weak points of a creed as noble and sincere as that which inspired the 'Pilgrim's Progress.' The best of Calvinists were too much impressed both with the depravity of human nature and with the terrors of the world to come to cultivate with effect virtues, like "humanity," which, as the very name imports, are developments of the good side of man's character, or to devote themselves to the practical improvement of the world as it exists. From this fault Quakerism was free, and could therefore easily ally itself with philosophic philanthropy, which aimed at the improvement of mankind, and believed with only too confident a faith in the perfectibility of human nature. Quakerism, in short, developed exactly those features of Christianity which suit the spirit of an age of peace, of industry, and of humanity. Houses like Penjerrick were to men like Mill spiritual resting-places, where they could see Christian sentiment and faith in full sympathy with the objects aimed at by enlightened philanthropy.

Respect for truth, nevertheless, requires that we should note the fact that the paradox of Quakerism does not end with the fact of the alliance between the teaching of George Fox and the philanthropy of the eighteenth century. No one can, we think, doubt that Quakerism does not promise to become the creed of the future. Many of its peculiar tenets have assuredly been imbibed by men who could never be called Quakers. Even while the bombardment of Alexandria is, so to speak, ringing in our ears, every one who cares to reflect will admit that in England the spirit of moral Quakerism is making way among statesmen. The industrial states of the world are slowly, but surely, throwing off the liking for war derived from what may be termed military ages. But for all this, it is pretty certain that Quakerism will find difficulty in holding its own as a religious creed. Of the theological or anti-theological beliefs which may menace Quakerism, this is scarcely the place to speak. A fact more easy to deal with is, that Quakerism depends for its very existence on a condition of things which could not be produced by a body of men who honestly practised the doctrines avowed by the Society of Friends. Civilized society rests at bottom on force. You may avoid wars, but you

could never be at peace unless you kept up an army; and those who fancy they would be willing to disband the Army and the Navy hardly imagine that we could dispense with the police. Yet a constable is little else than a soldier in plain clothes. The early Christians, we shall be told, would not take part in war and lived in a spirit of Quakerism. The fact is doubtful; but were the fact granted, one may well point out that the *pax Romana* secured by the arms of Rome was almost a necessary condition for the growth and development of the early Christian Church. This account of a conversation between Caroline Fox and F. D. Maurice is at least worth the careful consideration of those who believe that a civilization built up by war, and depending for its existence on the use of force, will, or can, ultimately adopt the whole doctrine of Quakerism:

"Stumbled somehow on war. 'Won't the world some day come to think with us?' quoth I. 'They will come to think rightly,' was his reply, 'no doubt, but perhaps very differently to you or I.' 'But would any nation dare to attack another which resolves under no circumstances to do them anything but kindness?' 'Well, I find that whenever I am most right, I may always expect to be most bullied, and this, I suppose, will go on; it brings home to one very strongly the meaning of the words, "Woe unto you when all men speak well of you."'"

RECENT POETRY.

An American stage-manager said, the other day, that all the manuscript plays offered to him might be classified as translations, imitations, or nightmares. To begin our recent poetry with the nightmare class, we must give the first place to 'Cagliostro: A Dramatic Poem in Five Acts,' by Edward Doyle (New York: W. B. Smith & Co.). Here is a book written apparently with a serious purpose, and seriously dedicated by the author to his two sisters. It seems to be designed to expose spiritualism, but its wildness is so extreme as to make even spiritualist literature seem sane. To call it a nightmare is, after all, flattery; it seems like a hundred pages of *delirium tremens*. Perhaps the least crazy thing about it is the list of *dramatis personæ*, and yet this begins as follows:

"*Judge Guilderbury*—An Abraham or Jepthah.
Col. Geo. Guilderbury—A logical Materialist.
Salvation Plover—Gen. Willard's personator.
Dr. Empedocles Squigginson—A Medium and Builder of the New Motor, the Physical Savior of the Race.
Alfred Templeton—A Clergyman.
Cagliostro—The Inspirer of the New Motor and the Second Coming, and the Spirit of John Keats.
Patsy—An unprogressed Spirit and the Bishop."

—and so on. There is not much choice in the scenes, but the following perhaps is as lively as any. It must be explained that *Patsy*, here the chief performer, is based upon a spirit described in Rev. Charles Beecher's book—one who "told Professor Phelps that he was in hell and liked pumpkin-pie" (p. 41). This delicate Ariel disports himself as follows, amid a circle of the principal people in the play:

"*Dr.* Spirit, convince him—gently!
Judge (whiningly). A big idiot
Indeed! Was not the chair upon your head,
The elbow-plucking, and my fall enough?
Col. (releasing Doctor, and turning on Judge). Drunk! crazy! trash! (Patsy blows a fish-horn at the Colonel's ear, and around his neck puts a string of bull-frogs.)
Judge. Oh!
Col. You damned juggler! making
Of me a target? (Rushes at Doctor, but stops, having flour dashed into his face by Patsy, who then wipes it off with a blacking-brush.)
Judge. Blinded, like Saint Paul,
By lightning.
Plover. Flour, Judge. Colonel, give it up.
You cannot hold the cramping battery out.
(Patsy flings torpedoes at the Colonel's feet.)
Col. Hell and damnation! If all Presidents—
(Pinched on shoulders and legs alternately by Patsy, who rises to a great height, drops, and sometimes plays dog. The Colonel's rubbing and snatching with both hands on all sides become desperate, his language more and more emphatic. Plover and the Judge, in whose faces Patsy occasionally fillips beans, step about lively, and the Doctor, folding his arms, smiles.)
All Senators—all Representatives—
Chief Justices, with their associates—
Dr. He goes a-crabbing with two bursted nets."
(Pp. 46–7.)

On the whole, if there is any one who wishes to test for an hour what De Quincey calls "the pains of opium" without any of its pleasures, it can be done very cheaply by the purchase of this little book.

It seems unkind to class among the nightmares a work entitled 'Abraham Lincoln, the Type of American Genius: an Historical Romance,' by Rufus Blanchard (New York: C. L. Woodward); but could the excellent President here named have lived to read his own obituary, he certainly would have extracted some fun from it. The book is an octavo volume of 150 pages, luxuriously printed. All but about twenty of these pages are devoted to the supposed preliminaries of his birth—these antecedents comprising a survey of American colonization, of the French and Indian wars, and of half-a-dozen related families. But, as the family names are never given, and as we know the performers only as Alfred and Sarah, William and William, jr., it is very difficult to trace the genealogies. The people also change their names a good deal, and there is generally an attending chorus of fairies. The leading hero is a typical New England youth, who goes West, leaving at home his first love, described as follows:

"Grace was a child but seven years old;
Her hair was colored almost gold,
And hung in many a velvet fold,

"With bluish ribbons neatly tied,
Or curled above her forehead wide
In cowlicks, one on either side.

"Her dimpled cheeks were faintly stained
With mottlings like the lilies grained,
Which nature's varied hand had trained" (p. 27).

This was the first love; but the second was an Indian girl, whose name alone seemed to promise domestic endearments that should be sweet and very prolonged. Her father was the chief Wabunsie:

"His daughter's name was Gheezhigneenwateen,
The same who'd crossed Chicago's portage green—
The Indian lassie spoken of before,
Who, with her father, visited this shore
To see the world, like any other belle,
In trading marts where people buy and sell.
In this respect, all belles are much the same,
Of every nation and of every name" (p. 54).

The hero weds the Indian maid with the resounding name, and thenceforth this appellation flows as freely through the poem as if it were Helen or Mary. Perhaps the husband grows weary of pronouncing it, for he deserts his wife at last and weds another, who has no more sonorous name than Permilla: she is mentioned occasionally as "his distinguished wife Permilla." She is attended by supernatural visitants:

"And as she from the field withdrew,
Ten thousand fairies round her flew:
Unheard, unseen to mortal view,
As round her way they hovered.

"Outside this group of flying fays,
Two angels in the mystic maze
In silence on Permilla gaze,
As slowly she retired" (p. 123).

It is this Permilla who, if we rightly unravel the web of *dramatis personæ*, is the ancestress and guardian angel of Abraham Lincoln; and the last twenty pages are devoted to his life and death. The author of the "historical romance" is Mr. Rufus Blanchard, who has also published (at Wheaton, Ill.) several works on the history of the Northwest.

We are not passing wholly out of the nightmare class when we mention 'Esther: a Romance,' by Charles De Kay (New York: D. Appleton & Co.). We must own to finding it a very unattractive book, since it is not merely fatiguing, like the prolonged Eastern romances of Southey, but unites with this trait a certain unwholesomeness of flavor, not removed by an evident sincerity of purpose, this being evinced in the dedication, "to the great shade of Darwin and the lofty spirit of Emerson." The author asserts in his preface that "the volume, though Oriental in cast, is American in motive"; but this motive is hidden so deeply that it is rather difficult to find. The metre has a certain character of its own, the long, eight-lined stanzas being rather pleasingly relieved by a sort of tag or appendix of two short lines at the end of each, somewhat resembling those introduced by Halleck in each verse of "The Field of the Grounded Arms." It is fair to say that Mr. De Kay's long poems are less whimsical than his short ones, and that this volume is less wayward and more readable than its predecessor, 'The Vision of Nimrod'; and, possibly, the third vision which he promises—that of 'Abram'—may, like the third olive, create the required relish in the consumer.

But why cannot our American bards give us narrative poems which shall be attractive as well as imaginative, like the new volume of Irish legendary poems by Aubrey de Vere? There can be no more discouraging material, to the ordinary reader and in ordinary hands, than the old Irish traditions; they are thought as unpromising as Old-Testament themes or those founded on the American Indians. But in the hands of Aubrey de Vere they become at once heroic and graceful, full of striking deeds and tender and poetic fancies. 'The Foray of Queen Meave, and Other Legends of Ireland's Heroic Age' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.), is a volume which holds and enchants the reader, however incredulous as to the past glories of the Green Isle; and those who have looked with wonder upon the unprinted masses of early Irish literature in the library of Trinity College, Dublin, must be glad of anything which does justice to the spirit of an almost forgotten civilization. "The Foray of Queen Meave" is no doubt the most powerful of these fragments; but "The Children of Lir" is the tenderest and most touching—a legend of four royal children, transformed for nine centuries into wild swans, and relieved from their doom only by the coming of St. Patrick, whose first converts they were. The same legend has been rendered into prose by Professor O'Curry, and other tales of the same class have been handled with well-known success by Sir Samuel Ferguson.

'The Book of the Dead,' by George H. Boker (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.), might almost have been classed among the nightmares in respect to its painful qualities. The author's aim seems to be to do for vengeance what Tennyson did for friendship and Petrarch for love; and he chants its various aspects through a hundred poems. But the effect of such a volume is to make it seem more dangerous to be a friend of Mr. Boker's than an enemy; for the nameless enemy does not suffer, while the book for the first time reveals to us that some one near and dear to Mr. Boker has been subject to grievous imputations. Is it not better to let those charges rest under death's seal of silence?

In 'A Prairie Idyl, and Other Poems' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), we find no such painful demonstrations, but an innocent tale marked by the great merit of local coloring. The author does not sing of the skylark, as even Mr. Aldrich did the other day, but his scenery and properties are all of the prairie. Why is it that, when thus faithful in regard to external nature, he should still have that habit which lends a false note to so much Western poetry,

and should give high-flown names to his personages? If he wishes to make a poem about croquet, it is very well; but why should not the performers be plain James and Anne, instead of Roland and Christabel? We note, also, that he has borrowed the title of a poem from one by "H. H.," and has called it "Love's Largess." In 'A Red-Letter Day, and Other Poems,' by Lucius Harwood Foote (Boston: A. Williams & Co.), we have also some good local coloring, East and West, but this writer, too, gives us too much of Ginevra and Floribel. Tried by this same standard of local coloring—a standard which it is essential to apply to every national literature in its dawning—we find Mr. George Houghton's 'Niagara, and Other Poems' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) far more attractive than his Norse epics; we find Harriet Paine's pretty and skilfully-imitated 'Bird-Songs of New England' (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) to outweigh a library of sonnets on the nightingale; and Mr. Chas. H. Phelps's little volume of 'Californian Verses' (San Francisco: The Californian Publishing Co.) to be worth many such labored poems on exotic themes as Mr. Nowlan's 'Eadburga, Queen of Wessex' (Boston: M. H. Keenan). Not that an American poet need confine himself to home material, but he shows a want of poetic instinct when he fails to recognize its value. When it comes to aboriginal Indian subjects, they are hard to deal with, no doubt, but Mrs. Martha Perry Lowe has certainly added new interest to Chief Joseph's oft-told tale by her versified narrative, with its well-chosen illustrations ('The Story of Chief Joseph': Boston: D. Lothrop). Nor would we churlishly deprive young poets of those universal themes of passion which scarcely need a local setting; themes that are handled with some real feeling and with some strains savoring of affectation in 'The Life of a Love, in Songs and Sonnets,' by N. M. Sedarté (New York). There is a good deal of Rossetti in this thin volume, but there is power and promise also. In 'From Daybreak to Twilight,' by Charlotte H. Coursen and Edith R. Crosby (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), there is much true feeling, with a simplicity and smoothness that afford pleasure, even if they do not promise much more.

It is long since any volume by a wholly new poet has been marked by a single poem so strong and concentrated as "The King's Musketeer," in 'The Defence of the Bride, and Other Poems,' by Anne Katharine Green (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). The verses from which the volume takes its title have something of the same vigor, and their more sing-song measure might make them more attractive for recitation; but they are far more melodramatic and less original in plot. "The King's Musketeer" tells its story tersely and powerfully, and is as absolutely objective as Browning. The author's taste inclines to strong situations, based on the incidents of war, and her verses are rarely open to the charge of tameness. Nor are the verses of Mrs. Blake tame—'Poems by Mary E. Blake (M. E. B.)': Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.—but they are quite unlike the dramatic and martial strains of Mrs. Green, being, indeed, mostly domestic and thoughtful, and celebrating the charms of children, especially, in a very wholesome and motherly way. There are some poems suggested by the War for the Union, also, which thoroughly represent the wife's and mother's side; and it would not be easy to find that aspect of the war more stirringly touched than in her "Waiting for the News." She is evidently a Roman Catholic, and her volume is a good refutation of the delusion of those who still think that to be Roman Catholic is necessarily to be un-American.

The volume of Bret Harte's collected 'Poetical Works,' including the drama of the "Two Men of Sandy Bar" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), revives the yet unsettled problem of his place in literature, and makes the reader wonder, as he examines the thick volume, how much of commonplace can be permanently kept afloat by four or five strong and original poems. Most of the pages of this volume, read at a distance of some years from their first appearance, leave that bad taste in the mouth of which Charlotte Brontë complained in French novels; and the inclusion between the same covers of the heavy and vulgar drama leaves the memory of the reader filled to repletion with coarse and vicious personages, almost unrelieved by anything cleaner or more refined. And these repulsive figures are so dear to their author that they threaten to eclipse all the others he has created, and leave room for doubt whether his reputation in his own land will really be more solid and lasting than that of "Joaquin" Miller.

Among recent English publications, we note a dainty volume, 'Songs and Rhymes, English and French,' by Walter Herries Pollock (London: Remington & Co.). Mr. Pollock is the younger brother of Hon. Frederick Pollock, well known through his 'Spinoza' and 'Leading Cases'; and the poet himself is known as a journalist, and as the joint author of several volumes of fiction, whose authorship he shared with his accomplished mother, Lady Pollock. We are constrained to say that there is a stronger touch in his prose than in his poetry, the latter consisting mainly of agreeable *vers de société*, and rarely rising beyond that level. Yet there is certainly much of concentrated power in this brief dramatic summary:

"A CONQUEST.

"I found him openly wearing her token;
I knew that her troth could never be broken;
I laid my hand on the hilt of my sword,
He did the same, and spoke not a word.
I bade him confess his villainy;
He smiled, and said: 'She gave it me.'
We searched for seconds; they soon were found;
They measured our swords and measured the ground;
To save us they would not have uttered a breath;
They were ready enough to help us to death.
We fought in the midst of a wintry wood,
Till the fair, white snow was red with his blood:
But his was the victory, for, as he died,
He swore by the rood that he had not lied" (p. 60).

A delightful book is 'A Garland from Greece,' by George Francis Armstrong, M.A. (London: Longmans, Green & Co.). It has in it more of the flavor of the Orient than any volume of poems since Lord Houghton's 'Palm Leaves.' Its author is one of two brothers—Irishmen, if we mistake not—who have published a good many volumes. A large part of the merit of this work lies in the choice of subjects, but the treatment is very vigorous, and the "Brigand of Parnassus" and "Last Sortie from Mesolonghi" are especially fresh and fine. There is a poem on "The Satyr" which was perhaps suggested by Maurice de Guérin's fine description of the Centaur, and is worthy to be read in connection with it. There is also one poem which is not of Greek origin, but has an extraordinary depth of analysis and emotion; it is entitled "Time the Healer."

But, after all, not one of these books of poetry, whether English or American, has the interest that attaches to the little volume which bears to us the last poems of Longfellow, 'In the Harbor; Ultima Thule—Part 2' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This interest lies not so much in the total poetic contents of the book—for these, in truth, are very unequal—as in the few closing poems, grouped together as "personal." Scarcely ever in his whole series of publications has Mr. Longfellow brought us so near to himself. There is here a strength of touch and a meditative depth which make these closing sonnets a key to the very heart of the writer. "My Books" sets the poet face to face with the fact that his day of productive work is over; in "Victor and Vanquished" he looks death itself in the eyes; and in the closing poem (dated January 17, 1882) he transfers his work to some bard of the future, in a strain as sweet and noble as ever closed the music of an earthly harp:

"POSSIBILITIES.

"Where are the poets unto whom belong
The Olympian heights: whose singing shafts were sent
Straight to the mark, and not from bow half bent,
But with the utmost tension of the thong?
Where are the stately argosies of song,
Whose rushing keels made music as they went
Sailing in search of some new continent,
With all sail set, and steady wind and strong?
Perhaps there lives some dreamy boy, untaught
In schools, some graduate of the field or street,
Who shall become a master of the art,
An admiral sailing the high seas of thought,
Fearless and first, and steering with his fleet
For lands not yet laid down in any chart."

ELLIS'S FIRST CHURCH IN BOSTON.

History of the First Church in Boston, 1630-1880. By Arthur E. Ellis. With an introduction by George E. Ellis. Illustrated. Boston: Hall & Whiting.

THIS work is the enlargement of a lecture pertaining to the celebration of the 250th anniversary of the organization of the First Church in Boston. An introduction, in the nature of an essay, by Rev. Dr. George E. Ellis, fills seventy-two pages, and treats of the founding of the Puritan church and the Puritan commonwealth, of the legal obligations binding together the church and the commonwealth, and of the social ties which were the bases of church government. Dr. Ellis is also to be credited with the direction and supervision of the entire work, "from beginning to end." Under such able direction, it could not be difficult for Mr. Arthur Ellis to produce an interesting book. Since its gathering in 1630, the First Church has had seventeen settled ministers. John Wilson, John Cotton, John Norton, John Davenport, James Allen, John Oxenbridge, Joshua Moodey, John Bailey, Benjamin Wadsworth, Thomas Bridge, Thomas Foxcroft, Charles Chauncy, John Clarke, William Emerson, John L. Abbot, Nathaniel L. Frothingham, Rufus Ellis—all eminent for piety and learning, and some, in their day, the absolute controllers of the religious thought of New England—make up the shining roll of its pastors and teachers. The lives and actions of these ecclesiastics are described by Mr. Ellis with fair particularity. Necessarily, he has made use of the works of previous historians, such as Winthrop's Journal and Emerson's 'History of the First Church,' brought down to 1811, and for his indebtedness to these he makes acknowledgment without stint. The illustrations consist mainly of portraits of the clergymen (presumably of all procurable), and views and plans of the notable church buildings.

The first meeting-house of the society, erected in 1632, was on the plot of ground now covered by "Brazer's Building" in State Street. Its cost, with a parsonage, is set down at £120. In 1640 the house had become too small for the accommodation of the congregation, and a new one was put up on the lot where the "Rogers Building" now stands, in Washington Street, the actual cost being £1,000. This was destroyed by a fire "occasioned by the carelessness and intemperance of a strange woman" in 1711, for half a century afterward called the "great fire," as it swept away the finest part of Boston. From the ashes of the second church grew the famous "Brick," finished for occupancy in 1713 at an outlay of £3,849 8s. 1d. Nearly a century later (in 1808) the society removed to the corner of Summer and Chauncy Streets, and once again, in 1868, to the corner of Berkeley and Marlborough Streets; the existing edifice, the charges upon which amounted to $325,000, being justly regarded as one of the sightliest in the city.

Very serious were the controversies which disturbed the church through the first fifty years of its existence. Matters which, at this time, would not furnish an item for a busy newspaper reporter, to the eyes of the fathers of the colony assumed an appearance of awful importance. The Hutchinson controversy, resulting in the excommunication and banishment of several of the leading members of the church, serves to make up one of the most interesting chapters in the history of the Massachusetts colony. It shook Church and State to their very foundations; and yet, when one has read everything that has been written about it, he may still be wholly in the dark regarding what it was all about.

Only one case of witchcraft is recorded as occurring within the First Church. In 1657 Mrs. Anne Hibbins was tried, condemned, and executed for this crime. She was the widow of William Hibbins, one of the most serviceable magistrates of the colony. Mr. Norton, her minister, is reported to have said that she "was hanged for a witch only for having more wit than her neighbors; she having unhappily guessed that two of her persecutors, whom she saw talking in the street, were talking of her, which, proving true, cost her her life." All Mr. Norton's efforts to save the life of the poor woman were unavailing. At a later day Mr. Moodey appears to have met with some creditable success in setting free two accused Salem witches. Philip English, a worthy merchant, and his wife, an amiable, well-bred woman, inhabitants of Salem, were accused of witchcraft and lodged in the jail there, but for some reason or another were afterward removed to the Boston jail. The rest of the story is thus told by Mr. Ellis:

"Moodey was in Boston at the time, and determined to set them free. With this purpose in mind, he invited them to the church, and preached from the text: 'When they shall persecute you in one city, flee to another.' Following up his sermon with some wholesome advice of a more private nature, he finally induced them to make good their escape. The service which Moodey performed on this occasion was gratefully remembered by the descendants of English in after days, but at the time, so great was the displeasure which his conduct created, that it is said to have caused his removal from Boston back to Portsmouth."

Such evidences of "church discipline" as are afforded by the records "are fitly left where they are, perhaps in the interests of historical fidelity claiming a right to be preserved in manuscript, but with no warrant to be reproduced in print." We do not question the propriety of keeping out of print the record evidence of "grievous lapses from decorum and morality," and yet when, some pages further on, we read that from 1653 to 1656 there were "three males excommunicated for the sins of drunkenness and adultery," we can but wonder what stories the records could tell that must be "fitly left where they are."

A lesson in political economy may be gathered from the case of Robert Keayne, a merchant of wealth and position, the founder and first commander of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company. Keayne was "admonished by our pastor for selling his wares at excessive rates, to the dishonor of God's name, the offence of the General Court, and the public scandal of the country." This was an occurrence of 1639. Mr. Keayne had been fined by the deputies £200, and by the magistrates £100, but the last sum only was paid. When brought before the church for admonishment—(some of the members were urgent for his excommunication)—Mr. Keayne set up a partial defence, which gave Mr. Cotton an opportunity to expose the "false principles," and to give some "rules for trading" applicable thereto. Among the "false principles" we find:

"1. That a man might sell as dear as he can, and buy as cheap as he can. 2. If a man lose by casualty of sea in some of his commodities, he may raise the price of the rest. 3. That he may sell as he bought, though he paid too dear, and though the commodity be fallen. 4. That as a man may take the advantage of his own skill or ability, so he may of another's ignorance or necessity."

And these were the "rules for trading":

"1. A man may not sell above the current price—*i.e.*, such a price as is usual in the time and place, and as another, who knows the worth of the commodity, would give for it, if he wanted it; as that is called current money which every man will take. 2. When a man loseth in his commodity for want of skill, he must look at it as his own fault or cross, and therefore must not lay it upon another. 3. Where a man loseth by casualty of sea, or, etc., it is a loss cast upon himself by providence, and he may not ease himself of it by casting it upon another; for so a man should seem to provide against all providences, that he should never lose; but where there is a scarcity of the commodity, then men may raise their price; for now it is a hand of God upon the commodity, and not the person. 4. A man may not ask any more for his commodity than his selling price, as Ephron to Abraham, the land is worth thus much."

Mr. Ellis's view of the noted persecution of sectaries—Quakers, Baptists, etc.—is not an impartial one. He presents it as follows:

"The form of government attempted to be established by the colonists recognized not only the right, but the obligation, to ward off 'erratic spirits.' The laws of the colony were framed so as to keep 'police order' in religion. They recognized no distinction, save in kind, between religious and civil offences. In either case the offender might be fined, imprisoned, banished, whipped, put in the stocks, or hung. That our fathers made prompt use of these means of enforcing discipline, the records will amply testify. No punishment was too severe for the religious offender. They were especially violent in their opposition to the Quakers and Baptists. We have seen how far his zeal in this direction carried Norton. He was instrumental in, if not directly responsible for, the execution of the Quakers on Boston Common, through the violence of his attack on what he called their blasphemous beliefs. But while we do not defend the course they pursued, we must be careful not to judge men like Norton too hastily. Harsh as their conduct was, we generally find some excuse for it in the extremely exasperating behavior of those with whom they had to deal. The Quaker spirit of that day was very different from the temper of the modern Friend. Those who were called Quakers then would scarcely be recognized by that name today. Their nature was aggressive, and they courted persecution. Some of them reviled the magistrates, calling them 'just asses'; and others, under pretence of prophesying, appeared in public without clothing, or simply wrapped in sheets, with their faces smeared with black paint, like demons denouncing direful judgments on the colony. Such exhibitions were dangerous as well as repulsive, and well calculated to shock the nerves of sensitive people. The perpetrators had to be put down. If those who performed the task betrayed any undue zeal, we must bear in mind the perversity they encountered and the strict line of conduct they felt bound to pursue in dealing with it."

In how different a vein writes the Rev. William Emerson ('Historical Sketch of the First Church') when dealing with the same subject. He finds the persecutions "altogether unjustifiable on any principle of the Gospel or of common humanity. . . . The most unrighteous laws stared them [the Baptists] in the face; and the most villainous conduct was secretly practised to their mischief. This treatment of the Baptists was comparatively trivial to what the poor Quakers endured. They were subjects of reproach, scorn, buffeting, scourges, torture, and death. They were stripped of the clothes they wore, and robbed of the beds whereon they lay." Mr. Ellis says that "the perpetrators had to be put down." The perpetrators of what? Of calling the magistrates "just asses"? or appearing "like demons denouncing direful judgments on the colony"? The "dangerous and repulsive" exhibitions are mentioned by Mr. Ellis too indefinitely for direct contradiction. If they happened at all, they were the happenings of a time subsequent to the hanging of the Quakers, and subsequent to the death of John Norton. And we nowhere can find evidence that Norton was "directly responsible for the execution of the Quakers on Boston Common," or that he was "instrumental" to a greater degree than his fellow-clergymen, the magistrates, and the chief people. The powers had decreed that the Quakers "must be put down," and the cruel laws were passed and cruel punishments inflicted before the publication of Norton's 'Heart of New England Rent,' to which Mr. Ellis evidently refers when saying, "We have seen how far his zeal in this direction carried Norton." Wilson and Mitchell were even more violent than Norton "in their opposition to the Quakers."

Is it true that "the Quaker spirit of that day was very different from the temper of the modern Friend"? The question will admit of argument. It is mentioned as an interesting fact, and "highly creditable to the Christian temper of the Quakers of Dublin and vicinity, that, forgetful of injuries, they contributed liberally to the relief of the inhabitants of New England at a period of great public distress" (Mass. Historical Society Collections, 4th series, vol. viii., p. 56). In Increase Mather's diary the arrival of the vessel "sent by the Quakers in Dublin for those that were impoverished by the war here," is mentioned under the date of November 25, 1676. Another interesting fact, not to be overlooked here, is that at that very time the persecution of the Friends in New England was rigorously pursued. In 1677—to be particular, on the 4th of July—nine men and three women (Quakers) were arrested and whipped for no other cause than that of engaging in religious devotions at their ordinary place of meeting. Our local histories furnish convincing evidence that the "Quaker spirit of that day" was very similar to the "temper of the modern Friend"—that it was charitable and forgiving, even to an extreme degree.

From strict Calvinism the First Church gradually developed into Unitarianism, but the change was wrought without noticeable disturbance, and in these latter days it has enjoyed external as well as internal peace, and has taken the lead in many charitable works that greatly redound to the credit of the city. "Another century is yet before it."

Three in Norway. By Two of Them. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

THE incidents of a ten-weeks' fishing and shooting expedition are rather amusingly told in the neat volume before us, and every lover of camping-out life must delight in following the three young Englishmen to the Jotun-fjeld. In this wild and picturesque region they pitched their tent by lake Gjendin, some 3,000 feet above the sea, surrounded by the glaciers of the grandest mountains in Norway, and were only driven from their sport by the approach of winter, early in September. The trout-fishing in the lake and its outlet, the river Gjendinoset, was all that could be desired, and was particularly excellent at the time of the advent of the "Gjende-fly," an insect evidently more agreeable to the fish than to man, if we may believe the following description:

"The Gjende-fly has come, and he is only a wretched little black beast, like a very small, unenterprising, common or garden house-fly of Great Britain. He cannot fly decently; he is apparently devoid of sense; he has no moral, physical, or intellectual attributes for which a human being can learn to respect or love him; but—he *can crawl*. If he alights on the water,

it never occurs to him to rise again, and he allows the trout, mad with the excitement of a fortnight's prospective gluttony, to scoop him down their capacious throats by companies. If he enters your mouth, which he does with a numerous retinue every time you open it, retreat from that untenable position is the very last thing he would think of ; and with what may be a gleam of momentary intelligence he seems desirous of still further increasing his knowledge of the rest of your interior arrangements."

"If any one stuck up a rod near the river, in two minutes it looked like a black fir pole with a bunch on the top ; and John, who is a man of great entomological knowledge, spent some time in studying this phenomenon. He reported that the flies crawled up for fun, intending to jump off the top ring, but when they got up it was so much higher than they expected that they were all afraid to try, and those at the bottom and half-way up kept jeering at the top ones, and calling them names, and jostling them so much that they could not crawl down again. He also said that the swarm in the air was so dense that he wrote his name in it with his finger and it remained visible for nearly a minute."

"Probably it is difficult for a man to speak the exact truth with his mouth full of (f)lies."

The shooting was likewise excellent, and, with the help of Öla, the Norwegian guide, some successful reindeer-stalking was accomplished. The reindeer is almost the only inhabitant of the high mountain regions during the greater part of the year ; but during the summer months the cattle are driven to pasture at the "sœter" or mountain-farm, accompanied usually by one or two young girls, who remain to take care of them and drive them down again in the fall. The primitive simplicity of the people is well illustrated by the following extract :

". . . We pulled up at the door of a large sœter. Without knocking, Jens opened the door, and we walked in and struck a light. There was the usual fireplace and table, and in the further corner a bed, which, as we presently perceived, was occupied by two girls. This discovery embarrassed us a little ; but no one else, least of all the girls themselves, appeared to be at all disconcerted. . . . The elder one at once got out of bed and proceeded to dress, while her sister remained where she was, and soon fell asleep.

"When the dressing commenced, we, being innocent young bachelors, retired and remained outside till it was finished; but we do not believe she appreciated our delicacy at all.

"Then this poor girl, no doubt very tired after a hard day's work at cheese-making, proceeded to relight the fire, prepare coffee, and broil some venison for us. And just as we finished a hearty meal, Öla and Ivar arrived, so that she had to begin all over again for them. Finally, in spite of our remonstrances, she dragged her sister out of the bed, and insisted on our having it, while they went and slept in another building a few yards away. So John took the bed they had vacated, while Esau made a couch for himself in the cheese-room, and we slept the sleep of the hard-worked, virtuous, penniless wanderer.

"Verily, they have a better idea in Norway of true hospitality than in any other country under the sun."

The rich old farmer of Björlstad, with his "aquavit," is also a good specimen of Norwegian hospitality ; but we must refer those who wish to make his acquaintance to the book itself, which will be found very pleasant summer reading. It has a map of the Jotun fjeld and numerous woodcuts, and its appearance is very attractive.

The Stolen White Elephant, etc. By Mark Twain. Boston : James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

This volume contains most of Mr. Clemens's recent humorous contributions to the magazines, some of which are very well known, such as "Punch Brothers, Punch," "The Facts concerning the Recent Carnival of Crime in Connecticut," "On the Decay in the Art of Lying," "An Encounter with an Interviewer." "The Stolen White Elephant," which gives its name to the book, is a very elaborate piece of satire at the expense of the detective force of this city. In looking over the volume, the reader is struck with the fact that Mr. Clemens's humor is of such a universal and comprehensive character that it is very difficult to say in what its peculiarity consists. His eminent forerunner, Artemus Ward, had a certain literary *cachet* which Mr. Clemens lacks. His sketches were sketches of American life and manners, grotesque and absurd as you please, but still having a distinctly national flavor. It is hardly possible to say that Artemus Ward described life as he found it ; but there was a definite literary relation between life as he saw it around him and what he wrote which everybody recognized in his books. Mr. Clemens's humor, on the other hand, is American enough ; but his inventions, which he uses as a vehicle for it, are of no nationality. There is a kind of monstrosity about them which we remember in no other writer—a wild extravagance which is not simply that of exaggeration. No one but an American humorist would have thought of this termination of "The Recent Carnival of Crime in Connecticut":

"In conclusion, I wish to state, by way of advertisement, that medical colleges desiring assorted tramps for scientific purposes, either by the gross, by cord measurement, or per ton, will do well to examine the lot in my cellar before purchasing elsewhere, as these were all selected and prepared by myself, and can be had at a low rate, because I wish to clear out my stock and get ready for the spring trade" ;

but there is a wildness about it entirely individual. His "Legend of Sagenfeld," again, is a pleasant bit of humor, no more American than it is German, which might have been written by Hans Andersen, except that Andersen would perhaps not have made the sweepingly libellous statement with which, after explaining how the ass came to be the sacred animal of the kingdom, he adds : "Such is the legend. This explains why the mouldering image of the ass adorns all these old crumbling walls and arches; and it explains why, during many centuries, an ass was always the chief minister in that royal cabinet, just as is still the case in most cabinets to this day ; and it also explains why, in that little kingdom, during many centuries, all great poems, all great speeches, all great books, all public solemnities, and all royal proclamations always began with these stirring words : 'Wah . . . *he!*—wah . . . *he!*— wah-he !—wah-he—wah-he !'"

Essays from "The Critic." Boston : James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

The essays and sketches of which this volume is made up have been reproduced in the form of a book, "in the conviction that some, if not all, of them are, despite their brevity, of permanent literary value," and because some of the earlier numbers of the *Critic* are already out of print. The authors' names are appended to the essays, and comprise John Burroughs, Edmund C. Stedman, Walt Whitman, R. H. Stoddard, F. B. Sanborn, E. W. Gosse, and others. Mr. P. M. Potter's account of Alphonse Daudet will be found of some biographical interest ; Mr. Sanborn gives some specimens of Thoreau's unpublished poetry, and J. H. Morse writes on "The Boston Culture." John Burroughs has an essay on "Emerson and the Superlative," in which he insists that, while Emerson was opposed to the superlative in theory, he was himself a "master exaggerator, a lord of extremes, holding the zenith and nadir in his two hands." As if to bring home to the reader what he means by the real Emersonian exaggeration, he adds the following curious qualification of his first statement :

"But, at his best, his superlative runs the other way—runs to excess of truth rather than to excess of form. Without adjective or adverb, he reaches the superlative degree by the sheer projectile force of his verbs and nouns. It is the exaggeration of quality, not of quantity ; of essence, not of bulk. His sentences are a steam-chest : the force of expansion is there without the expansion ; the gas is held by an iron grip, and made to work. He praises a low style, moderate statement ; but there must be a good many pounds' pressure to the square inch in the low style that suits him. The rivet-heads must be ready to fly, only they must not fly on any account. Perfect control and moderation, though you are handling thunderbolts."

The Island of Nantucket: What it Was and What it Is. With maps of the Town and Island. Compiled by Edward K. Godfrey. Boston : Lee & Shepard. 1882.

This is a curious combination of town history, guide book, and advertising medium. The material is well selected for the demands of summer visitors, and is accurate so far as we can judge ; but the alphabetical arrangement (bringing in, for example, "Historical Sketches" between "Halls" and "Hotels") is not at all satisfactory. Who would think of the heading "Distinguished Nantucketers" for Lucretia Mott, Maria Mitchell, and Secretary Folger? Most inconsistently, the section "How to Get There," comes at the very beginning, before "Agents," instead of between "Hotels" and "Jail," as, according to the plan, it should. Apart from the absurd arrangement and the advertising part, which is of course of merely ephemeral value, the book is useful and entertaining. The intricate landed system described by us some years ago (see *Nation*, Jan. 10, 1878) will be found set forth here under the head "Commons." The author makes no mention, however, either here or under the head "Agriculture," of the practice, in the last century, of deciding every year, by a vote of the proprietors, which of the sections of land should be cultivated, and with what crop.

Demosthenes. By S. H. Butcher, M.A., Fellow and Prælector of University College, Oxford, etc. [Classical Writers. Edited by John Richard Green.] D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

Mr. Butcher has given, in 172 pages, an admirable sketch of the life and times of Demosthenes, with a classified list of his speeches. There is no author read in a college course who needs a commentary like this more than Demosthenes does ; and we should suppose that this volume would come largely into use as a text-book in connection with the works of Demosthenes. The introductory chapter, on "The Age of Demosthenes," contains in a condensed form a useful statement of the condition of things both in Athens and in Greece, as a whole, at the time that the orator appeared : for example, the financial and military organization of the city is clearly described. The volume ends with a few forcible sentences in justification of the policy of the great orator. In view of the decline and death of the Hellenic spirit in the next generation, Mr. Butcher says : "We may still feel grateful to one who, though it was in a losing cause, strove to arrest so sad a decadence."

A Manual of Sculpture. Egyptian, Assyrian, Greek, Roman. By George Redford, F.R.C.S. New York : Scribner & Welford. 1882.

This is another of those "Illustrated Art Hand-Books" which are so rapidly multiplying to meet the growing demand for superficial information. The subject is here treated under four heads. The first relates to technics, and describes the various materials and processes employed in sculpture. The second part treats of

the æsthetics of the subject, and is not very profitable reading. It contains a good deal of confused talk about the supposed superhuman character of the Greek ideal, and counts among the causes of decline in Greek sculpture the practice of portraiture. Then follows a general outline of the history of ancient sculpture; and finally an explanatory list, arranged alphabetically, is given of the most important existing examples. This last is perhaps the most useful part of the book for those who require such information.

Ghiberti and Donatello, with other Early Italian Sculptors. By Leader Scott. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

In this little book of 100 pages the story of early Italian sculptors from Niccolo Pisano to Michelozzo Michelozzi is told in brief outline. The author makes frequent reference to the works of the standard Italian authorities, and to Crowe and Cavalcasselle and to Perkins. The book may be of use as an introduction to more thorough study, especially to travellers in Tuscany, to whom it will afford rather more full, and perhaps more accurate, information than is to be obtained from the ordinary guide-books.

The Epoch of Reform, 1830–1850. [Epochs of Modern History.] By Justin McCarthy, M.P. Charles Scribner's Sons.

No better person could have been selected for the last chapters in English history than the author of 'A History of Our Own Time'; and his book, within the limits he has set himself, is acceptable and highly satisfactory. These limits are very narrow—twenty years of English history, and of only one phase of English history at that. We might add that considerably more than half the volume is given to the seven years of the reign of William IV. For the "reform movement" of William's reign, with its sequel in the first few years of Victoria's reign, this is a graphic and interesting sketch; but of the important foreign relations of England during this period we find hardly a word, and—for all his explanation—we cannot but think that the "Reform Epoch" ought at least to begin with the administration of Mr. Canning in 1827, even if we admit that it ended with the opening of the great series of European events that followed upon the usurpation of Louis Napoleon. It might be urged that the book is already large enough and none too detailed, so that a complete history of England during this period, or even a complete history of Reform from the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts to the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, would have been impracticable in a volume of this size. But everything depends upon proportion; and if Mr. Seebohm related the history of the Reformation in one of these volumes, and Mr. Gardiner that of the Thirty Years' War, surely these peaceful events might be compressed in the same degree.

Good as this book is, therefore, it does not meet the real need that the "Epochs" series ought to satisfy for the nineteenth century. These reforms are probably already the best-known events of the period since the fall of Napoleon; but the great series of events of which, as Mr. McCarthy shows in his first chapter, these formed a part, are very imperfectly known, and very hard to get at. A volume which should begin with the Holy Alliance and the Congress of Vienna, and trace that reaction in every country of Europe of which Mr. Canning's administration was one of the first signs, describing the group of revolutionary events which marked the year 1830, and again that which marked the year 1848, and so on, down to the final triumph of constitutional principles in Austria and other countries of the Continent—such a volume is much needed, and would form an appropriate conclusion to the "Epochs" series. The English Reform movement is only one chapter—perhaps the most important, certainly the one which comes nearest to us—in this greater march of progress. We must add that the volume before us, as is natural, contains no map, being, we believe, the only one of this series which does not; but a more serious want is that of an index. There is neither index nor table of contents; but, instead, a Chronological Table of Contents, which is simply a chronology of the events here described, with references to pages of the book. It is elaborately and well done, but, after all, does not fill the place of an index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annuaire Diplomatique et Consulaire. Supplément à l'Almanach de Gotha. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Boisen, H. B. Preparatory Book of German Prose. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1 10.
Coney Island Souvenir and Guide, 1882. Brooklyn: Lain & Co.
Gillet, J. A., and Rolfe, W. J. The Heavens Above: a Popular Handbook of Astronomy. Potter, Ainsworth & Co.
Godding, W. W. Two Hard Cases: Sketches from a Physician's Portfolio. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Gower, Lord R. Romney and Lawrence. [Biographies of the Great Artists.] Scribner & Welford.
Graff, J. F. "Graybeard's" Colorado. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.
Graham, A. J. The Little Teacher of Standard Phonography. A. J. Graham.
Harrison, J. A. Beówulf. I. Text: Edited from M. Heyne. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 45 cents.
Heard, F. E. A Concise Treatise on the Principles of Equity Pleading. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Hodgdon, Josephine E. Passages from the Works of William Hickling Prescott. [Leaflets from Standard Authors.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cts.
Howells, W. D. Their Wedding Journey. Illustrations by Hoppin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cts.
Howells, W. D. A Chance Acquaintance. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Kern, H. G. Mysteries of Godliness. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Littell's *Living Age*. Fifth Series. Vol. xxxviii. Boston: Littell & Co.
Luther at Wartburg Castle: A Reformation Story of 1521. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.
Martin, F. X. History of Louisiana from the Earliest Period. With Annals from 1815 to 1861. New Orleans: James A. Gresham.
McDonald, F. V. Notes Preparatory to a Biography of Richard Hayes McDonald, of San Francisco, Cal. Vol. i. Cambridge: University Press.
McGloin, F. Norodon, King of Cambodia. D. Appleton & Co.
McNally's System of Geography for Schools, Academies, and Seminaries. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1 50.
Moon, G. W. The Revisers' English: A Series of Criticisms. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Morgan, H. J. The Dominion Annual Register and Review, 1880–81. Montreal: John Lovel & Son.
Murray, D. C. A Model Father. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Regan, J. Manual of Guard Duty and Kindred Subjects. Harper & Bros.
Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon. 7th ed. Vol. i., Part 1. B. Westermann & Co.
Samson, G. W. The English Revisers' Greek Text Unauthorized. Cambridge: Moses King. 75 cents.
Seaside Resorts: Hand-Book for Health and Pleasure Seekers. 25 cents.
Seeley, J. R. Natural Religion. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Sharpless, I., and Philips, G. M. Astronomy for Schools and General Readers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Shepherd, Mrs. E. R. For Girls: a Special Physiology. Fowler & Wells. $1.
Spencer, H. Political Institutions. D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Spofford, Harriet P. The Marquis of Carabas. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Thurston, O. The Adventures of a Virginian. Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co. 75 cents.
Turner, D. W. Hints and Remedies for the Treatment of Common Accidents and Diseases. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Visitors' Guide to Saratoga Springs. Taintor Bros., Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Von Schiefner, F. A., and Ralston, W. R. S. Tibetan Tales, derived from Indian Sources. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $5.
Wells, D. A. Our Merchant Marine. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 17, 1882.

The Week.

THERE is no very good reason to suppose that Mr. S. W. Dorsey ever sent to President Garfield the remarkable letter which was published on Sunday, or that it was ever written during President Garfield's lifetime. There are some reasons for entertaining a contrary opinion. The letter is dated February 7, 1881. At that time Mr. Dorsey was accredited with an earnest desire to secure the appointment of Mr. "Clint" Wheeler as First Assistant Postmaster-General, and the famous Dorsey dinner, which was given on the 11th of February, four days later than the date of the alleged letter, was really a demonstration intended to help on that project. What Mr. Dorsey's reasons were for desiring to have a friend in that particular office are now tolerably well known. Moreover, as Dorsey knew all the facts (which have been slowly dragged into the light) of the Star-route robberies and his own connection therewith, he had particular reasons for wishing to be on friendly terms with the new President. But the letter now printed is impudent and insulting, and calculated to excite the ire of any self-respecting man holding the high responsibilities of the Presidential office. It tells him that he owes his election to "Conkling and Arthur." These, says Dorsey, are "the two men who elected you, with the aid of Grant." Not to follow their advice, he adds, is to "drive the last nail in your political coffin." Even coarser language is used. The rumors about MacVeagh and James going into the Cabinet are dismissed as "blathering talk" and "detestable rot." Is it probable that a man who had an important end to gain, and who was actually about to start for Mentor to carry his point—the newspapers of the day mention the fact that he did go there directly after the dinner—would have written a letter which would in all probability have closed the door against him? President Garfield was a high-spirited man, who could have had no illusions as to Dorsey. They had served in Congress together, and had lived not far from each other before Dorsey "carpet-bagged" from Ohio to Arkansas. To suppose that Dorsey would, under such circumstances, take on the airs of a baggage-smasher toward the newly-elected President, from whom he had favors to ask and punishment to fear, requires better evidence than the publication of a letter nearly a year after President Garfield's death.

Whether such a letter was really sent at the time it purports to have been written or not, its publication is plainly an appeal to the Stalwarts, including President Arthur, to save an old friend of the name of Dorsey, who fought valiantly and bled other people freely in a memorable crisis of the past. There appears to be nothing stirring the public mind just now upon which the alleged letter has any bearing or significance, except the trial of Dorsey himself and his "pards" in the Star-route business. The Washington newspaper which publishes this precious missive, and vouches for its genuineness, hints that it has more of the same sort, or perhaps of a worse sort, which may be forthcoming hereafter. Will not President Arthur take the hint?

The way in which the appointment of new clerks has been going in the departments at Washington reminds one of the most "halcyon and vociferous" days of the spoils system. It is reported from Washington that Senator Don Cameron "gets" eighteen clerks, Senator Logan seven, Representative White, from Kentucky, as many as twenty-one, and that the Stalwarts among the Senators and Representatives generally "get" a large majority of the whole lot. Of course there has been no examination of the new clerks by the Government at all. They have been taken simply upon the recommendation of their political backers, and there is, therefore, a good deal of appropriateness in using the expression that Senator Don Cameron "got" eighteen new clerks in the Pension Office. It must be assumed that Mr. Cameron has satisfied himself of the qualifications of "his" Government clerks. It is not probable that he put them through a competitive examination as to spelling, syntax, arithmetic, letter and abstract-writing and the like; but, as he is at present engaged in a rather doubtful political fight in Pennsylvania, he has undoubtedly selected "his" eighteen clerks very carefully, with a view to the good the favor bestowed upon them and their families within the circle of their influence will do him in this contest. We have no doubt he has been quite conscientious in that respect, and the Commissioner of Pensions may then see how he can get along with the eighteen new men. He may be sure that if one or more of them turn out badly, Senator Cameron will be promptly on hand to protect them against removal, on the conclusive ground that it would hurt him in his State; and so all round. To illustrate this method of appointment, suppose one of our great New York banks had a number of new officers and clerks to appoint, and it became known that Mr. "Clint" Wheeler "got" the chief bookkeeper, Mr. ex-Insurance Superintendent Smyth "got" the cashier, Mr. "Johnny" O'Brien "got" the paying teller, Mr. "Jake" Patterson "got" the receiving teller, and Mr. "Barney" Biglin "got" half a dozen clerks. How many business men would feel perfectly comfortable in doing business with that bank?

The refusal of Secretaries Lincoln and Teller to appoint women to any of the clerkships recently provided for by Congress has caused a good deal of excitement among the female applicants for places, and we hear of indignation meetings, resolutions, and the like. The Secretaries are reported to have answered that for the places just filled, or to be filled, women were generally not well fitted. The larger question whether appointments of any class are henceforth to be given to women in those two departments seems to have been left open. It is probable that if the opinions of all the department, bureau, and division chiefs were polled, they would be found to be very far from being unanimous. Some of these functionaries would insist that, on the whole, men are more reliable and steady workers than women; that the women are kept away from their desks by indisposition much more frequently, and, therefore, give a lower average of time to the Government; that they are usually fitted only for certain kinds of duties and will fail in the discharge of others; that it is more difficult to keep them in good discipline; that they are more frequently, more persistently, and more unreasonably asking for favors and indulgences; that many of them are apt incessantly to trouble their superior officers by bringing down upon them men of influence, such as Congressmen and prominent politicians, to urge their applications for favors or to protect them against the consequences of their neglect of duty or other shortcomings; and, finally, that the presence of so many women in the departments has given occasion to much intrigue and scandal. A searching and impartial investigation of the matter would probably show that there is some truth in all these objections, but it would show also that there is much to be said on the other side.

The original reason for the employment of women in the Government service no longer exists: there are no wives or daughters to be provided for on the ground that their husbands or fathers are in the war, and the number of real soldiers' widows and orphans who are fit for office-work and who are not otherwise provided for, is small. But taking a larger view of the matter, it is certain that we should open to women all fields of useful activity which they can efficiently and properly fill; and it will not be denied that there are many things in the Government departments which women can do as well as men, and some which they can do even better. It would be difficult to find better copyists than they are, and, unless we are misinformed, it is believed in the Treasury that as counters and assorters of paper currency they cannot be excelled. In the discharge of those higher duties which require a certain degree of legal knowledge or mathematical faculty, or the exercise of accurate judgment and reasoning power, men are found in the departments to show on an average more fitness than women. But some women—although their number is not large—have proved very efficient as accountants, examiners of claims, keepers of books and records, and so on; and if a proper system of examination and probation be introduced which gives women an equal chance with men, it will not be difficult to pick out those of superior merit, and to assign them to corresponding duties. It is certainly true that there have been some

scandals which would not have happened had no women been employed in the public offices; but it is also true that the number of these scandals has been comparatively small, and that they might altogether have been avoided had a proper method of appointment been followed. Appointment by favor, and particularly by favor to those who recommended women for places, has been the source of the evil.

Dr. James McCosh, President of Princeton College, has written a short but forcible letter to the *Times* on civil-service reform. He discusses the movement, not merely from a theoretical, but also from a practical point of view. He lived in Great Britain when the reform "was discussed and carried there." He was a member of a commission "appointed by the crown to organize the system" on its first application to the Indian administration. Before he quit Great Britain he "saw the good effects that followed immediately and visibly" upon the adoption of the measure. The question, therefore, does not present itself to him as a speculative one. He looks at it as an experiment already made with great success on the other side, and likely to prove as successful here. Dr. McCosh urges the continued agitation of the subject by thinking and educated men. While he does not favor the discussion of such questions in the pulpit, he believes that ministers as citizens may profitably consider it, and that "colleges should speak out loudly and openly both by their officers and students."

The testimony hitherto taken by the Tariff Commission is that of interested witnesses, but it will go far to inform the Commissioners of the abuses and absurdities of the existing system, if they wish to inform themselves. The frequent contradiction of one witness by another helps to establish the truth. For example, last Thursday a representative of the manufacturers of saddlery hardware said that the investment of millions of dollars in the business had been made under the present tariff; that if it were reduced by even 5 per cent. the country would be flooded with foreign hardware, and that the duty of 35 per cent. was not equal to the difference between the cost of labor here and its cost abroad. If we accept this statement of the case as true, we must believe that, in consequence of the higher rate of wages, it costs at least 35 per cent. more to make the hardware in this country than in Europe; that the tariff, by raising the price of the articles 35 per cent., enables the home manufacturer to compete with the foreign, and that even a slight reduction would make such competition impossible. But another representative of the same interest told a different story. He said that the tariff had not increased the price of the goods. Clearly, then, the tariff is of no use as a protective measure. This witness said the effect of the tariff had been actually to lower the price. Why not repeal it then and send the price up? The witness further made short work of the wages argument. He said that saddlery hardware was never so cheap before, not because of foreign competition aided by pauper labor, but on account of "home competition and improved machinery." This is a demonstration of the failure of the protective tariff to protect. The manufacturer must in some way find "protection" against his American competitor. With all his concern for his highly-paid workmen, he does not hesitate to cut down the aggregate of their wages by using improved machinery to take the place of labor—as, indeed, there is no reason why he should hesitate. Another advantage of the English manufacturer mentioned by this witness is that he can get copper cheaper; and the well-known fact was referred to that American copper is sold to English manufacturers for five cents a pound less than the price in this country. It is understood that a condition attached to the sale is that the copper shall return to this country only in a manufactured form. This is the way in which the American copper producer protects himself, and illustrates the folly of the high-tariff system.

The Navy Department vindicated its dignity and traditional reputation recently by relieving Capt. J. K. Miller of the command of the frigate *Tennessee*. His offence was a curious one, and consisted in the employment of one Henry Burnett, a Sandy Hook pilot, to bring the ship into New York harbor. Such employment is inconsistent with a rule which requires every commander in the service to be his own pilot, at least upon entering home ports. This rule originated in the times when we really had a navy and when it was proud of its seamanship. The suggestion that any naval officer could be taught anything by a sailor in the merchant service would then have been repelled with scorn. For a captain of a vessel-of-war in those days to ask a pilot to show him the way from the lightship to the Brooklyn Navy-yard would have been as undignified a proceeding as to ask the crew of a trading bark to reef his topsails or to execute any other nautical manœuvre. Times, however, have changed, and Captain Miller believed it to be not unbecoming to seek assistance in avoiding the dangerous shoals and deceptive currents of the bay. Mr. Burnett agrees with the captain that it would not have been safe for him to do anything else; and their views are confirmed by the fact that the *Tennessee* afterward, in trying to go into Boston harbor without a pilot, ran aground.

Senator Sherman has delivered a speech at Mansfield, Ohio, in which he defended the large river and harbor appropriations, as he probably would not have done had he still been Secretary of the Treasury, and in which he is reported to have said that the Sunday and the liquor questions are "an irrepressible conflict which must be met." We do not know whether Mr. Sherman is correctly reported, but, if he is, he will upon reflection satisfy himself that these questions do not represent any "irrepressible conflict" at all; that they cannot be "met" and finally settled by legislative enactments, whatever attempts in that direction may be made; that they are really under the control of a public sentiment which gradually modifies the ways of thinking and habits of society in a manner which will make a law designed to overrule it a dead letter; that this public sentiment has its fits and starts, but finally always develops itself in the way of tolerance; and that these questions are most apt to push themselves forward on the political stage and to agitate the nerves of the politicians at times when there are no other issues strongly engaging the popular mind. The "irrepressible conflict" in Ohio will subside again in due season.

The agreement between the United States and the Republic of Mexico, by which the troops of the two parties are reciprocally authorized to cross the boundary line of the two countries in close pursuit of hostile Indians whenever it may be necessary, is undoubtedly calculated to satisfy a long-felt want on that frontier. The territory of Mexico has always served as a refuge for Indian desperadoes escaped from the United States, who used their asylum as a basis of operations for hostile incursions. This circumstance has, in a great measure, made Indian "wars" in that region so frequent and interminable. Our troops have sometimes crossed the Mexican line without authority, but this always led to remonstrances on the part of the Mexican Government. The present agreement will, in a great measure, do away with these embarrassments, although we are not sure that, in spite of the careful regulations it contains, it will not in the course of time prove a prolific source of "claims."

The drainage of summer "resorts" is so frequently bad that the public at large have a good deal of interest in the typhoid cases which have caused so much trouble at the Bellevue Hotel, at Seabright. The admitted facts are that two of the guests, one of them a woman, were suddenly taken ill with typhoid fever, which, according to their side of the case, came from improper drainage. Whatever it came from, it caused a panic in the hotel, and great loss of business. The hotel proprietor, Mr. Corey, who has a lease of the premises, recouped himself to the extent of $5,000 by informing the friends of the patients that unless that amount of money was immediately paid they would be turned out of the hotel. As the exposure was almost certain to be fatal to them, the money was paid, and they were allowed to remain. The friends of the patients now threaten to "make it hot" for Mr. Corey, and we trust they will succeed in doing so, if, as they maintain, he is responsible for the fever. There is no principle of law or justice which allows a hotel-keeper to extort money in this way for a fever contracted in consequence of the bad drainage of his premises, and generally it does come from bad drainage. People do not contract typhoid fever wilfully, and as they usually know little or nothing of the drainage of the places they go to in summer, they are very much at the landlord's mercy. If he can, the moment a disease of this kind breaks out, threaten those attacked with death by exposure, a new terror is added to summer seaside life.

The "Ford boys," who killed Jesse James, have, it seems, been suffering in public

estimation through the misrepresentations of the press. A story had got about that they had been "rioting" in Richmond, Missouri, which they deny emphatically, and say that they have not been in Richmond lately. They say that the fact is, a couple of low fellows, knowing their fame and position in society, "went through" the town, "claiming to be the Ford boys." The real boys have therefore given notice of the fraud through the press, and desire that the two ruffians may be treated as they deserve. The boys have, it is said, like so many other distinguished characters, taken to the stage, and we regret to learn that they have lowered themselves somewhat by appearing in some sort of show in "a State Street dive." They say, however, that they had no idea of the character of the place, and had to "fill their contracts." As to future plans, they propose to "star," and hope to obtain engagements in first-class theatres. This frank statement of their intentions ought to remove the misunderstanding created by the behavior of their fraudulent rivals.

It has been a dull and uneventful week in Wall Street. The New York banks added $1,147,875 to their surplus reserve, and the rates for demand loans ruled at 3@4 per cent. Foreign exchange was firm, but below the gold-exporting point. The merchandise exports are increasing, but to a large extent the bills against them were engaged by bankers in July. The movement of securities between New York and the foreign markets has been against New York to a moderate extent. The prices of railroad stocks were variable during the week, but in most instances higher figures were established. The general outlook for trade is encouraging, as the large crops are a solid basis for a full year of prosperity, seeing that the foreign demand for our food products promises to be larger than of late.

In an English libel suit brought by a sculptor named Belt against *Vanity Fair*, the Judge, Baron Huddleston, was reported to have said he would allow the plaintiff to make a bust of himself in the presence of the jury, in order to show what sort of a sculptor he was. This seems to have been taken as an intimation that the Judge was willing to allow ocular demonstration of all sorts, and, accordingly, a plaintiff in a recent suit for personal injuries against a railway company, in order to prove how lame he was, offered to walk across the court-room. Baron Huddleston however, refused to permit it, and said that he had been entirely misrepresented by the press, and had never said that Mr. Belt might make a bust of him. The general introduction of tests of this sort would be productive of great inconvenience. We should have plaintiffs in libel suits not only modelling, but painting, singing, declaiming, acting, in order to show how unfair any criticism of their performances was. Moreover, if some paper should say, for instance, of Mr. Booth that he ranted, or of Nicolini that he could sing no more than a cat, no fair test would be possible in court, and there would be nothing for it but to take the jury to the theatre or opera on several successive nights to let them see and hear for themselves. This would involve a great deal of time and expense, and the result would probably in most cases be a disagreement.

Mr. Freeman, the historian, has been recording in the *Fortnightly Review* his impressions of America, derived from the tour which he made here last year, and he declares that the thing which principally struck him was the great similarity between England and the United States. Where he expected differences he finds resemblances. England and America he discovered to be more alike than England and Scotland. The great American cities are very like Manchester and Liverpool. He thinks that the ideal after which the two branches of the race should strive, is for both to feel "at least as close a tie to one another as was felt of old by all members of the scattered Hellenic folk"; but for this purpose we ought all to have a common name. Mr. Freeman, who confesses himself somewhat of a pedant on this subject, will not hear of "Anglo-Saxon," because he does not think it historically or philologically correct. Nor will "Briton" do, because it "is not the natural name by which an Englishman speaks of himself; it is used either in a half-laughing vein or because it is thought to be fine, or else of set purpose to find some name which shall take in all the people of Great Britain. The only alternative would seem to be the grotesque and rather ugly form 'Britisher.' And I always told my American friends," he says, "that I had rather be called a Britisher than an Englishman, if by calling me an Englishman they meant to imply that they were not Englishmen themselves." It may be that if all the members of our great and wise race were suddenly to adopt the practice of calling themselves "Britishers," it would help on the cause of international amity, but there would of course be a difference between the use of such a term and that of "Hellene" among the Greeks, who did not agree to call themselves Hellenes for the purpose of establishing a good understanding among themselves. They called themselves so because they could not help it, and it must be confessed that their common historic name did not prevent the different branches of the race from waging the most bloody and destructive wars with one another.

It seems to be the tendency of English opinion at present to exaggerate the similarity between the two countries, just as a generation ago it was the custom to exaggerate the differences. Of course, within that period there have been enormous changes in the United States, while all parts of the world have grown more alike, owing to the increase of the facilities of communication. Still, comparing the tour and observations of Mr. Freeman and other recent visitors with those of Dickens and his contemporaries, it is impossible to attribute the changed tone altogether to a changed condition of society at home and abroad. A generation ago when an Englishman inspected us, he did it with the expectation of finding a new and totally distinct species from himself, and he invariably found one. Now, he comes with the expectation of finding similarity, and he finds that. Formerly he was almost surprised to hear his own language spoken, and now he wants to have the whole race adopt a common name. This obviously may be pushed too far. As a nation, we have grown too prosperous and strong to care any longer very acutely about hostile foreign criticism; but it ought to be understood that there is one thing that we do insist upon, and that is, having peculiarities of our own. It is certainly possible to meet with Americans who are unduly vain of their country, but the class of Americans who like to be mistaken for "Britishers" is a small one, and is eyed with some jealousy and distrust by their fellow-citizens.

The ground is now fully cleared for the impending trial of arms in Egypt. The Porte, in its fashion, has proclaimed Arabi a rebel; Russia has professed satisfaction with England's explanation of the occupancy of Suez; England and France have agreed, with reserves, to Italy's proposal, in the Conference, of a European police of the Canal; and Sir Garnet Wolseley has arrived at Alexandria, and for the moment finds himself unembarrassed by the presence of Turkish troops. A few days will show what part Ismaïlia may serve as one of the bases of his campaign. On the other side, if we may trust reports, Arabi is retorting on the Sultan by deposing him and doing his best to propagate a religious war. The only significant political utterance of the week has been Mr. Gladstone's speech at the Lord Mayor's banquet, with reference to England's disinterested undertaking to protect the interests of the civilized world in the Suez Canal.

The "Mussulman jurists" whom the cable despatches report to have given a legal opinion on the status of Arabi before the law, must not be imagined to be what we call "jurists" in this country. Law in Turkey, especially public law, is not discriminated from religion, and both are ascertained by a construction of the texts of the Koran. Oriental jurists, not being familiar with the principle of *stare decisis*, decide each case as it arises without reference to whether it is in conflict or accordance with previous decisions, and consequently no two decisions are necessarily alike. They have in giving their replies only one fundamental guide, and that is to satisfy the Sultan. Knowing this, the Sultan wisely frames his questions in such a way that the jurists may know what the answer ought to be. In the present case the cable despatch only gives the answer, but we can give the question. It was as follows: "O jurists, is Arabi Pasha, in so far as he has disobeyed the Caliph, a rebel, and may he be unceremoniously treated as such; but in so far as he has been a defender of a Mohammedan country against the aggressive designs of Christians, has he merely fulfilled the duties of a good Mussulman? May the Sultan punish Arabi Pasha, if some act of rebellion is proved against him, while dissociating himself from those who wish to crush Arabi Pasha as the defender of Islam?" A jurist who could not tell how to answer this would be immediately dismissed from the force.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 9, to TUESDAY, August 15, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

WASHINGTON was immediately deserted, after the adjournment of Congress, by the politicians and office-holders. In several of the Government departments, however, there is considerable activity. In the State Department the laws recently passed are being deposited and recorded. The Treasury is occupied with the transfer of bonds. The office of the Supervising Architect is busily engaged in preparing plans for the new public buildings ordered by Congress. The Navy Department is interested in beginning a new fleet of vessels. In the War and Interior Departments pension claims are occupying a number of new clerks. A list of 422 appointments to clerkships in the Pension Office was announced on Thursday, the first of the 800 provided for in the Legislative Bill. The appointments were all made by political recommendation, and not by a civil-service examination. Stalwart Senators got a large share. Of the entire list only about a half-dozen are women. The reason announced is that the duties of the positions are not suited to their sex. The disappointed women held an indignation meeting in Washington on Thursday night.

During the last hours of Congress, Senator Windom presented a report on the whiskey investigation. The report asserts that no corrupt action had been proved in regard to the passage of the Bonded Spirits Bill. It finds that an association of distillers in Kentucky raised $5,000 to pay a lawyer for pushing the measure, but that nothing was done by him inconsistent with the character of an honorable attorney. The imputations cast on honorable journalists were not supported by evidence.

President Arthur left Washington on Thursday afternoon, on the steamer *Despatch*, for New York. He will remain in this city for about ten days, and then make a short visit to Newport.

The Secretary of the Navy has approved a flag of navy-blue bunting, with the American coat of arms in the centre, as the President's flag. It will fly from the mainmast of every vessel when the President is on board.

The closing arguments in the Star-route trial have been in progress in Washington in the Criminal Court during the week. On Wednesday morning it was announced that the following order of speaking had been agreed upon by counsel: Mr. Ker to open for the Government, to be followed by two replies from the defence. Colonel Bliss will then deliver his address, to which the defence will be allowed three replies. The Attorney-General or Mr. Merrick will next speak, followed by three replies from the other side, and then the Attorney-General or Mr. Merrick will close the argument. Mr. Ker then began his argument. It was an analysis and restatement of the evidence in regard to each of the routes, with a running commentary of sarcasm and invective. Mr. Ker closed his speech on Friday.

Mr. Carpenter, counsel for the Dorseys, opened the argument for the defence in the Star-route trial on Monday. He reviewed Mr. Ker's argument, and attempted to show the necessity for "expedition." His speech was continued on Tuesday.

A letter was published in a Washington Sunday newspaper, on August 13, from ex-Senator S. W. Dorsey to President Garfield, dated February 7, 1881. The editor of the newspaper professed to have found the animus of the Star-route prosecution in the letter. It is, in short, an impudent letter of instructions to the President, who was soon to be inaugurated, not to take advice in regard to his Cabinet appointments in New York from Col. George Bliss or Mr. Knox, or other men of that liberal class, but to send for "Conkling or Arthur, the two men who elected you, with the aid of Grant." Mr. Dorsey also remarks, "I am tired of this blathering talk about McVeagh to go into the Cabinet from Pennsylvania, and James from New York. Such detestable rot should be smoked out at once, and you ought to do it in some public way. As I have repeatedly urged upon you, there is but one appointment you ought to make from New York, and that is Chief Judge Folger to be Secretary of the Treasury." General Garfield was further kindly informed that "all that Mr. Conkling wants, and all that General Arthur desires, is a fair show and an honest deal. These two men, with their friends, represent the intelligence, the progressive and the aggressive elements of New York Republicanism."

The fall campaign was opened at Mansfield, Ohio, on Saturday night, by Senator Sherman. He defended large appropriations for rivers and harbors and public buildings. On State questions he declared the Sunday and liquor questions to be an irrepressible conflict, which must be met. He was in favor of the observance of the Sabbath.

The Republicans of Indiana, in Convention, on Wednesday, nominated Emanuel R. Hawn for Secretary of State, Roswell S. Hill for Treasurer, and other minor officers. The platform demands that the pending prohibition amendments to the Constitution of the State shall be submitted to the people, the fountain of power, by the next Legislature, for decision thereon; that there be such a reduction in taxation that no unnecessary burdens may be inflicted upon the consumers of imported articles, nor upon our domestic industries; and that Congress adopt laws to secure a thorough reform of the civil service. The National and State Administrations are warmly approved.

The Kansas Republican State Convention on Thursday renominated Governor St. John by a very large majority. The platform declares unqualifiedly in favor of prohibition; demands the enactment of laws regulating railroads; and requests the next Legislature to submit a woman-suffrage amendment to the Constitution.

The Illinois Prohibition Convention met at Bloomington on Wednesday. It adopted a strict prohibition platform, and nominated Judge J. G. Irwin, of Madison, for State Treasurer, and Professor Andrews, of Galesburg, for Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Senator John Stewart, the Independent Republican candidate for Governor in Pennsylvania, has forwarded a letter to General Beaver, the Stalwart nominee, proposing a joint discussion of political differences in the State.

The Republican Executive Committee of South Carolina have decided to hold a State Convention on September 12, but to endorse the nominations of the Greenbackers.

At Saratoga, the American Bar Association was in session for several days during the week. Mr. Francis Kernan delivered the annual address, giving a review of recent legislation in various States. Many valuable legal papers were read during the session. After a long discussion, a resolution was adopted approving a bill for the relief of the Supreme Court of the United States, which was advocated by ex-Secretary Evarts.

The Photographers' Association of America held its annual Convention in Indianapolis last week. More than 500 delegates were present.

At Long Branch the Tariff Commission heard the pleas of representatives of a number of industries during the week. On Friday they paid a visit to the Trenton potteries.

In secret session at Chicago, the Amalgamated Iron and Steel Association adopted a new constitution, and laid the basis of a better understanding with the manufacturers. It is said they guaranteed the manufacturers not to ask an advance on the rolling and puddling scale prices for five years.

In the Pittsburgh, Pa., iron region, more mills are resuming work, with non-union men as operatives. The Philadelphia grain-handlers' strike was ended by the men returning to work at the old rates.

Heavy rains have fallen throughout the West and Northwest within the past week, and in some sections great damage has been done by them to the crops. In many places in northern Ohio the hay crop will be a total loss. Wheat in stacks and shocks is beginning to sprout. The oat crop is also injured. In the Northwest the damage done was trifling, and the wheat crop just harvested is said to be the finest ever raised there. There was frost in Wisconsin on Thursday morning, and a snow-squall on Lake Michigan.

An agreement has been entered into by this country and Mexico, providing for the reciprocal crossing of the international boundary-line by troops of either country in pursuit of hostile Indians.

Gen. J. Rufino Barrios, President of Guatemala, sailed for Liverpool from this city on Saturday. It is said that before sailing a convention was signed which will end the dispute about the Guatemala-Mexico frontier. The convention, it is reported, contains the following provisions: The high contracting Powers agree to submit their differences to arbitration by the President of the United States. Guatemala abandons her claims to Soconusco, and recognizes it as now belonging to Mexico. A boundary commission is to be appointed by both of the contracting Powers to run a dividing line between them.

The British Government has been searching the foreign mails for seditious matter. Clippings from an American newspaper which were transmitted in a registered letter have been intercepted. The Post-office Department of the United States acknowledges the permissibility of the proceedings under the international postal treaty.

There have been sixty-two cases and twelve deaths from yellow fever at Brownsville, Texas. It has also appeared at New Orleans. It is epidemic at Matamoras, Mexico.

A virulent disease has appeared among cattle in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Alabama, and North Carolina.

Judge Donohue, in the Supreme Court Chambers in this city, rendered a decision on Thursday, in a suit brought against Dr. Stephen H. Tyng, jr., by Edward L. Owen, his partner in stock speculations. The latter claimed more than $5,000 as the balance due him after all credits were allowed. The Judge decided that he thought the plaintiff honestly intended to give a bill of particulars, but it was too general, and should be made more definite before payment could be enforced.

A brakeman on the Elevated Railroad, in this city, on Friday, was thrown from his platform to the street below in a scuffle which he had with a bar-tender, named Reddington, who tried to board the train at Bleecker Street after the gates were closed. He was fatally injured. A woman was run over on the same day at the Fiftieth Street station, on the Sixth Avenue road. She died at midnight.

Commodore Shufeldt, who negotiated the Corean treaty, is ill at the Naval Hospital in Mare Island, Cal. He has just returned from China.

Gen. G. K. Warren was buried on Saturday from All Saints' Chapel, Newport.

Ex-United States Senator George R. Dennis, of Maryland, died on Sunday. He served in the Senate from 1873 to 1879.

Mr. Jesse Hoyt, for many years one of the most prominent business men of this city, died on Monday morning, at the age of sixty-seven. He was engaged in the grain commission business until 1881. He had large railway interests in the West.

FOREIGN.

At the seat of the war in Egypt the week has been marked by preparation, and by a few skirmishes. The armored train, on its usual night patrol on Wednesday evening,

exchanged a few shots with Arabi's second line of intrenchments near Mahalla Junction. It is asserted that the rebels are fortifying Nefersa Junction, where the Suez, Ismailia, and Cairo lines of railroad meet. The enemy have evacuated the works immediately opposite the Ramleh position, and there will be no attack at present; but Arabi is having constructed, within three miles of Ramleh, a formidable redan and embankment, thirty feet high. The British ship *Superb* fired shell at the works on Friday. On that day Captain Ewart made a plucky reconnoissance from Fort Meks. He started at 1 o'clock in the morning with an interpreter, and by daybreak had ridden ten miles into the country. He ascertained that there was no truth in the report of large bodies of the enemy in the direction in which he rode.

A council of leading British military authorities has been investigating the effects of the bombardment of the forts at Alexandria, and the general tenor of the evidence is that masonry is useless against modern guns, but that earthworks turn every shot.

A skirmish took place on Sunday to the westward of Alexandria, beyond the Meks forts. The sailors and marines stationed there drove the Arabs back with the fire of a small field-piece. There was no loss on the British side.

Great activity has prevailed in England in the preparation of troops for Egypt. Daily several transports have started with regiments on board. In India there has been similar activity. On Wednesday, five transports with troops left for Egypt from Bombay. General Wolseley arrived at Alexandria on Tuesday, and took command of the Army.

The Berlin organ of Prince Bismarck, in an article friendly in tone toward England, denies the rumors of an intention of placing the Suez Canal permanently under the control of a mixed commission similar to that on the Danube. As the British traffic on the Canal immensely preponderates, the Powers, it remarks, cannot expect England to subordinate such vast interests to the decision of a non-English majority.

At a meeting of the Conference in Constantinople on Thursday, the Sultan submitted the following proclamation: "Arabi Pasha, having a second time transgressed the law by taking authority which does not belong to him, and having presumed to menace the vessels belonging to an old and tried friend and ally of Turkey, is, for these misdeeds, proclaimed a rebel, together with his adherents. Be it known to all that obedience is due solely to the Khedive, who is the representative of the Sultan." Lord Dufferin, the English representative, then announced the assent of England to the proposal of the Italian Ambassador for temporary international protection of the Suez Canal. It is understood that he did not insist that England should have supreme command of the troops in Egypt. England's assent to Italy's proposal is coupled with a reservation that if international police are sent to guard the Canal, they shall not interfere with military operations. The Russian representative asked why England had occupied Suez. Lord Dufferin replied that the step was taken on account of military necessity, and in order to save the town from pillage. Lord Dufferin insists that, in order to secure harmony of action, no movements of the Turkish troops, when they are in Egypt, shall take place without the preliminary consent of General Wolseley. The Sultan has ordered that an addition be made to the proclamation against Arabi, declaring him a rebel, because, in resisting, he acts contrary to the principles of the Koran. Importance is attached to this mention of the Mohammedan Bible. No Turkish troops will be landed in Egypt until the arrival of the Turkish Special Commissioners. France has accepted, under certain reservations, the proposal for collective protection of the Suez Canal.

It is reported that Arabi called a meeting of the Ulemas on Sunday, and obtained from them a decree deposing the Sultan and naming the Sherif of Mecca as Caliph. On Tuesday Arabi was ordered by the Sultan peremptorily to lay down his arms. If he refuses, the Sultan will leave him to be dealt with by the English.

At Constantinople, on Monday, the Conference finally agreed to the Italian proposal in regard to collective police supervision of the Suez Canal. The proclamation against Arabi will not be issued until the convention is signed.

At the Lord Mayor's banquet in London, on Wednesday evening, to the British Ministers, Mr. Gladstone, in response to a toast, said with reference to the Egyptian question: "It is of vital importance that the position of England should not be misunderstood. Forces have gone to Egypt in prosecution of great interests of the empire. Unless those interests exist it would not have been possible for us to find a justification for intervention. But let it be known and proclaimed from this spot that those interests are not ours alone, but interests we have in common with every state in Europe—nay, with the whole civilized world." In regard to the Suez Canal, he said that the utmost they had in view was to keep that gate open, and the country in which it is situated peaceable. This was a work which every country in Europe should perform. In conclusion, he said: "We do not go to war with the Egyptian people, but to rescue them from the oppression of military tyranny; nor do we make war upon the Mohammedan religion, as Englishmen respect the convictions of believers in every other faith. We do not want to repress the growth of liberty in Egypt, but desire that she be prosperous. England goes to Egypt with clean hands, and with no secret intention to conceal from other nations." In the House of Commons on Thursday, Mr. Gladstone said that an indefinite occupation of Egypt was not contemplated. The ultimate condition of Egypt could not be settled by any one Power.

A meeting of Conservative Peers was held at the residence of Lord Salisbury, in London, on Thursday. Lord Salisbury adhered to his original view in regard to pressing the Lords' amendments to the Arrears Bill, but he was overruled by a large majority of those present. The matter came up in the House of Lords later in the day. Lord Salisbury then declared that he thought the bill was a public blunder, but as he found himself in a hopeless minority he would not challenge a division. The Lords then acquiesced in the rejection of the first amendment by the House of Commons, and agreed to all the reamendments. It is said that Lord Salisbury thinks of declining the Tory leadership, in view of this rebuff. The Duke of Richmond took the lead in urging the concessions upon the Conservatives.

Mr. Gladstone has announced that Parliament will adjourn next Friday until the 24th or 26th of October.

The threatened strike of the Irish constabulary has been averted, or at least postponed, by the tact of the Government. On Wednesday the Limerick police, as a consequence of an interview between the County Inspector and the Clonmel deputation, in which the former acknowledged that their claims were justifiable, telegraphed all over Ireland that they were resolved to suspend the agitation for the present, pending the action of the Government. The Cork police took similar action, and repudiated the charge that they were in collusion with the Fenians. Earl Spencer addressed the constabulary in Dublin, and announced that $900,000 would be immediately distributed, and any grievance inquired into.

Thomas. Walsh, who was arrested at the time of the seizure of arms at Clerkenwell, Ireland, and convicted of treason-felony, has been sentenced to seven years' penal servitude.

Henry George, the American political economist, was arrested in Loughrea, Ireland, on Wednesday, under the Curfew section of the Crime Act, and kept in custody until he could give a satisfactory account of himself. He was rearrested on Thursday, at Athenry, and accused of associating with suspects, but was liberated on Friday. Stephen J. Meany, the correspondent of a New York newspaper, was arrested on Thursday night, in County Clare, Ireland, charged with being a dangerous character. He was subsequently released on giving bail for his good behavior for six months.

At a special meeting of the Ladies' Land League, in Dublin, on Thursday, the League was dissolved, and a recommendation was passed that leagues be established throughout the country to teach the rising generation the national history.

Theannual Convention of the Irish Land League of Great Britain was held in Manchester, England, on Saturday. Three hundred delegates were present. Resolutions were passed relative to the death of Miss Fanny Parnell. A report presented asserted that the Highlands of Scotland were ripe for land agitation. A resolution making peasant proprietary one of the objects of the League was adopted by a large majority. An amendment embodying Mr. Davitt's land-nationalization scheme was rejected. The justice of aiding the laborers was recommended to Irish farmers.

Westgate, the self-confessed assassin of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, in Dublin, has arrived at the Island of Jamaica. A despatch from there says that the evidence implicating him in the crime is strong.

The Dublin Exhibition was opened, and the O'Connell statue was unveiled in that city, on Tuesday, with great ceremonies.

The North German Lloyd's steamer *Mosel*, from Bremen for New York, went aground off Lizard Point, England, at 8:30 o'clock on Wednesday morning. The accident happened during a dense fog. There were about 700 passengers on board, but there was no panic among them when the vessel struck. They were all safely landed at Penzance. The mails and specie were also landed, and part of the cargo was taken off. The *Mosel* has a big hole through her bow, and the bottom from stem to stern was broken. An effort is making to raise the vessel.

A meeting of English gentlemen interested in rowing was held in London on Friday evening, and resolutions were passed expressing sympathy with the Hillsdale, Mich., crew, and protesting against the action of the self-elected Rowing Association in excluding them from amateur races.

William Stanley Jevons, Professor of Political Economy in the University of London, was drowned while bathing at Bexhill, England, on Tuesday. He was forty-seven years of age. His best known work is 'The Principles of Science.'

The condition of Tripoli is alarming to Europeans. The natives talk of a massacre of Christians. A holy war is being preached throughout Morocco against Christians.

A great anti-Christian demonstration has occurred at the funeral, in Beirut, Syria, of a Moslem who, it was reported, was murdered by the Christians. Many fled to the mountains. A score were arrested, and one was killed.

A decree has been promulgated in France, giving duly authorized American joint-stock companies a legal status in that country.

A decree closing the session was read in both the French Chambers on Wednesday.

Professor Esmarch, the eminent German surgeon, has published an essay on the treatment of General Garfield's wound, in which he holds that the late President might have lived had it not been for the treatment he received.

The vessel conveying Lieutenant Bove and the members of the Italian Antarctic expedition has been wrecked off Cape Horn. All on board were saved.

THE STAR-ROUTE DEFENCE.

NOTHING in the Star-route trials has attracted more attention than the tone of defiance adopted both by the defendants and by their leading counsel from the beginning. Mr. Carpenter's address to the jury on Monday was one of the most impudent harangues ever delivered in a court of justice. He denounced the Attorney-General for appearing in the case, and denied that it was possible that the President should have instructed him to prosecute. The reason that he assigned for this assertion was that "Chester A. Arthur was a man," and therefore it was incredible that he should have decided to proceed against "his friend, his familiar, his acquaintance, one with whom he was on terms of kindness and hospitality, one with whom he had associated in political life for years, and one for whom, about a month before his accession to the Vice-Presidency, he had borne testimony as a capable and honest man." The Attorney-General had said that he was "the mouth of this Government to urge that this case be heard and determined." If he spoke for the President, this amounted, according to Mr. Carpenter, to saying that the President "was in a conspiracy, contrary to justice and humanity, to crush the defendants arrayed in this court." He was going on to prove still further how unlikely it was that the President should have taken any part in the conspiracy to ruin Brady and Dorsey, by a reference to the Delmonico dinner of last year, but was stopped by a reminder from the Court that there was no evidence relating to that dinner in the case. The whole drift of his speech was that some wicked and designing men had conspired to ruin his clients, and that they were hiding behind the President and the Attorney-General.

This is all of a piece with the conduct of the defence from the first. The principal reason why the defendants' guilt has generally been assumed is that their behavior has been that of guilty men. After first insisting on a trial for purposes of a vindication, they interposed every technical defence they could invent to prevent the case going to the jury. Finally, being obliged to go to trial on the facts, they opened fire on Court and witnesses through newspapers controlled and owned by one of the defendants, and when this defendant had an opportunity of going on the stand, and testifying in his own favor, he declined to do so and remained dumb, with testimony in the case nearly conclusive as to his guilt, if believed. Finally, while the case is being summed up, a letter purporting to be written by this defendant is published in his interest, the object of which is, if anything, to show that he is the victim of a conspiracy, but which in reality consists of nothing but foul-mouthed insolence and abuse, and reveals nothing except the low character of the person who says he wrote it.

It must be remembered that in discussing the "guilt" of the Star-route defendants, the jury which is trying the indictments for conspiracy is considering a different question from that in which the public at large are interested. There is nothing more technical than an indictment for conspiracy; no criminal offence is harder for the prosecution to make out satisfactorily, and none in which the defence has so many loopholes of escape. Nobody can possibly say in the present position of the case any more than the Court has itself said—that there is sufficient evidence of guilt to require that the jury shall pass upon it. But the question of "guilt," particularly in the case of Brady, in which the public are interested, is not simply the question of liability under this indictment for conspiracy. As alleged by Mr. Carpenter, it may be that if Walsh's testimony is true—that Brady told him he taxed all the contractors twenty per cent. on "expedition"—this would technically be extortion, and not conspiracy to extort; and a verdict of not guilty would leave it entirely uncertain whether Brady's escape was not owing to some such technical distinction as this. All that the public care about, however, is to know whether Brady defrauded the Government and betrayed his official trust.

Now, in arriving at a conclusion as to this matter, Brady's behavior and that of his counsel are important elements in the case. If they had from the first set about to produce a general certainty of their guilt, they could not have done the work better. The behavior of the ring has been very much like that of the Tweed ring here. When Tweed's frauds were detected, the material proof (consisting in the inflation of contracts) resembled a good deal the material proof in the Star-route cases, and the technical difficulties in the way of legal proof were quite as great; indeed, it seemed almost impossible for a long time to get any legal redress of any kind. But as some of the ring ran away and others confessed, and those who stayed brazened it out, much as Brady and Dorsey are brazening it out now, the only question of guilt in which the public had any interest was settled long before any of the rascals were brought to justice.

It must be considered fortunate for society on the whole that this is so. If the legal presumption of innocence that we always hear so much about from the defenders of men like these, meant that nobody must form any opinion about their characters and acts except under the technical rules of law applicable to an indictment, society would hardly be able to protect itself with much success against rascality. If on the acquittal of such a man as Brady, the public had immediately to treat him as an honest man, it is hard to see why he should not be restored to public favor, and again be put in possession of public funds. Dorsey, who is involved with Brady, actually does take very much this ground, and has refused to resign from the Republican committee, because, he says, until he has been tried by a jury, it is impossible to say whether he is a criminal or a good and pure man who is amply qualified for party leadership. This was the ground that Tweed took, and he actually got himself elected to office by a popular vote after his crimes had been fully exposed. But it is to be hoped that the notion that nothing short of a conviction for felony will disqualify a man for politics, or put him beyond the reach of "vindication," is sufficiently on the wane to make Dorsey's position untenable, and the repetition of such defences as that of Brady impossible.

THE SALVATION ARMY AND THE CHURCH.

THE rise and progress of the revival caused by "General" Booth by means of the Salvation Army in England, is attracting more and more attention from the regular churches. Unlike many revivals, the Army acts in a certain sense in hostility to the Church of England as at present organized. In the current number of the *Contemporary Review*, "General" Booth gives an account of his work, and the Rev. Randall T. Davidson criticises its operations with great acuteness. The "General" declares that for his purposes the ordinary systems of church government are of no use, and that an absolute military despotism is the only thing that will produce "unbroken peace and harmony." He has been engaged in his task for some seventeen years, and has experimented with other systems, but finds nothing but army discipline of any avail. His Army is really an autocracy, which recalls that of the Jesuits, and is in many respects similar to the Mormon system. The "General" is sole trustee of the property of the Army, which now yields an annual income of $350,000; he is empowered to nominate his successor in the trust; he can dismiss any of his "captains" at pleasure. It seems to be understood that "General" Booth is to be succeeded in command by his eldest son.

There is nothing new about the doctrines of the Army, which are those of what "General" Booth calls the "old-fashioned Gospel"—the Gospel of "a crucified Saviour, who shed real blood to save men from a real guilt and a real danger of a real hell." The Gospel is preached—and this is an essential part of the system—in the streets, wherever a crowd can be collected, and this, of course, is easiest in the worst quarters of large cities. In very low neighborhoods the Army gets possession of notorious places of amusement, which it converts into Army headquarters, and in many instances, to judge by testimony cited by Dr. Davidson, has made neighborhoods of this sort, formerly given over to vice and crime, quiet and respectable. Of course, such work as this cannot be done without risk of mob hostility and violence, and there has been much trouble in the streets, though mob persecution of the Army has only helped on the cause, as persecution in the long run must.

In the Church of England the success of the movement is watched with great and increasing interest, among other reasons because, as Dr. Davidson insists, one of the main agencies in the work is the recognition of the power of "testimony" in converting sinners, something "almost unknown in the Church of England." We are familiar enough with it in this country, but Dr. Davidson mentions with surprise that he has seen people "sit agape for half an hour listening to the same 'testimony,' repeated almost in the same words, by man after man, woman after woman, when they would not have listened to it attentively for ten minutes had it been quoted second-hand by an educated teacher." But "General" Booth and his wife, whose influence in the movement seems to be almost as great as her husband's, have greatly intensified this revival agency in the present movement. They endeavor to

make use not merely of the contagious effects of "testimony," but they rely greatly for aid on the universal modern passion for publicity and notoriety. Privacy of any kind, even in prayer, is almost unknown, if not forbidden. Sensationalism of every kind is encouraged. The Army has a press of its own, which has a large and increasing circulation, both among young and old. The *War Cry*, with a circulation of 300,000 a week, is mainly devoted not to appeal or exhortation, but to encouraging the reader, by means of accounts of the increasing success of the movement, to believe that it is a "live movement," a "big thing," which he had better join if he wants to keep up with the times. The book of "Doctrines of Discipline" contains the following advice, which it will be seen would do credit to an accomplished advertising agent: "Make your bills and posters striking in what you *say* on them, and the method of *printing*, the color of the *paper* or *ink*, the way they are *stuck up*, *given away*, and the like. They can be carried about on an umbrella, on a man's hat; round his person like a church-bell, with his head out at the top, and his feet at the bottom; on a monster box, pushed by a man or drawn by a donkey, or in ten thousand different forms. Invent for yourselves." Confession and penance are all made public, and even children are encouraged to publish letters giving accounts not only of their own spiritual condition, but of that of their parents. Thus we find one precocious correspondent of the *Little Soldier*, aged eight, writing: "I am still trusting in Jesus. I mean to fight unto the end, and give all my days to Jesus. . . . My father and mother are not saved yet"; while another, two years older, says: "Thank God, I am saved and on my way to heaven. My two brothers, George and Teddy, are saved, and baby May. I am sorry that father and mother are not saved yet, but hope they will soon. Mother is very fond of reading novels to father in bed at night."

Dr. Davidson objects to all this, and says that it is not only not Christianity, but is directly opposed to the teachings of Christ. "No body of Christians, I believe, has ever before striven thus to live their whole life in the full glare of day." A system of discipline which compels young girls to stand forward upon an open platform and confess their sins to a mob, and which encourages little children to boast of their "getting ahead" of their parents in being saved, he thinks immoral; but, curiously enough, he sees no reason why these "extravagances" should not be given up without the movement's losing its attractions. But obviously the secret of its success lies in these extravagances. There is no doubt that for large masses of people there is a far greater satisfaction to be derived from making their conversion notorious and public than from any sort of secret repentance; and the Army's use of the press stimulates this passion. The Church of England is, of all existing Churches, the one which has hitherto most discountenanced this craving, and now it finds itself confronted by a revival which, in proselyting work, outbids it by reversing the command, "Thou, when thou prayest, enter into thy closet, and when thou hast shut thy door, pray to thy Father which is in secret," making it read, "Thou, when thou prayest, go into the street, and when thou hast collected a crowd, pray as loudly as possible, and before many days thou shalt see thy name in print."

Add to this that the movement is a temperance movement conducted among the classes which suffer most directly and visibly from the effects of drink, and the reasons for its succeeding where the Church of England has confessedly failed become plainer still. Curiously enough, an attempt is now being made to adopt its methods within the Church. A clergyman in Surrey has been doing this for eighteen months, and he declares that he has found the processions, testimony meetings, and public penance work like a charm. "All our other efforts at evangelizing have failed to gather in the *lowest* classes. But since we have adopted the present methods the worst characters have been brought within the sound of the Gospel, and most encouraging instances of real conversion to God have been the result." This shows that it is really the methods which produce the effect. The Salvation Army, which goes forth even to the antipodes, has begun work in this country also, and it is, of course, impossible to predict that it may not have a considerable success here. But there is in the United States no established Church which can feel that its proper province is being invaded by the revival, and the Salvation Army will, if successful, be merely one more religious organization on a ground which is very fruitful of them. How long the converts will remain banded together in their new Church is another question.

COMMON SCHOOLS IN THE TWO CAPITALS OF RUSSIA.

ENOUGH has been said lately in newspapers and periodicals of the literary ability of Count Tolstoi, Minister of Public Instruction during the reign of Alexander II., and now Minister of the Interior, and of his zeal in founding universities and colleges (gymnasiums); but not enough of his narrow-mindedness and his infatuation with his own schemes. He founded new universities and professorships, and made laws to suppress the independence of science; he increased considerably the number of classical gymnasiums, and decreased the number of Real and commercial schools: Latin and Greek alone were to save Russia. For elementary instruction Count Tolstoi did less than nothing. Of the truth of this assertion, an essay entitled "The Common Schools in Moscow and St. Petersburg," by Baron N. A. Korf, in the June number of the *European Messenger*, furnishes abundant proof:

"If Russia had," so he begins, "only the hundredth part of all the excellent institutions decreed by legislation, she would be one of the happiest countries on earth; but it is well known that she has not: the law is one thing, the reality quite another. It would be useless to enumerate the laws which are not carried out, and more useless still to recite those which are entirely unaccomplishable."

Russia had a school-law as early as 1763 (France had none until 1794). Catherine, in the year 1775, ordered "schools to be established in all cities, towns, and larger villages of the empire," and at her own expense opened a public school in St. Petersburg (1781); but, unfortunately, she did not find as many imitators in this action as in her vices. The number of public schools in the first capital of Russia was in the year 1802 but thirteen. Then the Ministry of Public Instruction was established, and great progress was expected. After three-quarters of a century (1877), St. Petersburg had sixteen public schools! The communities repeatedly asked the Ministry's permission to establish schools on their own account (for instance, St. Petersburg in 1867), but the answer was always a refusal. Large numbers of children not being able to find room in the few schools of St. Petersburg, the city proposed to satisfy their desire for learning by temporarily introducing so-called after-dinner-schools. The very same Ministry which constantly overburdened the young students of the gymnasiums to an alarming degree, rejected the city's proposal, because after-dinner-schools were "contrary to the laws of modern pedagogics and hygiene." Another city offered the public schools a collection of books; they were not accepted, because their titles were not in the catalogue of useful books published by a committee of the Ministry of Public Instruction. Even now, when the cities have finally got to a certain extent the right of self-government in these matters, granted years before to the provinces and districts, the Ministry seems to be a constant hindrance. In 1878 the city of Moscow wanted to establish a higher school for girls under the name of "Alexander School." The permission of the Ministry was solicited, and, after a delay of fully ten months, the Minister (Count Tolstoi) deigned to reply that he could not agree to the name of the new school. The Duma (Board of Aldermen) of the city of Moscow wisely decided to give up the project altogether.

The number of pupils taught (which is more important than the number of schools) is now increasing in both the capitals—in Moscow, where there has always been more interest in public affairs, steadily; in St. Petersburg, where the public schools up to 1877 were unpardonably neglected, rapidly. In addition to the increase of schools and of pupils taught, we notice a far greater increase still in the number of children turned away for want of room. During the last four years not less than 6,945 children, all eager to learn at least to read and to write, could not be admitted to the public schools of St. Petersburg and Moscow, as the following tables will show:

Year.	Moscow.			St. Petersburg.		
	Schools.	Pupils.	Refusals.	Schools.	Pupils.	Refusals.
1870	6	350	....	....	....	....
1875	23	1,950	....	....	....	....
1878	33	3,506	877	23	899	326
1879	38	3,862	917	51	1,890	763
1880	40	4,138	1,147	53	2,362	600
1881	43	4,691	1,516	88	4,074	799

The age at which pupils enter the schools varies very much. In the capitals and other larger cities children from four to five years of age often apply for admission, and at St. Petersburg 91 per cent. of all pupils are under twelve years. In the country, children seldom enter school before their ninth year. Moreover, in the country they are without all preparation whatever, while in the cities one-half generally know at least the rudiments of reading and writing (they are, as the Russians say, *gramotniye—i. e.*, knowing the γράμματα). In Moscow there are among the new scholars only 51 per cent. ignorant of the rudiments, or "negramotniye" (47.6 per cent. boys, 55.3 per cent. girls).

The school year consists of 200 days in Moscow and St. Petersburg, of four hours a day (800 hours); of 120 days, six hours a day (720 hours), in the country. Notwithstanding this fact, the results are considerably better in the

provinces than in the capitals. Here the children are too young and leave school too early, eager to earn a living for themselves. The Moscow schools have in the highest of the three grades only 15 per cent. of all the pupils; in the district of Mariupol, Province of Yekaterinoslav (which, by the way, has only one-sixth of the population of Moscow, but quite one-half as many pupils in the public schools), 21 per cent. of all the pupils are in the third division. The average attendance in Moscow is 94 per cent. The education of women, considered a luxury among the lower classes in Russia until recently, is becoming more and more common. Out of the 4,691 pupils in Moscow, 2,284 are girls; in St. Petersburg, out of 4,074, there are only 1,368 girls.

A great obstacle, in the cities as well as in the country, is the poverty of the parents. Hundreds of poor children cannot attend any school in the winter-time because they have no shoes. One sees often in schools, as a part of the furniture, from six to a dozen pairs of shoes of different sizes, to be lent to the freezing pupils until their own are mended. In Moscow, the teachers distribute to the children brown bread and salt, for which entertainment the city spends 11,000 rubles a year. Another serious drawback is that the children have to pay for their instruction. The annual fee in St. Petersburg is two rubles, and two rubles fifty kopecks for slates, text-books, and stationery; in Moscow a pupil pays, altogether, three rubles a year (about $1 80; St. Petersburg, $2 70).

The male teachers come generally from theological seminaries, where, for one reason or another, they have not been able to pass the examination for entrance into the priesthood ; the lady teachers (more than one-third of the total number) are graduates of the female colleges (gymnasiums), or of some of the higher private institutions. The remuneration is exceedingly low. From 1802 to 1877, a teacher in one of the thirteen or sixteen public schools of St. Petersburg got 171 rubles 59 kop. a year ($103) ; now the pay is much better, but still bad enough. In St. Petersburg, a teacher (male or female indifferently) receives 600 rubles ($360) a year, and lodgings ; in Moscow, the first male teacher of a boys' school, 500 rubles ($300) ; the first lady teacher of a girls' school, 400 rubles ($240); the assistant teachers (nearly all ladies), 300 rubles ($180). This salary increases in Moscow every three years (a system not known at St. Petersburg), until the following maxima are reached: for a first male teacher, 750 rubles ($450); for a first lady teacher, 600 rubles ($360).

In St. Petersburg every teacher has fifty pupils in his class-room, and these belong to the three different grades. Moscow has, in this respect, truly model schools, from which our own cities could learn much. There one teacher teaches scholars of only one grade; in the first and second grades the maximum number in a class is 35; in the third grade the maximum is 30, the minimum 8, the average 20 pupils. It is, therefore, not surprising that the schools of Moscow are far ahead of those in St. Petersburg. In the latter city the children are taught only reading, writing, arithmetic, and composition; in the former they acquire, besides, a certain proficiency in freehand, linear, and perspective drawing. The elements of the natural sciences are taught nowhere, whether because the Russians have great talent for them, or because the Church tries to keep the human mind away from science.

In both the capitals the schools are provided with sufficient, sometimes even luxurious, furniture and apparatus; but neither St. Petersburg nor Moscow owns a public-school building—obviously a very serious deficiency. Moscow, however, is about to erect a commodious school-house for 400 children, at a cost of 120,000 rubles. Class-rooms are hired in private houses; yards or gardens are rare. The authorities of St. Petersburg, at all events, enforce strictly the law providing 100 cubic feet for each pupil; in Moscow this number descends to 73 (in one house even to 66) cubic feet a pupil.

In both cities the Duma (Board of Aldermen) has control of the common schools. There exists, however, in Moscow a Board of Education, constituted in the best possible way. Ladies and gentlemen who take an interest in public education send their names to the Duma; this body selects the necessary number, and invests them with the necessary rights and powers. It is easy to comprehend that a board like this is much more useful and more apt to have new and better ideas concerning the improvement of the schools than a board the large majority of which has no understanding of school business whatever, and of which too many members feel no interest at all in their office except in so far as it may advance them in their political aspirations. The Duma of St. Petersburg appoints a physician for every school, who has to visit the class-rooms regularly, and upon whose certificate a pupil must be received in the city hospitals at once and without charge. A private society for the aid of poor school-children has recently been founded, the members of which not only furnish clothing, food, and, if necessary, lodging for the indigent, but will insure the most promising higher professional education. It is, of course, a great encouragement for poor children to be under the protection of this society, and as the members, at least so long as there is no compulsory education, attend only to the children enrolled in public schools, these schools have a new attraction for the poor and needy.

The annual cost of each pupil in the schools of Moscow is 40 rubles, 50 kopecks ($24 30), in St. Petersburg, 37 rubles, 20 kopecks ($22 32); but though the expense is nearly the same in the two cities, Moscow accomplishes much more. Here the expense for common schools is 3.84 per cent. of the whole budget; in St. Petersburg, merely 1.33 per cent. There are only two towns which spend comparatively so little for educational purposes as the first capital of the Russian Empire. In thirty provinces together, in 1868, 5.1 per cent. of all revenues were spent for popular education.

Some of the larger Russian universities are excellent, and many of the professors of the younger generation would be an ornament even to a German or an English university, but the universities are the "couronnement de l'édifice," and a reasonable architect begins with a solid foundation; the public schools are this foundation. In the few years of partial self-government, Zemstvos and Dumas have accomplished comparatively much. If undisturbed, they will build a strong fortification against Nihilism and thoughtless revolution, as well as against despotism.

THE DEBATE ON THE EGYPTIAN QUESTION.

LONDON, July 29, 1882.

LIKE a stone pushed down the side of a mountain, which at first rolls slowly, then, gathering momentum, flies along by leaps and bounds till it thunders into the valley, this Egyptian crisis, which in its earlier phases was so tedious, has latterly advanced with a speed that hardly leaves us time to apprehend and judge the situation into which England has come, before we find ourselves in a new one. In my last letter I described to you the sentiments excited by and views expressed regarding the bombardment of Alexandria, which ushered in a new act of the drama. This was followed by the negotiations intended to bring about a Turkish intervention—negotiations conducted by the Conference of Ambassadors of the six Powers at Constantinople. I do not intend to describe the action of that Conference, which, as you may remember, the Sultan refused to enter, and did not even formally recognize. It—or rather the several Powers represented in it—invited the Turkish Government to intervene by arms in Egypt, and the Sultan delayed so long and shuffled in so irritating and obviously dishonest a way that the patience of England was exhausted. Between the danger of appearing to attack a Mohammedan leader who was resisting a Christian Power in a Mohammedan country, and the other danger of seeing that Christian Power take the matter into its own hands and thereby weaken the hold of Turkey over her dependency, the Turks could not make up their minds what course to follow, and continued, in their usual fashion, to interpose delays, hoping that Fate would somehow solve the problem for them, and no doubt encouraged by the caution and apparent hesitation with which England and France had hitherto acted.

After the bombardment, however, England could no longer afford to move so deliberately. The position had become for her a most difficult one. Alexandria was in ruins. She had to keep order there and defend herself against the attacks of the army of Arabi, which held the country. The navigation of the Suez Canal was imperilled. What was practically a state of war existed, and yet she was not technically at war, and could not well proceed to invade the country. Besides, everybody in England itself was calling out for something to be done, some resolution taken ; and the Ministry were badgered five days a week with questions in Parliament about everything they did or left undone. Accordingly they suddenly determined to wait no longer either for the Powers, or for France, or for Turkey, but to act alone, on their own responsibility, and intervene in Egypt for the purpose of restoring order there by expelling Arabi, breaking the power of the Army, and reëstablishing the Khedive at Cairo. The constitutional way of taking such action is, of course, to obtain a vote of money for the purpose from Parliament, and this has just been done. They announced on Saturday, the 22d, that they would ask for £2,300,000 for the purposing of strengthening the Queen's forces in the Mediterranean ; they moved for this vote on the 25th, and obtained it on the 27th, after a debate of three nights. As regards the other Powers of Europe, they intimated that since something must be done, since Turkey had not undertaken to do it, since it did not appear that the Powers collectively desired to take action for the purpose, since England had always taken a leading part in the affairs of Egypt, and had special interests there, she proposed to act alone, not adversely to them or any one else, but simply in default of steps being taken by any one else. France was, of course, invited to join; but France declared that her action would be limited to the protection of the Canal, and it is now (while I write) doubtful whether she will undertake even so much as that. Neither she nor the other Powers are, however, entitled to complain, for England has consulted them at every step, has given them the opportunity of joining, and cannot be expected, where she feels her own duties or interests involved, to hold back merely because they will not go forward.

It is toward Turkey, however, that the game has been most intricate and most entertaining to the lookers-on. When it was announced that England was going to proceed alone by landing an army in Egypt, the Sultan screwed himself up to the point of saying that he would enter the Conference. When news reached him that Eng-

lish preparations were being rapidly pushed forward, he declared he would himself intervene, but that the conditions which the Conference had laid down were inadmissible and must be revised. When he perceived that this declaration did not arrest Mr. Gladstone's movements—for that statesman, on being asked in Parliament what his Government would do in consequence of the change in Turkish policy, answered that it would go on just as before—he threw all his hesitations and procrastinations aside, and proclaimed that a Turkish force would be forthwith despatched to Egypt. This is the last move we have yet heard of. It has been met by an expression of the willingness of England to receive Turkish troops to coöperate, provided that the Sultan takes the preliminary step of proclaiming Arabi a rebel, and exerting his moral influence against him and his associates. Before this letter reaches you, you will know how the Sultan faces this fresh difficulty. It will not be very easy even for him to denounce a chief upon whom he conferred a high decoration a few weeks ago, and who is regarded by zealous Mussulmans at Constantinople as a champion of the faith; and probably several further moves may have been played in the game, which it would be no use trying to predict. It is the feeling in England itself that I wish to endeavor to convey to you.

There was nothing that we expected less three months ago, and certainly nothing that we desired less, than to send a fleet and army to guard and occupy Egypt. We were entirely occupied with domestic difficulties. The Egyptian question had never laid hold of the national mind. It was so extremely complicated that even professional politicians shrank from mastering it, while the general public left it altogether on one side. Even now hardly anybody outside the relatively small circle of members of Parliament and journalists professes to understand it. The vast majority of the Liberal party were so much disgusted by the foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Government, and still more by the cynical grounds on which it was advocated, as to have become opposed to almost any kind of intervention abroad. Two principles had become to them axioms: one, that war was so great an evil that scarcely anything but the necessity of repelling an attack would justify it; the other, that the engagements and responsibilities of Britain in every part of the world are so numerous and heavy that they ought not to be increased, and least of all by the acquisition of fresh territory. Hence the idea of occupying, perhaps after a serious struggle, a country like Egypt, as to which other European Powers are very sensitive, and where we may have to stay longer than we like, had a great deal of reluctance and dislike to overcome in the mind of the ordinary intelligent Liberal—the sort of man who, as the chairman of the committee of a local Liberal association, or as a Nonconformist minister, or a speaker at workingmen's meetings, or the editor of a provincial newspaper, forms, as well as represents, the opinions of those voters who placed the present Government in power. An expedition to Egypt, and the suppression of what has been represented as the National party there, looked suspiciously like a repetition of Lord Beaconsfield's conduct in Afghanistan, or his snatching of Cyprus. And, in fact, the Tory party, while approving the determination of the Government to intervene in Egypt, could not abstain from taunting them with being mere imitators of their predecessors, and following the very course in office which they had denounced in opposition. There are caricatures in the shop windows which represent the present Prime Minister trying to "make himself up" so as to look like the last one.

These things being so, why has the action of the Government met with so little opposition (and I do not speak merely of Parliamentary opposition, but of hostility from the organs of public opinion throughout the country)? Two reasons may be assigned. The first is the extent to which the interests of British commerce are involved in Egypt, and still more in the navigation of the Suez Canal. A good deal of the finer qualities of cotton comes to us from the delta of the Nile, and many English houses have become, in one way or another, so connected with the Alexandrian trade that anarchy in Egypt would mean serious loss to them and to those whom they employ. People outside that special circle, but either dependent in some way upon the prosperity of our commerce or connected with India, think that the destruction of the Canal, or even its temporary stoppage, would be a national misfortune, and are therefore ready to justify measures that seem required for its protection. To their fears it is replied that the Canal is not seriously threatened; that whoever reigned in Egypt would willingly see it open; that it can be protected without conquering the whole country. But these arguments do not make much impression against the deeply-rooted belief that somehow or other this international highway must be secured, and that we are more concerned than any other nation to have it secured.

As this consideration has much weight with the commercial and moneyed sections of the Liberal party, so the other sections, and particularly the Nonconformists and the working classes, are swayed by another, possibly even more important. This is personal confidence in Mr. Gladstone, a belief in his honesty, his fidelity to his principles, his aversion to war and aggression. "If he has gone into this enterprise," say his admirers, who are the real strength of the party, "it is because he has felt it unavoidable. He must dislike it as much as we do. He knows better what the dangers are than we do: if he thinks these strong remedies required, he is more likely to be right than we are; and we must follow him." So strong is this feeling that even the retirement from the Ministry of Mr. Bright has not sensibly weakened it. Much as he is personally respected and trusted, the great orator of the Radical party has never been a fighting leader, never awakened the same personal enthusiasm that Mr. Gladstone has done and still does; and though he is younger in years, he belongs more distinctly to a past generation, and is supposed, at least, to be less in sympathy with the new turn and color which Liberalism has of late years taken.

Owing to this general disposition of the Liberals to support Mr. Gladstone, and owing also to the fact that the Conservatives could not, consistently with their own principles of foreign policy, oppose armed intervention in Egypt, the debate in the House of Commons on the vote of £3,200,000 was somewhat spiritless. The opposition to it, which ended in being supported by nineteen members only, came from those followers of Mr. Parnell—not more than half his party—who have remained till this late period of the session, and from a small group of English Liberals who condemn all foreign intervention, and indeed all war that is not purely defensive. Few in number, these members are respectable from their consistent zeal and the purity of their motives; nor is it to be denied that they represent a considerable body of opinion among the working classes. Some others, though not going so far as to vote against the grant of money, refused to vote for it; and a good many thought, though they left it to the Conservative Opposition to say, that the Government had not managed things in the best way, but ought to have foreseen the approaching dangers, and either sooner invoked Europe to deal with them, or else itself nipped them in the bud. The Opposition, however, is not oratorically strong, and inflicted little damage on the Government; so that the chief net result of the debate has been, while not seriously weakening them, to enlighten the country on the question generally. Two remarkable speeches were delivered. In one of them Mr. Thomas Bruce, brother of the late Lord Elgin and of Lady Augusta Stanley (Dean Stanley's wife), a Conservative of advanced age and moderate views, gave a singularly lucid and instructive account of the state and changes of Egypt during recent years, showing how interwoven she had become with Western interests, and how much the difficulties of England and France there had been increased by the action of France in Tunis and the passions which she had roused among the whole Mussulman population of Africa. The House of Commons is very intolerant of disquisitions, but very ready to listen to a man who possesses special knowledge and rarely obtrudes it; and as Mr. Bruce has been for many years connected, as the head of the Ottoman Bank, with Eastern financial affairs, his approval of the general policy which the Government had pursued was felt to be weighty. Still more important was the authority of Mr. Goschen. Having been concerned in the establishment of the Financial Control in Egypt in 1876, and having served as Ambassador at Constantinople in 1880, he has more direct knowledge of Eastern topics than any other statesman of nearly equal rank and ability. He pointed out with great force that England's position, not only toward Turkey, but toward the Christian subjects of Turkey, forced her to interfere; condemned in weighty terms the duplicity of the Sultan's Government; explained, while regretting, the hesitations and timidity of France; and made in some respects a better case for the Government than diplomatic reticence permitted them to make for themselves.

Although, however, the general result of the discussion has been in favor of Mr. Gladstone's policy and Ministry, its position is still a very delicate one. Any serious misfortune in Egypt, any misunderstanding with France or the other European Powers, might imperil it. Yet even then it would have the advantage of being able to ask the country whether a Conservative Government, headed by Lord Salisbury, would be likely to do any better. Y.

(From another Correspondent.)

LONDON, July 29, 1882.

THE debates in the Houses of Lords and of Commons previous to entering upon direct hostilities in Egypt have done much to clear up the situation and explain the present policy of the Government. Lord Granville, Mr. Gladstone, Sir Charles Dilke, and Mr. Chamberlain have expounded the difficulties which have had to be encountered by the Government, and the modes in which, both in theory and in practice, they have been surmounted. Lord Salisbury, Sir Stafford Northcote, Colonel Stanley, and sundry Opposition sharpshooters, have done their utmost to criticise without exactly obstructing, and have had their say. Sir Wilfrid Lawson and Mr. Richard have stated in the fullest form the arguments, of all kinds, in favor of peace everywhere and always, and most of all in favor of peace with Egypt at the present moment. The subject has, undoubtedly, been thoroughly threshed out from all points of view, and, as it is inherently a difficult one, the conspicuous advantage of parliamentary institutions in the way of educating the popular mind has been seen to the full.

The first thing to be noticed is, that the defenders of the "National party" as represented by Arabi Pasha have cut a very poor figure, or rather evanesced altogether. Even those who, like Mr. Chamberlain, have admitted that there may be in Egypt some independent movement of a patriotic sort directed against European intervention, have strongly and decisively resented the notion of Arabi representing any such movement. Speaker after speaker on the Government side pointed out how every step in Arabi's advance was directed to his own promotion and enrichment: how the Chamber of Notables, illegally summoned by himself without the Khedive's consent, repudiated him and cooperated to promote his expulsion from the country; how, in destroying Alexandria, he committed (as one speaker said) one of the greatest crimes of this century; how, by disobeying both the Sultan and the Khedive, whom he professed to obey, he brought about the bombardment; and how, from first to last, everything he had done had been productive of nothing but ruin to his country. Mr. Gladstone, indeed, generalized on the necessarily pernicious character of every military despotism, even when the despot had some personal qualities to recommend him, and he took the instances of Cromwell and the Napoleons. These reigns, said Mr. Gladstone, did not advance public liberty, but retarded it; and the constitutions of England and of France only began to progress when the military despotism in each country came to an end.

Sir Charles Dilke explained with the greatest exactness and elaborateness the intervention of England in Egypt, as justified by the Government. He said this intervention was to be defended by necessity, right, and duty. He based the special claims of England to intervene on the treaty for the pacification of the Levant of 1840, by which Mohammed Ali was recognized as the supreme ruler of Egypt, and his dynasty established, subject to his conforming to certain conditions, which he conformed to a year after. Sir Charles Dilke, in one part of his speech, more especially addressed members on his own side of the House. He submitted to them that a policy of absolute non-intervention had never been part of the Liberal, or even of the Radical, creed. He justified the bombardment by pointing out that if the fleet was at Alexandria for an undoubtedly legitimate purpose, it was surely necessary to protect it. The Government had no right to expose their men to a daily increasing danger. He could not perceive anything contrary to Liberal or Radical principles in striking hard when British representatives were threatened. Sir Charles Dilke defended the Government against the imputation that they ought to have had a large landing force ready, by saying that, in the then political circumstances, it was impossible to have a large landing force. "It was one thing to act in self-defence, and another to undertake what they had undertaken not to undertake—namely, isolated action."

Mr. Chamberlain made a most effective speech by dwelling on the extraordinary amount of the interests which England had in Egypt, in which he especially included the number of persons who had been induced to trade in the country by the promise of security. While he admitted that those who speculate in foreign countries must take the consequences of the risks they encounter, he at the same time resented the notion that all persons who lend money to foreign states were unworthy of the least consideration. His words were a little vague about the future of the bondholders: he hinted that hereafter they must make their own arrangements for themselves. This might refer only to future creditors of Egypt, or it might mean that England would not trouble herself any more to carry out the existing arrangements for the liquidation of the debt. From other assertions of Mr. Gladstone, it would seem that the last is not the meaning. It is probable that the Conservative party will not encourage Egyptian repudiation, and a large party among the Liberals will join to resist any change in the working of a scheme of liquidation which has once been deliberately settled by the British Government, and round which complicated vested interests have grown up.

The main controversy between the Government and the Opposition has turned upon how far the present troubles in Egypt and the resistance to European influence have sprung from the institution of the dual Control, and to what extent this Control owes its recent character to the acts of a Conservative or of a Liberal Government in England. It is argued by the Conservatives that the most they did in instituting the original Control in 1876 was to help the Khedive Ismaïl in arranging with his creditors and preparing his accounts according to European methods; and for this purpose skilled European financiers were attached to the Egyptian Cabinet, to be permanently at hand as supervisors of all liabilities and expenditures incurred from time to time. The Liberals reply that mere clerks with financial experience would have served so much of this purpose as was not unjustifiable intervention on the part of England and of France; and that there was contained in the original dual Control the probability and, indeed, the necessity of political aggression. To this some (but not all) of the Conservative speakers reply, that neither the original Control of 1876 nor the revived and amended Control of 1879 contained the necessary elements of political aggressiveness, but that the careless diplomacy of Mr. Gladstone's Government, and their ill-fated attempts to coöperate with France, and withal to conciliate Turkey, brought about a state of things which left Egypt defenceless before the first shock of revolution.

Lord Salisbury pointed out that there is always much in diplomacy, and in the printed records of diplomacy, which does not meet the eye; and this argument—which was introduced for a different purpose—may be used for the defence no less than for the defamation of the Government. There is no doubt that the difficulties which the English Government have encountered in conciliating and coöperating with the French in Egypt have been greater than will ever be told. It has been seldom that a French Consul-General, Commissioner, Controller, or Administrator has been of one mind with his English colleague, or indeed has not been silently and secretly counter-plotting him. At the last, it was transparent that the attitudes of the English and the French officials in Egypt were quite opposed on the critical question of the day, the French being disposed to compromise with Arabi, and the English consistently viewing his pretensions with uncompromising opposition.

The speeches of Mr. Goschen, Mr. Bourke (Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in the last Conservative Government), and Sir H. Wolff, on the third day of the debate, brought out into clearer relief some historical aspects of the question, as affecting the responsibilities of the Conservative and the Liberal Governments for the present state of things. Mr. Goschen's speech has been more commended on all sides than any other single speech in the course of the debate. His personal experiences as adviser of the Egyptian Government at the time that the British Government first lent its services to Ismaïl to liberate him from his insolvent condition, rendered him an authority of the highest kind at this crisis. He assured "those who took an interest in such matters as the slave-trade, the better government of Eastern Rumelia, and the position of the Christian population in Armenia, that those objects would not only be compromised, but in all probability frustrated for ever, if England were to allow herself, by the terrorism of massacre, to be driven out of Egypt." Mr. Goschen, also, was strongly of opinion that, as far as military and naval operations went, the Government should act alone. He derided the notion of any value attaching to the "moral support" of Turkey, and pointed out that France would be hampered in her action in Egypt by the possible enemies on her borders, and by the weakness of her successive Governments, which prevented a continuity of policy being insured. Mr. Bourke imputed to the Government that they had not been firm enough with the French, but had tacitly accepted all their policy throughout, including that by which, when the insurrection began, the French set themselves decisively against all physical or moral intervention. "Her Majesty's Government ought," he said, "to have told France fairly and broadly that they could not follow the policy she had marked out."

Mr. Gladstone, in summing up the debate on the fourth day, mainly rested the whole defence of the Government policy on the inherent difficulties of the position created by the dual Control. He admitted that when the Control was first inaugurated it was not intended directly to intervene in the government of Egypt, but he held that the revived Control, as recognized by Lord Salisbury in 1879, at the outset of the present Khedive's reign, involved by its nature political interference. It was the Controller who had come into direct conflict with the Chamber of Notables, and who had called upon the British and French Governments to part company with it at a moment before Arabi had acquired complete domination over it, and identified the military with so much as existed of a national party. Finally, Mr. Gladstone insisted strongly on the value of the efforts his Government had made throughout to obtain and retain the cooperation of France, even at the risk of making considerable concessions, such as those which related to inviting the aid of Turkey. He was of opinion that but for conciliating France throughout, a general European war might have resulted.

The vote of credit was agreed to by 275 against 19. The minority was composed, in a large measure, of Irish members, followers of Mr. Parnell, besides Sir Wilfrid Lawson and Mr. Richard.

It will be seen that all sides of the House are, with rare unanimity, agreed on the substantial facts of the case, and eager to support the Government policy, the main point of disagreement having relation to the history of the Control and the advisability of deferring so constantly to France and the other European Powers. A.

THE RESTORED CASTLE OF CHANTILLY.

PARIS, July 20, 1882.

THE restoration of the Château of Chantilly was undertaken by the Duc d'Aumale as soon as he returned from his long exile in England, after the war of 1870. It showed no small confidence in the country, which had just got through the horrors of the Commune; but if anybody had the duty of giving to France such a mark of confidence, it was the descendant of the old royal family which had ruled over it for centuries. The Château of Chantilly was originally a little stronghold, built on a sort of rock, surrounded on all parts by marshes and by the branches of a little river which is called the Nonette. This little fortress played a part in

the long wars between France and England at the time when the river Oise formed the disputed boundary between the French and the English. The first proprietor of the Château was Bouteiller of Senlis; it passed afterward into the hands of the Montmorencys, who kept Chantilly for a very long time—the great Constable Montmorency chose it for his favorite residence. It came into the Condé family when the last Montmorency was beheaded for treason, by order of Richelieu; Louis XIII. confiscated the estate, and gave it to Montmorency's widow, who was a Princess of Condé. The estate remained in the hands of the Condés during the seventeenth, the eighteenth, and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries. The last Duc de Bourbon, who had no children, left it by will to the Duc d'Aumale. The Château had many vicissitudes, in an artistic as well as in an historical sense. It was once a castle of the Middle Ages; it was rebuilt in the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries, and you will find in Du Cerceau's great architectural work excellent drawings of it as it was built by the famous Jean Bullant. The Duc d'Aumale has in his archives some accounts of Jean Bullant, in which he modestly styles himself mason, not architect.

There remains a part of Jean Bullant's work completely intact—namely, the little castle, or lower castle, called the Châtelet. There were always two castles, a low one and a higher one, separated by a moat and connected by a drawbridge. The Châtelet is admitted by all architects to be a model of the architecture of the French Renaissance; they admire the originality and simplicity of its lines, the beautiful proportion between the *pleins* and the *vides*—that is to say, between the openings (windows or doors) and the solid parts or walls, the forms of the roofs and chimneys, the sobriety and elegance of the whole building. The moat which separated the Châtelet from the Château no longer exists, and the Châtelet is attached directly to the Château. This last building was not always the gigantic pile which you see in Du Cerceau. Built on a polygonal basis formed by the rock itself, this substructure, with its vaults and galleries, has never been changed, but the castle which was standing on it was completely altered: it had become, at the end of the eighteenth century, a sort of immense and ugly barrack, limited by four towers at its corners. After the French Revolution this was completely demolished to the level of the substructure, and there was nothing left over the kitchens, vaults, and underground galleries but a large polygonal terrace.

It is on this terrace that the Duc d'Aumale has built the new Castle, which he has opened recently to the public. The general, I might say the universal, impression has been very favorable to this reconstruction. The new Castle is in the style of the French Renaissance; it is inspired in all its details by the admirable Châtelet of Jean Bullant. You approach it by a road which leads to a great terrace, in the middle of which is the model of the equestrian statue of the Constable of Montmorency, which is in preparation in the atelier of Dubois, so famous already for his admirable tomb of Lamoricière. The Duke chose Dubois for this work though he had never made a horse; but Dubois is intelligent, he knows the best models, he has worked very hard on the anatomy of the horse, and we may be sure that his definitive work will be fine. The figure of the Constable, as it is now, is fine: the old warrior carries the sword of Constable in his hand, and he seems to stop his horse before the door of his castle. He stands directly opposite the great entrance, which reminds one a little of the famous *cour du baptistère* of Fontainebleau. A bridge connects the terrace of the Constable with the high inner court, and the court has in front a high and open portico. The great central door is adorned with two excellent copies of the "Slaves" of Michael Angelo. The Duc d'Aumale remembered that the original "Slaves" (which were destined for the tomb of a Pope) had been presented to the Constable of Montmorency by a Strozzi, who had been obliged to exile himself from Florence, and who had taken service in the French army. These two statues had been afterward left by the last Montmorency to Richelieu, who gave them to the King; and they are now in the Museum of the Louvre. When you enter the *cour d'honneur*, as it is called, you find in the left corner of the court the Chapel, which is not yet finished inside. It is a little jewel of architecture, adorned on the outside by a statue of Saint Louis, who carries in his hands a crown of thorns. The glass-windows come from the Château d'Écouen, which belonged to the Montmorencys; they represent the Constable and his wife at prayer with their numerous children. The altar comes also from Écouen; it is a very fine work of the Renaissance, of which the centre-piece is the sacrifice of the son of Abraham. The woodwork which will cover the walls is of great beauty, but is still in preparation.

Let us leave the Chapel and enter into the first hall. This hall is at the head of a beautiful elliptical staircase, which now connects the lower building, or Châtelet, with the higher building. The staircase and the hall are considered very original by all architects. The decoration is severe: it is made with old pieces of faïence, with bronze and marble busts, with old tapestry; but the bare stone predominates, and gives a noble and palatial look to the whole. This hall leads on one side to the upper story of the old Châtelet, of which I will not speak at present; and on the other side to the interior of the new building. First comes the dining-room. There is nothing finer in Fontainebleau than this gigantic hall, adorned with magnificent tapestries of enormous size, representing the various episodes of a stag-hunt. These tapestries, which are called the tapestries of the Guises, received new borders at the time of the Comte de Provence; they were made in Flanders, and their coloring is remarkably well preserved. The roof, which is all in compartments (*caissons*), shows the arms of all the various proprietors of Chantilly; the cornice is adorned with a series of stag-horns. The head of a white stag (a variety now extinct, once imported from Lithuania), comes out from the wall and makes a fine effect. Over the huge chimney, Baudry has painted the miracle of Saint Hubert. The saint, who was a Merovingian warrior, has dismounted; a page holds the head of his horse. He climbs the rocks, surrounded by his dogs, and sees before him the white stag, with a brilliant cross between his two horns. Baudry has given to the Saint the likeness of the Duc de Chartres, and the young page resembles exactly the Duc d'Orléans, the son of the Comte de Paris. The windows of this huge hall are replaced at night by mirrors; windows and mirrors are movable, like doors which run on wheels; they can retire into the wall or come out at will. The effect at night is very fine when all these mirrors reflect the light of the bronze torches, copied from Venetian models. Over the door there is a great balcony, large enough to receive a band of musicians, who play during the gala-repasts. The table can receive eighty guests; but it can be so subdivided that any inferior number of people can be accommodated.

The banqueting-room opens on the great picture-gallery, which deserves a long description by itself. The collection is chiefly composed of that once owned by the Prince of Salerno, who was the Duc d'Aumale's father-in-law. The Duke bought it when the Prince died. The pictures are perfectly authentic, have suffered no indiscreet restoration, and were for a very long time in the hands of the royal family of Naples. There are some fine pictures by Carracci, by Titian, by Poussin, by Morone. The other pictures noticeable in this gallery are, the view of Scheveningen by Ruysdaal, some fine Vandeveldes, a great number of Decampses, a Meissonier, some Horace Vernets, Philippe de Champagnes, Ary Scheffers, a great number of portraits of the last century. At the end of the gallery there is a tribune of a circular shape, which is in one of the towers of the Château. It is devoted to Prudhon, and completely covered by his admirable drawings. From the windows of the tribune of Prudhon one sees the magnificent gardens designed by Lenôtre, the *parterres* with their marble statues, their basins, their water-works. This French garden extends as far as the great moat, which was the work of the Grand Condé.

A long gallery runs along one of the faces of the Castle. It shows the *vitraux* of Écouen, representing the history of Psyche, from the drawings of Raphael. These windows are a monument of art. They were made in the sixteenth century, and are extremely interesting on account of their origin and of the singular beauty of the drawings of Raphael. The wall which runs opposite the windows showing the history of Psyche is quite covered with a collection of historical portraits by Clouet and his school. You can see there the most authentic portraits of the Prince of Orange, of Coligny and his brothers, of the first Condés, of the Valois, their wives and their children.

From this gallery you go into the *Tribune*, another tower with a circular room. Here are the gems of the Duke's collection, of which I reserve a description for another letter. The *Tribune* leads back by a small passage into the great banqueting-hall. The surface of the Castle's polygon being very irregular, the architect was obliged everywhere to adapt his plans to this irregularity. He has united the towers by galleries. This want of symmetry is pleasing: it gives originality to the whole work, and from the windows the view is ever changing. M. Daumet, who made this restoration, has been recompensed for his labors by a high prize of the Institute.

"PARSIFAL" AT BAYREUTH.

THE FIRST PERFORMANCE.

BAYREUTH, July 26, 1882.

AT ten minutes past 4 yesterday the first performance began. The introduction to "Parsifal," which unites some of the most charming motives in the drama, is a symphonic prelude of wonderful beauty, destined soon to become a favorite in concert halls. Before its last notes have died away the curtain parts in the middle and shows the spectator a shadowy but not gloomy landscape in the neighborhood of the Castle Monsalvat in northern Spain, the Grailsburg, which was built by *King Titurel* and his knights as a sanctuary for the holy grail that was brought to them by angels. The grail has the same qualities that the earth has for Antæus, or Freia for the gods in Walhalla—it rejuvenates and invigorates the holy knights who are privileged to behold it whenever the King uncovers it, and it thus enables them to perform their duties, which consist in punishing misdeeds and defending innocence among mortals, as we see in the case of *Lohengrin*, in Wagner's drama, who goes forth on his swan-boat to protect *Elsa* from her unjust accusers. When *Titurel* found the end of his allotted life ap-

proaching, his son *Amfortas* was crowned king of the brotherhood. But *King Amfortas* succumbed to a temptation which had already brought misfortune to many of his knights.

Not far from Monsalvat is the castle of *Klingsor*, the wizard. *Klingsor*, the representative of heathen sensuality, had once endeavored to secure admission to the holy brotherhood. But he lacked the requisite purity of heart and conduct, and freedom from worldly desires, to obtain which he resorted to self-mutilation. Repulsed from the Grailsburg, he swore vengeance on the knights, and in his magic castle he now holds many of them as captives to the charms of his lovely maidens. *King Amfortas*, when he went forth to annihilate the sorcerer and his castle, fell a victim to the wiles of *Kundry*, the most beautiful of the unhappy females enslaved by *Klingsor*. *Kundry* is a sort of female wandering Jew, the Herodias of German legend, who laughed at the Saviour when he bore his cross. For this she was condemned to "cursed laughter," and to wander about the earth until she could again find a saviour to release her from her curse by his love. *Klingsor* had gained control over her through his magic arts, and now compels her to aid him in reducing the number of faithful knights, so that he may ultimately satisfy his desire of gaining possession of the grail. While *King Amfortas* is ensnared by *Kundry's* charms, *Klingsor* snatches from him his holy spear—the spear with which Longinus had pierced the Saviour's side, and which *Titurel* had received with the grail. With this spear he inflicts on *Amfortas* a painful wound, which henceforth forever exposes him to the most woful torments.

These events, which precede the drama proper, are made known to the audience in an epic or episodic form during the first act, which also contains some of the most stirring dramatic incidents in the play. When the curtain is drawn, *Gurnemanz*, a robust and hale old knight, and two young pages are seen asleep under a tree. *Gurnemanz* awakes at the sounds of invisible trombones blowing a morning call in the direction of the Grailsburg. He rouses his companions, and bids them go to the lake and prepare the wounded King's morning bath. As they retire toward the lake, which is seen in the background, they suddenly behold a horse, with a female rider, dashing wildly along, almost flying. It is *Kundry*, who in hours of freedom always endeavors to atone by some good service for the harm she does the knights while under the influence of *Klingsor's* spell. She is arrayed in a short dress, held together by a girdle of snakeskins; her black hair flows in disorder over her shoulders; her complexion is dark brown, and her eyes piercingly black, now wild in expression and anon fixed in a dead stare. In her hand she has a small flask, which she gives to *Gurnemanz*, and then throws herself on the ground, exhausted.

The King's approach is now heard. He is conveyed in a litter, accompanied by knights and esquires. From *Gurnemanz* he receives the flask, and hears that *Kundry* has brought it as balm for his wound from Arabia. He expresses his gratitude, but has no hope in the remedy, for he knows he can only expect a cure through one whom the grail has announced to him as his saviour. "By pity enlightened, a guileless fool; Wait for him, my chosen tool"—these were the words that once appeared in magic letters on the rim of the holy vessel while he lay before it in fervent prayer. The procession now moves on toward the lake, while the esquires remain taunting the mysterious *Kundry*, when suddenly the whiz of an arrow, imitated in a strikingly realistic manner by the orchestra, followed by weird, swan-motive harmonies from "Lohengrin," is heard. A wounded swan slowly flies across the lake, and then falls down dying. The *Parsifal* motive announces the appearance of the culprit who has thus ruthlessly killed one of the animals sacred in these precincts. In an affecting passage, in which words and music are alike beautiful, *Gurnemanz* reproaches *Parsifal*, who at first boasts of his skill in having killed the bird "on the wing," but, after listening to the old knight, follows a sudden impulse and breaks his bow in pieces. The question who he is and where from he professes to be unable to answer, when *Kundry* interrupts the dialogue and announces that he is the son of *Gamuret*, who gave birth to him after the death of his father, who fell in battle. To save her son from a similar fate she reared him in a deep forest, ignorant of the world and his parentage.

Parsifal now remembers that one day he saw some armed horsemen, with beautiful horses, whom he endeavored to follow. Soon he lost sight of them, and, with self-constructed weapons, fought his way through the various dangers that beset him. *Kundry* replies that his mother is dead—that his departure broke her heart; whereupon *Parsifal* is seized by such sudden regret and horror that he threatens violence to the unhappy messenger of these tidings; but *Gurnemanz* protects her from his fury. A sudden trembling and fatigue now overcome *Kundry*, who retires into the forest to sleep. The magic motive of *Klingsor* in the orchestra explains that it is his spell which calls her thus to his castle. *Gurnemanz* suspects that *Parsifal* may be the "guileless fool" who is chosen to relieve the King, and accordingly invites him to follow him to the Grailsburg. As they seem to walk from left to right, the scene gradually changes; the forest disappears, and wild rock takes its place; a door opens amidst walls of stone, which they enter. Sounds of bells and trombones are heard coming nearer and nearer. At last they arrive in a large hall, ending above in a vaulted dome, through which alone light is admitted. A door opens on each side, through one of which the Knights of the Grail enter in procession, singing a solemn chorus. While they take places at two long tables their voices are joined by those of youths in the mid-height of the dome, and boys' voices at the summit. Through the opposite door another procession enters bearing *Amfortas* in his litter. It is the King's duty to uncover the grail, to rejuvenate his knights; but he longs to be relieved of this duty, as it gives him, too, renewed vitality and prolongs the agony of his existence. The voice of *Titurel*, however, urges him on, and he at last uncovers the grail. Darkness has meanwhile spread over the hall so that the grail is distinctly seen gradually glowing with a purple lustre. *Amfortas* raises it and gently swings it about on all sides—the whole act being accompanied by music of the most super-terrestrial, ethereal character, like a halo of sound. *Gurnemanz* invites *Parsifal* to take part in the supper, but *Parsifal* remains standing lost in mute astonishment at these proceedings. After the knights have again departed, the disappointed *Gurnemanz* shakes *Parsifal* by the arm and bids him depart:

> "Leave thou our swans in future alone,
> And seek thyself, gander, a goose."

The first is by far the longest of the three acts; its duration being over an hour and a half, while the others are somewhat over an hour each. It contains situations as fine as any Wagner has ever conceived, the most affecting scene being the uncovering of the grail, followed by the triple chorus of knights, youths, and boys at different altitudes above the stage—the effect of which can be approximately judged of from the wonderful beauty of the trio of Rhine daughters from an elevated position, as heard at the late musical festival in New York. The idea is similar to that which Wagner, early in his career, used in his cantata "Das Liebesmahl der Apostel"; and as thus transplanted it is eminently dramatic—that is, in harmony with the character of the situation. The gradual glowing of the grail is effected by means of a current of electricity with which it is supplied by means of a thin wire. The effect is exceedingly impressive. The flight of the swan, like that of the spear which remains suspended over *Parsifal's* head in the second act, and of the dove which hovers over him at the close of the third, is also managed in a clever and thoroughly artistic manner.

The contents of the second and third acts may be summed up in fewer words. After an agitated introduction by the orchestra the spectator finds himself transferred to *Klingsor's* magic castle—at first in the inside of a tower open at its top. Magic implements are scattered about everywhere. *Klingsor* summons *Kundry* by lighting a bluish flame in the background of the stage. When *Kundry* appears he commands her, in spite of her pitiful protests, to use her beauty and persuasiveness to ruin *Parsifal*, who is already seen by him approaching the castle. He calls out to the knights to defend themselves, but *Parsifal* soon puts them all to flight. The tower now slowly sinks out of sight, and its place is taken by a magic garden full of tropical vegetation and the most luxuriant large flowers. A number of beautiful damsels in light attire rush on the stage and bewail the loss of their playmates until they behold *Parsifal*. While some flirt about him, others disappear in an arbor, whence they soon return arrayed in flowers, looking like living flowers themselves. *Parsifal* regards the spectacle unmoved and unyielding, when presently *Kundry's* voice is heard calling out his name, "*Parsifal*, remain!" The flower-girls reluctantly retire, not without a parting fling at the "guileless fool," who is now at the mercy of *Kundry's* charms. With true feminine art she wins his confidence by telling of the last moments of his mother. *Parsifal*, overcome with grief, sinks down at her feet, when she raises his head and gives him his mother's last greeting and the first long kiss of love. With an expression of consternation *Parsifal* jumps to his feet, and pushes *Kundry* away. Her kiss, like a sudden pang, gives him a presentiment of *Amfortas's* sufferings, and at once the whole situation dawns on him. Hitherto he has only been the "guileless fool"; now he is also, "through pity, enlightened." *Kundry* refuses to listen to his explanation that to grant her his love would condemn her to a new lease of her cursed existence. She invokes a curse on him—a curse which shall compel him to go about the world searching in vain for *King Amfortas*. Her cries summon *Klingsor* to the castle wall, whence he hurls *Amfortas's* holy spear at him. The spear remains suspended over the head of *Parsifal*, who seizes it and describes the shape of a cross. Instantaneously, as through an earthquake, the castle vanishes, the garden is transformed into a desert, and the maidens lie as withered flowers on the ground. The suddenness of this transformation is one of the greatest of modern scenic marvels, and, like some of the other effects, it shows that the machinist, Fritz Brandt, is determined to emulate the fame of his father, Carl Brandt, who constructed the Nibelung machinery, and planned some of the contrivances to be used in "Parsifal" before death took him away, about a year ago.

The third act contains so few incidents that it will be pronounced undramatic by those who hold that the essence of the drama consists in rapid and varied action. But in a higher sense

of the word—that in which "Tristan and Isolde" is Wagner's most dramatic work—the third act of "Parsifal" is also highly dramatic, for in it the development and conflict of emotions are intensely and vividly portrayed. At the beginning of the third act, after a weird and sad introduction of great beauty, we see a smiling meadow at the borders of a forest; in the background, a simple hermit's hut. It belongs to *Gurnemanz*, who now appears as a very old man. Strange, mournful sounds, proceeding from behind a bush, induce him to search for their cause. It is *Kundry*, now again the simple, homely servant of the grail, and no longer the fascinating queen of *Klingsor's* flower garden. She is disinclined to speak, but goes into the hut to work. Looking about him, *Gurnemanz* espies a knight in full armor approaching. He bids him respect the laws of this holy place, which forbid any one on Good Friday to bear arms. *Parsifal* complies, and *Gurnemanz* now recognizes him, as well as the holy spear, at sight of which he breaks forth in joyous exclamations, heralding the King's release from his torments—for only then can his wounds be closed when they are touched by the "guileless fool" with the same spear that inflicted them. *Gurnemanz* relates how, since *Parsifal's* departure, the knights have been deprived of the blessing of the grail, since the King refuses to uncover it—hoping thus to starve out his life even as *Titurel's* came to an end after long privation. Once more on this day, however, the grail is to be uncovered. The scene changes back to that which closes the first act, in the Grailsburg. Two processions of knights again appear, one with *Amfortas* on his litter, the other with *Titurel's* bier, accompanied by the strains of a majestic funeral march. *Amfortas* refuses to perform his task—to be once more brought back to painful life from the brink of death. He tears open his bandages and begs his companions to kill him, when *Parsifal* appears and touches the wounds with his spear. He then takes the grail in his hand while a halo of light is shed over all. A dove descends and hovers over the head of the new King, *Parsifal*. *Kundry* sinks slowly to the ground, lifeless, while *Amfortas* and *Gurnemanz* do homage on their knees to *Parsifal*. It is a magnificent final tableau.

As time is short and art-criticism at Bayreuth long, I must defer some general æsthetic remarks on the poem, and the music, and the relations of "Parsifal" to Wagner's other dramas, until after the second or third performance. The reception of the new drama last evening was very enthusiastic. After the first act there was prolonged applause for Wagner, the spectators all facing round toward his box, as it was understood that the artists had agreed not to appear before the curtain so as not to interrupt the illusion. After the second act the applause was so demonstrative that Wagner was obliged to come forward and explain that the refusal to appear before the curtain was not stubbornness on any one's part, but a desire that the artists should only be seen within the frame of the art work. This was interpreted by the audience as a desire on his part that there should be no applause, and accordingly the third act, the grandest of all, was received in silence—a curious illustration of the absolute subjection of the Wagnerites to their master's command. But Wagner again came forward to explain that he had been misunderstood; at the end of the performance he was the first to applaud the artists for their admirable work. A perfect tornado of applause and calls of "Artists," and "Bravo" now burst out; but the artists were already busy with their wardrobe and could not appear. This was a pity, for they deserved the most unqualified approval of the audience. The cast, down to the smallest details, was as perfect as it can only be at Bayreuth. To prove this I need only state that the parts of *Kundry*, *Gurnemanz*, *Parsifal* and *Amfortas* were taken respectively by Frau Materna and Herr Scaria, of Vienna, Herr Winkelmann, of Hamburg, and Herr Reichmann, of Munich. The choruses of knights, youths, and boys were beautifully sung, as well as the flower-girls' chorus, which was very effective and stirring. All the vocalists pronounced their words with a distinctness which if emulated elsewhere would soon make obsolete the reading of text-books during a performance; and most wonderful of all was the perfect accordance in time and tune between the various musical factors, invisible to one another—the orchestra, the choruses, the vocalists, and the brass-band and bells on the stage. To those who had not been at Bayreuth before, last night's performance must have been a revelation.

BISMARCK AFTER THE CRIMEAN WAR.—II.

BERLIN, July 12.

AFTER having shown that a most intimate alliance between France and Russia will be a natural result of the Paris peace, Bismarck discusses the chances of other possible alliances among the great European Powers.

"Austria," he continues, "will have to share the dangers created for Europe by the connection between Russia and France, and must avert them by timely sacrifices, by either making concessions in Italy for advantages to be obtained in Germany, or else strengthening herself against attacks by treaties with other Powers. I believe that she will choose the first alternative, and that she will try to gain Russia's confidence by a personal change of her Ministry. Austria will only in case of the utmost necessity avail herself of our or of English support. If she should endeavor to make us guarantee her foreign possessions by new treaties, I do not believe she would use such a treaty for any other purpose than to parade it on the diplomatic field to her advantage and to our injury. Even supposing that arrogance and hatred should allow the Vienna Cabinet to ask for English assistance, or to have the hereditary imperial provinces protected by Prussia, Austria is, on the other hand—even if strengthened by an alliance with us and with England—too cautious to engage in a serious struggle against France and Russia, if it can be avoided *per fas et nefas*. She will consider the party of the Teutonic nations (*Germanen*) too weak for her to join, and in my opinion she will be right in this respect.

"If it could be expected that in such a war Prussia, Austria, the German Confederation, and England would coöperate sincerely, intimately, and confidently with their full power, it would be cowardice to doubt a victory. But that is not the actual situation of affairs. Suppose that England should resolutely stick to us, and that in spite of the French, Russian, and perhaps the American, Danish, and even Dutch fleets, she should succeed in keeping off an invasion, in victoriously maintaining herself on the sea, and in protecting the German shores and in occasionally harassing the French coasts with 10,000 to 20,000 men. Such an energetic way of acting would surpass my expectations, but nevertheless the Continental war against the armies of Russia and France would chiefly rest on the shoulders of Germany. The four last army corps of the German Confederation have not the military efficiency of those of a great Power, and how many of them would fight on our side would only be proved by success. Supported by an alliance of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, the Confederation would fairly hold together so long as it believed in the final victory of those Powers, be it with or without the participation of the Middle States. In such a doubtful case, however, as a war against East and West the princes *au fur et à mesure* would secure themselves by neutrality treaties if they did not oppose us in the field."

"In any real danger, as in face of a French, Russian, and Austrian alliance, the old Federal treaties will not hold out. Last year I was told over and over again by the leading ministers of Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, Darmstadt, and Nassau, that they considered it their honest duty to give up the Confederation if the interest of their respective countries, or the personal security of their respective princes, would be endangered by their sticking to the said Confederation. . . . Backed by a million soldiers of the Holy Alliance, it may appear pretty durable. As matters stand now, I am fully convinced that a real danger from without does not exist. There is no need either of enlightening the foreign Powers by the pilgrimages of the Beusts, Pfordtens, Dalwigks, and other small fry to Paris, nor does it require an extraordinary seduction to draw the rats out of the house when it is threatening to fall down. The foreign ministers here listen with a sarcastic politeness when we occasionally speak of a Confederate war in grand style. The seriousness of the Roman augurs of the old school is necessary to the Diet in order to revive thoroughly the military constitution of the Confederacy.

"It would not have been different if the Holy Alliance had gone to pieces sooner, but we owe it to the Austrian policy of the last two years, which reached its culminating point in the treaty of December and in the note of January 14, that the inner rottenness of the Confederacy has become so apparent and generally known at home and abroad. The Confederation could hold itself free from any of the wars of the two great Powers without breaking its constitution, if one-third of its votes (such as Frankfort, Nassau, Luxemburg, Hesse-Darmstadt, Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria) refused consent to the declaration of war. They, however, do not dare so to do; they rather vote and leave us in the cold. Shall we be able to defend ourselves in alliance with Austria against East and West, if Sardinia, probably the Belgian army, and a part of the German Confederation be united with the latter? If everything were as it ought to be, I would not despair; but the Emperor Francis Joseph is not in the same degree master of his provinces and of his subjects as our King. Austria on the offensive is an enemy not to be trifled with. She can employ more than 200,000 good soldiers beyond her boundaries, and besides keep enough of them at home to watch over her Italians, Magyars, and Slavs. On the defensive, however, and attacked within her own boundaries from East and West, the present Austria seems to me to be rather weak, as at the first successful shock of the invader the whole artificial structure of Bach's and Buol's regiment of clerks (*Schreiberregiment*) will tumble down like a house of cards."

"Besides this danger I see a still greater one in the fact that even in the greatest common peril a Prussian and Austrian alliance would be just the reverse of what a sincere alliance ought to be. Mutual political distrust, political and military suspicion on the part of the one lest the other might, by special treaties with the enemy, prevent the aggrandizement of the other when successful, but secure its own salvation when unsuccessful—all these considerations would in this case be even stronger and more paralyzing than in any ill-arranged alliance of the past. The generals would grudge a victory to each other until it would be too late. In our own history we have the records of the treaties of Vossem and St. Germain, the recollection of our defeat at the Vienna Congress, which justify us in distrusting the results of an Austrian coalition; and the politics of the last two years proves that Macchiavellian practices have not been discarded. Austria would perhaps propose to give us guarantees by a change of her responsible men after Buol had lost credit and confidence with all cabinets; but the traditional policy of Austria toward us would not be set aside by such a policy, and I would trust the old fox in a new pelt as little as the old one when shedding his summer hair. According to Vienna politics, Germany is too small for both of us. As long as we have not arrived at and executed a fair settlement as to the influence of each of us in Germany, so long we shall both plough the same acre and so long will Austria remain the only state by which we can suffer lasting losses, and from which we can gain lasting advantages."

"By the Concordat and its consequences this historical and necessary friction has recently been increased, and the understanding has been aggravated. We have, however, besides these difficulties, a large number of conflicting interests, which neither of us can give up without resigning the mission in which each of us believes, and these cannot be disentangled by diplomatic and peaceful correspondence. Even the heaviest pressure from without, the most urgent danger threatening the existence of both of us, could not, either in 1813 or in 1849, forge the iron. The German dualism for a thousand years occasionally, and since Charles V. in every century, has regulated its relations by a thorough internal

war, and in this century also no other means than war can set the clock of its development at the right hour. By thus reasoning I do not propose to arrive at the conclusion that under the most favorable circumstances we should direct our policy toward effecting the decision between Austria and ourselves. I only wish to express my conviction that in not too long a time we shall have to fight for our own existence against Austria, and that it is not in our power to prevent such a war, because the march of events in Germany offers no other outlet."

"If this, my opinion, be correct, which of course is more a question of personal belief than of proof, it will be impossible for Prussia to carry her self-abnegation so far as to jeopardize her own existence in order to protect the integrity of Austria, and that in a conflict which in my eyes will be hopeless. Among the many difficulties with which our side would be saddled in such a struggle, I have not mentioned those which lie in the peculiar state of English affairs. Since the Reform Bill the hereditary wisdom of former days has not been able to clear the passions of an inordinate party feeling and partisanship. It is impossible for me to gain confidence where a newspaper article is of more importance than the considerations of a statesman. On account of her insular security it is very easy for England to support or drop a Continental ally according to her wants, and a change in the Ministry is sufficient for effecting and justifying a *revirement*, as Prussia experienced in the Seven Years' War. The mutual aversion and the commensurate arrogance of Austria and England, and the political and religious contrast between them, will in many ways loosen and cripple an alliance of the two; and if we really remain victorious against a Franco-Russian alliance, what have we, after all, fought for? For the preservation of the Austrian preponderance in Germany, and the miserable constitution of the Confederation. For such ends we cannot possibly stake the last remnant of our strength and jeopardize our existence. If, however, in company with Austria, we should try to carry out changes in our favor, we should fare as in 1815. At the right moment Austria would conclude new treaties of Ried and Fulda, and, in the long run, by treaties with the enemy, place herself in a favorable position to mete out to us, as at that time, the price of our victories.* As formerly, she avails herself of every means to prevent Prussia from arriving at a higher position in Germany, and to keep us in our awkward geographical boundaries, and under the unfavorable constitution of the Confederacy.

"In delineating what may appear to you eventualities and phantasms which may never be realized, I only justify my assertion that Austria will not even accept the chances of a German-Prussian-English alliance against Russia and France, apprehending that they are too weak and uncertain. If, therefore, it be true that Austria has already urged at Munich treaties for the guarantee of her Italian possessions, and that she intends similar steps in Berlin, that Count Buol has already visited Hanover and Dresden for the same purpose, I do not believe that these plans are prompted by the idea of collecting Germany under her flag, and of braving a world in arms. The Vienna Cabinet, on the contrary, intends to make diplomatic use of our or the other Governments' assurances in order to secure for herself better conditions at our expense for an understanding with Russia, and, if possible, with France. She will play *Don Giovanni*, at all courts, if she can misuse as robust a *Leporello* as Prussia; and in keeping with this rôle she will always be ready to draw herself out of the scrape and to leave us in it. If peace continues, she will thank us for our friendly feelings toward the solidarity of German interests by trying to draw the Zollverein out of our hands [as she did in 1862]; if war breaks out, she will, in spite of all the treaties in her pockets, not be prevented from obtruding with as much dexterity as safety on that side which offers her the best prospects of supremacy in Germany, which, in consequence of her centralizing German tendencies, is at present more necessary to her than ever before.

"I cannot believe that we or Bavaria should lend ourselves to such a one-sided business at a moment when the situation is not yet clear, when no danger appears, and no new political group is yet formed. By binding ourselves to Austria we should only tie ourselves to an incalculable and malevolent passenger on our voyage into the unknown sea of the future. In the year 1851, especially at its beginning, the danger of the revolution spreading beyond the limits of France and Italy was much nearer, and the monarchical Governments had a joint interest, as against this danger, which quite naturally created our treaty of May. A similar situation would recur after the French Empire had been overthrown. As long as it stands, however, the repulse of democrats is out of the question, and the cabinets have only to agree on a common policy, in which our and the Austrian interests do not coincide A treaty like that proposed by Austria for the protection of her Italian provinces would only prematurely provoke France, and cause a cooling of Russia toward us. Such consequences would be in the interest of Austria, and she would take care that the fact did not remain unknown in Petersburg and Paris; and, besides that, the culpability of the indiscretion would be thrown on our shoulders. However, in all and everything that Austria would like and be able to do without us, she would not feel herself confounded by the best Prussian or German treaties of guarantee. She used the treaty of April 20, 1854 [neutral guarantee of Austria and Prussia of the former's non-German provinces], for no other purpose than to make it sparkle in her own interest, to treat us badly, and to carry on a policy as double-tongued as unwise. On the other hand, our guarantee did not prevent her clandestinely entering into the treaty of December following, and acting with others as her interest dictated. If the calculations of Count Buol had not been defeated by the death of the Czar Nicholas and the unexpected yielding of the Emperor Alexander, we should not have become acquainted with Austria's thanks otherwise than by her secret opposition to our admission to the conferences.

"In my opinion, our situation, being that of a desired ally, is a very favorable one, as long as the new political groups are not too sharply delineated, as long as their activity remains diplomatic, and as long as a good understanding with one does not involve a rupture with the other. If, however, a Franco-Russian alliance with warlike purposes should be realized, we could and should not be among its adversaries, because we should very likely also succumb, or perhaps triumphantly bleed to death—*pour les beaux yeux de l'Autriche et de la Diète*. To keep open every chance, nothing seems to me at present required but a little more inexpensive friendship toward Louis Napoleon, and the refusal of each attempt to bind us, *gratuitement* and beforehand, to the heels of another power."

So far Bismarck. Three years later the Italian war was brought about by Louis Napoleon against Austria. The Prince of Prussia, then regent of the kingdom, went so far in contradiction to his future Chancellor's views as to intervene in Austria's behalf. Several Prussian army corps were under marching orders; but the Emperor of Austria concluded the sudden peace of Villafranca, preferring to sacrifice his best Italian provinces rather than that the Prince of Prussia should be chief commander of the united German-Austrian forces. Rather an ignominious defeat than an energetic war, the possible victories of which he would have had to share with the hated German rival! Seven years later the inborn animosity led to a new outbreak of hostilities, but this time King and Chancellor were guided by the same aspirations and tendencies. Königgrätz settled the old dispute of supremacy. Austria was put out of the Confederation, which was dissolved forever by Bismarck. The new German Empire rose from the ashes of a detested and contemptible political nondescript. Germany is herself again, Austria, too, is better off, and both countries live side by side in a state of friendship which, in the absence of colliding interests, is growing more intimate from day to day.

† † †

* It was in October, 1813 (not in 1815), that the Austrian Government concluded special treaties with Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, at Ried and Fulda, by which these kingdoms and grand duchy of Napoleon's grace obtained full indemnity for the past and the acknowledgment of their sovereignty and territorial extent, so that, as the peers of the great Powers, they made war against Napoleon. The Prussian patriot Stein wanted to have the petty kings of the above-named countries outlawed. Glorious old Blücher, when asked how he would like to have them dealt with, answered, "I prefer them cold." Metternich, however, carried his plans, and, to the detriment of Prussia, gained strong supporters for his future federal policy.

Correspondence.

MR. HAMERTON ON TRUTH TO NATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is not generally worth while to take notice of misrepresentations in reviews, but as the reviewer of 'The Graphic Arts' in the *Nation* has touched upon a doctrine of mine which I consider of especial importance, perhaps you will kindly allow me space to state what the doctrine really is. It refers to truth in art. Your reviewer says of me:

"In an early part of the book Mr. Hamerton reiterates the doctrine, which he has for some time held and taught—enunciating it most distinctly and fully in his 'Life of Turner'—that the business of an artist is to give æsthetic pleasure without necessary regard for truth to nature. He teaches that an artist may utterly violate all laws of truth with impunity. We hold this to be a very mistaken view of the matter. We agree with the proposition that it is an artist's business to give æsthetic pleasure; and we go so far, also, as to hold that if he does not give æsthetic pleasure, a man is not entitled to rank as an artist at all. But we entirely dissent from the doctrine that any æsthetic pleasure which does violence to nature can be worthy pleasure, or that any form of representative art which is not truthful can be good art. The limitations, or conventions, to which all art is more or less subject, are by no means of the nature of untruths. Against the idea that art should concern itself simply with physical facts, Mr. Hamerton has very justly contended; but we think he has been led too far, and that his present doctrine is calculated to cut the arts adrift from their proper moorings quite as effectually as ever the narrowest pre-Raphaelite doctrines did."

No doubt your contributor quite expresses the popular sentiment as his own, and it would only be natural if the great majority of your readers sided with him against me; but I should at least desire that they might be made acquainted with the real nature of my doctrine on this subject.

Careful observation of what has been actually done in the fine arts by the most famous men has fully convinced me that the exact delineation of nature and the exact imitation of natural color have not been the ultimate goal to which their different orders of genius have tended. We must remember always that severely truthful naturalism in art would be something very nearly resembling accurately-colored photography (not *quite* resembling it, for reasons which every reader acquainted with these matters will know). It would be like a camera-obscura image with inferior light. But, in fact, what do we see in the works of celebrated artists? We see, in the first place, that their paintings do not resemble the colored image in the camera obscura (which is the natural picture), and we see, again, *that the paintings of different men do not resemble each other*. On further and more minute investigation, we discover that these differences are occasioned by divergences from the positive truth; and when once we understand what the positive truth really is, and what a rigid, unaccommodating thing it is, we soon become able to measure the divergencies occasioned by individual preferences and feelings. Perfectly accurate art would be entirely devoid of passion: the expression of passion in art (which is highly desirable) *is always obtained by some kind of accent or emphasis which destroys the balance of the real truth*. An absolutely truthful painter would be keenly observant, yet without passion; and he would probably be most uninteresting. Now, with reference to the degree of liberty enjoyed by the artist: can he violate all natural truth with impunity? The answer to this question is, that an artist misses his purpose when he attracts attention to questions of truth

at all, because discussions about truth are f ata to the perfect enjoyment of his work, which is the delight in its beauty or the sense of its impressiveness.

Now, my theory is, that the real object of an artist, so far as truth is concerned, should be to escape discussions about it; but to escape these, I think it is obvious that there must be a considerable amount of truth in his work, and a very great amount of knowledge in his own mind. To give an example, I may say that an artist who made a drawing for me omitted the mouth in one of his faces. I said that omissions were often very permissible, and even necessary, in art; but that, as all human beings I had seen possessed mouths, it seemed desirable that the feature should not be omitted in the drawing. The reason for my criticism was not the falsity of a face without a mouth, but that the peculiarity attracted attention. There were other less obvious omissions in the same design that I did not complain of. Here, then, was a case (of a very elementary nature) in which a truth was essential, and thousands of other truths are essential in the same way, so that there is a vast amount of essential truth in art simply because the artist cannot afford to attract attention by its absence. And now let me pass to the introduction of falsities. Here is an example: I was in the studio of a very famous English artist, when he showed me a picture in progress. "I have been obliged, as you see," he said, "to put the architecture in my background in false perspective, because the true perspective looked wrong." I could only say that he acted wisely, and that a great master in similar circumstances would have done the same. A landscape-painter will sometimes introduce a false light—I mean a light which, under similar conditions, would not be possible in nature—and he will do it with clear knowledge that it is not natural, yet it may *look* more natural than the light calculated at its true angle. Things are often put in proportions which are intentionally false: the small size of the fishing-boats in Raphael's "Calling of Peter" is a well-known example. To be of any use as fishing-boats, they required to be at least three times that size; but, then, what would have become of the composition? It would have been a study of boats. The discrepancy between the boats and their work is of very little consequence, as few remark it, and those who do at once understand the reason for it.

In color, as in light and shade, arrangements are very frequently made for artistic reasons when they have very little reference to nature; and the higher the rank of the colorist, the stronger the color-faculty in him, the more will he be tempted to the employment of a kind of color which is to nature what the poems of Tennyson or Rossetti are to every-day conversation. Of course the work of a colorist has some foundation in nature: it is suggested by natural color, but it is really the product of human genius. Even when colorists suppose that they imitate nature (as by a facile illusion they sometimes do), they will tell you frankly that much of natural coloring is unsuitable for the purposes of art. One very good colorist told me that all the cold coloring of nature was unavailable except occasionally for contrast, yet there is a great deal of cold coloring in nature.

Your reviewer seems to be apprehensive that if my doctrines were generally admitted, they would be dangerous to art. Let me at once reassure him on this point. A candid and complete statement of the true state of the case can surely do no harm to art, while it may be of great benefit to criticism. It cannot be injurious to art, because, if the artist is not to draw attention to questions about truth at all, he must certainly have a great knowledge of truth. I have always maintained the necessity for knowledge, and always frankly expressed admiration for the knowledge displayed by great artists whose deviations from truth are frequent. Consequently, my teaching cannot have the effect of relaxing the industry of students. With regard to criticism, the effect of it can but be beneficial. What I dislike most in the common criticism of the day is its unfair application of the truth-test. Contemporary artists, especially when they are young, are often rudely condemned for deviations from truth which are as nothing in comparison with the far bolder deviations of great masters. If Mr. Briton Rivière were to draw lions as little like natural lions as those of Rubens, he would be treated with contemptuous severity; yet it has been the fashion among critics to extol Rubens as an animal-painter. "One of the greatest powers," says Kugler, "wielded by this almost universal genius is that of animal-painting. Horses, dogs, stags, wild boars, and especially ravenous animals, such as lions, tigers, panthers, wolves, and foxes, he renders alike with inconceivable mastery." No doubt Rubens *could* have painted lions truthfully if he had taken the trouble to study them; but, in fact, he only painted them with sufficient truth to satisfy the criticism of his own time; and so his animal-painting fulfilled the necessary condition of not attracting attention to truth, but it is quite unjust to modern artists to extol his work as if it were absolutely true. The same may be said of Rubens as a landscape-painter: he gave truth enough for his time, but he did not give absolute truth, or anything approaching to it.

If my doctrines were so dangerous as your reviewer imagines, I should not be so much encouraged in my work by the approval of artists. It is well known that, as a general rule, artists dislike writers on art, the reason being that writers on art so often positively prefer to remain ignorant of technical matters, whereas artists rightly consider that sound and thorough technical knowledge is the very foundation of art criticism. It has been said of me that I am the only writer on art whom artists read. This, of course, is an exaggeration; but it is quite true that I am supported by the opinion of artists to a remarkable degree. When I offered myself as a candidate for the Watson-Gordon professorship in the University of Edinburgh, my candidature was supported in very strong and decided terms by twelve Royal Academicians, including the President, besides several associates, and by ten Scottish Academicians. It was also supported by several foreign artists of eminence, who had some acquaintance with my work; and it has often happened to me to receive hearty encouragement from artists outside the Academy. This is very easily explained. Men whose lives have been devoted to these studies are naturally gratified to see that there is at least one writer on art who will take the trouble to ascertain the true nature of the difficulties against which artists have to contend—a writer who does not expect incompatible qualities; a writer who has himself studied nature as well as art, and who knows in what they differ. It has been my special work to demonstrate the importance of technical conditions in the expression of mental qualities; to show the inexorable nature of these conditions, and their enormous influence on performance—an influence comparable to that of the chosen instrument in music. The same musician may play on the violin, the piano, and the drum, but he can never make the violin give the harmonies of the piano, nor obtain from the piano the sustained notes of the violin, nor from the drum its range. No power of genius can get over the limits of the instrument. So it is in the graphic arts. They are, it is true, nothing more than instruments for the expression of that artistic genius which lies behind all of them; but the genius itself is affected as it passes through them. Some part of it may be kept back. The Titian of the pen-drawings is not the Titian of the paintings, but only a part of him. The Dürer of the woodcuts is not the Dürer of the intaglio engravings, but only a part of him. I certainly do not undervalue that general art-faculty which lies behind these instruments, and uses them as means, but I say that if you try to estimate artists without being at the pains to learn what are the conditions—the material conditions—of their work, you are little likely to do justice either to their artistic abilities or to such critical faculty as you may yourself possess.

Sincerely yours, P. G. Hamerton.

Autun, July 18, 1882.

[We agree with Mr. Hamerton that "the exact delineation of nature and the exact imitation of natural color" have never been, and can never be, the object of a great painter. Mr. Hamerton seems to us to write confusedly, and to criticise erroneously, owing to his limitation of the term "truth to nature." There is a higher and a lower truth to nature. Mrs. Jarley's wax-works exhibit the lower, Michael Angelo's "Fates" the higher. The higher truth to nature is truth, not to her appearance to the outward eye, but truth to her aspect to the eye of the imagination—truth to her essential meaning as interpreted by the poetic spirit in the soul of man. "The vision and the faculty divine" see and represent the higher truth; not the literal, visual fact, but that literal and visual fact according to the terms of art. In each art these terms differ. No man ever speaks in verse continuously in real life, but the characters of Shakspere are true to nature in doing so. But this truth to the imaginative vision and inward passion of the artist rests indissolubly in the exact, minute, and absolute knowledge of the truths of external nature. Our doctrine is as old as Aristotle, and we regret that Mr. Hamerton should mistake our meaning, and much more that he should use his justly-acquired influence in diffusing what we believe to be confused and mistaken teaching.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

James R. Osgood & Co.'s fall announcements include 'Jewish History and Home-Life in the Bible,' by Henrietta Lee Palmer; 'Bible Narrative,' in three volumes; Cruden's 'Concordance,' enlarged by the Rev. J. B. R. Walker; 'The Historical, Political, and Diplomatic Works of Niccolò Machiavelli,' translated by C. E. Detmold, in four volumes octavo; 'The Correspondence of Thomas Carlyle and Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1834–1872,' edited by Prof. C. E. Norton, in two volumes; 'The Life and Letters of Francis Lieber,' edited by Thomas Sergeant Perry; 'The Life of Dr. William Rimmer,' the sculptor, by T. H. Bartlett, with numerous illustrations from his works in statuary, painting, and drawing; 'Memoirs of John A. Dahlgren,' by his widow; 'Charles Albert Fechter,' by Kate Field, in the American Actor Series; 'The Works of James Abram Garfield,' edited by President Hinsdale; Lieut. Danenhower's 'Narrative of the *Jeannette*'; 'The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland,' by Mrs. Mary C. Robbins, illustrated; 'Parisian Art and Artists,' by Henry Bacon, illustrated; a translation of Gonse's 'Eugène Fromentin'; Howells's latest serial, 'A Modern

Instance'; a posthumous tale by Nathaniel Hawthorne, only recently discovered, 'Doctor Grimshawe's Secret'; Poole and Fletcher's 'Index to Periodical Literature' (in December); 'Poems,' by Margaret E. Sangster, and 'Poems of Love and Nature,' by Mary Clemmer; 'Old Love Letters, or Letters of Sentiment,' written by persons eminent in English literature and history, and edited by Mrs. Abby Sage Richardson; 'Short Sayings of Famous Men,' with historical and explanatory notes, by S. Arthur Bent; 'Nantucket Scraps,' by Mrs. Jane G. Austin; 'Spiritual Creation,' by Henry James; 'Chimes and Rhymes for Holiday Times,' edited by Almira L. Hayward; 'Heavy Ordnance, Siege and Naval Guns, Light Artillery,' as invented and improved in the United States, edited by Gen. C. B. Norton; and a quite new edition of Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' with 120 special illustrations by American artists, the scenes of the poem having been freshly sketched upon the spot by Mr. A. V. S. Anthony. The same house will also publish by subscription 'A Memorial History of the County of Hartford, Conn., its Towns and Cities, 1631–1881,' edited by Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull; and Bishop Perry's 'Centennial History of the American Episcopal Church.'

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'A Landlubber's Log of his Voyage around Cape Horn,' being a journal kept during a four-months' voyage on an American merchantman, bound from Philadelphia to San Francisco, by Morton McMichael, 3d.

Macmillan & Co. have in press a cheap but not inelegant American edition of Butcher and Lang's translation of the 'Odyssey,' which appeared two years ago in England.

The "Clarendon Press Series" (Macmillan) has added to its list of classical text-books the 'Helena' of Euripides, edited by Mr. C. S. Jerram. When Mr. Jerram's edition of the 'Tabula Cebetis' was published in the same series we expressed a very favorable opinion of the ability and scholarsbip with which the work was executed. The present edition of the 'Helena' appears to be better adapted for the use of students in a class than any with which we are acquainted. We would, however, suggest one or two changes, either for a second edition or for future editions of other plays. Mr. Jerram had previously edited, for the same series, the 'Alcestis' of Euripides. He seems to take it for granted that all readers of his edition of the 'Helena' will have at hand his edition of the 'Alcestis,' an assumption by no means true in all cases. It would have been better to make the one more independent of the other, even at the risk of a little repetition. Again, Mr. Jerram has placed his explanatory and his critical notes in different parts of the volume, though it would have been conducive both to convenience and clearness to put all the notes on a given passage in one place.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have added to their 'Transatlantic Novels' a translation of Halévy's 'Abbé Constantine,' already noticed in these columns.

B. Westermann & Co. have received from Justus Perthes, Gotha, the much-needed map of the seat of war in the East, for lack of which the daily reports of operations have been very imperfectly intelligible. It consists of (*a*) a general map embracing Crete, Cyprus, Palestine, and Egypt as far south as Edfu; (*b*) a small side-map of what might be called "British interests," extending from the British Channel to Beaconsfield's "scientific" Indian frontier, and giving at one glance all southern Europe, all northern Africa, and all of Islam as far as Kandahar; and (*c*) another side-map, on a scale of 1: 1,500,000, showing the Nile delta in detail, and the Suez Canal, with Cairo and Suez for the southern limits. This chart has the well-known excellence of the Gotha work, and is well worth its moderate price.

After the success of M. Francisque Sarcey's series of critical and biographical sketches of contemporary actors and actresses, M. Jouaust was encouraged to start a similar series devoted to the artists, and written by M. Jules Claretie, under the title of 'Peintres et Sculpteurs' (Paris: Jouaust; New York: F. W. Christern), of which eight parts have now appeared. The work is divided into two sections: in the first, comprising the artists who died between 1870 and 1881, M. Claretie has considered Henri Regnault, Tassaërt, Hamon, Millet, and Corot; in the second, which includes only artists now living, he has noticed MM. Meissonier, Baudry, and Gérôme. Each essay has a portrait etched by L. Massard.

The plates of Part 7 of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon in Peru' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) present a great variety of specimens of Peruvian art, all admirable. The woven stuffs are, as usual, remarkable for their coloring, and for the ingenuity of their geometric and animal patterns. Especially noteworthy are the highly-decorative raised braids and rosettes of Plate 60, designated by the French term *passementerie*. Delicately made slings are shown to have been used also as fillets, in the handy fashion still to be witnessed in Bolivia. Another plate depicts sundry small domestic and toilet articles like spoons, spools, combs, dye-tubes, needles, brushes, and an elegant little workbag—a net for holding balls of cotton thread. The mummies of children yield very curious wooden dolls, one representing a child in its cradle, whose fez-like cap, anxious face, and clasped hands suggest Abdul-Hamid pondering England's requirements toward Arabi; and some quilted and clay toy figures of the llama. A few excellent pieces of earthenware conclude this instalment. Three more will finish the work.

Bulletin No. 62 (July) of the Boston Public Library contains the titles of a large number of books on Egypt, Assyria, etc., mostly purchased from the library of the late F. J. Chabas.

Our readers may remember that the Société Bibliographique Belge offered a prize for the best historical bibliography of Belgium. The results are said to have been very satisfactory. Two memoirs have received prizes, by M. Lahaye and M. Potter, and are both to be published. The Government gives 2,000 francs in aid of the publication.

—The late Mr. George P. Marsh's interest in everything relating to the forest lasted to the very end of his life. Four days before his death, on the 20th of July, he sent a long letter to the writer of this note describing his impressions of the forest school of Vallambrosa, where he died on the 24th.

"Even at this height, the deciduous trees," he wrote, "which in Milton's day strewed the rare brooks so thickly with their autumnal leaves, thrive luxuriantly, though the monks apparently planted few, if any, other than evergreen trees. It would be difficult to exaggerate the picturesqueness of the scenery here, or the beauty of the vast outlook over the Tuscan hills, but I have been disappointed at not seeing a single compatriot among the forest growths of these woods, although there is every reason to believe that most of our native trees might be advantageously propagated here. There is, very near the Old Monastery, a row of maples, stated to be less than thirty years from the seed, in which many of the trees have attained a diameter of fifteen inches—a rate of growth much greater than that of the sugar-maple in Vermont. I am told that in a part of the forest I have not yet seen there are many beeches above a metre in diameter. I have met with no instance of *Ueberwallung* [renewal of the bark on the cut surface of a tree] in these woods, though there are good specimens of this rare phenomenon in the museum of the Institute. . . I am more than ever impressed with the superiority of the artificial forest, both in quantity and quality, as compared with that of the natural and spontaneous growth. The fir woods here, though so thickly planted as to leave room for scarcely any lateral ramification, are of surprising rapidity as well as regularity of growth, and I think the famous ridge-pole of a barn in Waterbury, Vermont, which squares six inches with a length of sixty-five feet, might readily be matched here."

Mr. Marsh's knowledge of the literature of the forest and of forestry was unequalled even by that of the few specialists who devote themselves exclusively to the study of this subject. The influence which 'Man and Nature' has exerted in directing attention to the importance of a better understanding of the principles which underlie the theory of forest preservation, is hardly appreciated. It must long remain the best text-book for those who desire to understand the forest in its most important relations to man.

—The Public School System of the City of New York is the subject of a German lecture by Dr. Hartwig Gercke, a veteran pedagogue who for many years followed his vocation in this city ('Vortraege herausgegeben vom Deutschen Gesellig-Wissenschaftlichen Vereine von New York. No. 5'; New York: E. Steiger & Co., 1882). Dr. Gercke finds that during the last thirty years there has been much improvement in the public schools, and that some of their most glaring defects have been more or less remedied. His severest criticism is directed against the marking system, and against the excessive practice of examination, and especially of examination by others than those who do the teaching. On the former point, the majority of competent judges will probably agree with him; but on the latter there is plenty of room for difference of opinion. Too much examining is, no doubt, a bad thing, especially if it causes the time and energy that should be devoted to teaching proper to be diverted to preparing for examinations—in other words, to cramming. On the other hand, it is indispensable to have some ready method of testing the efficiency and conscientiousness with which our three thousand teachers discharge their important duties. Coming to details, Dr. Gercke is of the opinion that there has been much progress in the teaching of reading, spelling, and definition, inasmuch as the parrot-like spelling-lessons and the learning of definitions by rote which were once so much in vogue have fallen into discredit and given way to more rational methods. In the teaching of grammar, however, much remains to be wished, in spite of recent improvements. In arithmetic there is still too much adhesion to antiquated methods, not enough attention being given to mental arithmetic, which is so valuable in inducing mental readiness and flexibility. Geography is better taught than formerly, and with better results, but not enough attention is given to map-drawing. History of the United States shares in the improvement, but all other history is still utterly neglected. The department of physical culture continues in a very unsatisfactory condition. Of course, Dr. Gercke is an ardent advocate of the teaching of German as a regular and compulsory branch in all the schools. This vexed question is one that should be decided entirely on practical grounds. The point is, whether the attainable results are proportionate to the time spent in attaining them; and perhaps the only way of settling this is by actual experiment, as has been done for some years past. The prospect now is that, whether correctly or not, the controversy will be ultimately decided in favor of German.

—Dr. Gercke is a warm admirer of the Normal College, which he considers on the whole, and in spite of various faults, a well-organized

and useful establishment. He is also favorably disposed toward the College of the City of New York, and, so far from agreeing with those who from time to time engage in futile attempts to abolish it, he would rather develop the school system in the direction of high schools, considering that no system of public instruction can be called complete which confines itself to the lower branches. He considers it strange that while the cost of the city college is so often urged against it, the much greater comparative expensiveness of the Nautical School, $249 per pupil, is never mentioned. One feature of our system meets with his unqualified approval: not only does the city furnish its school-children with all the text-books and stationery they need, but it does so at the remarkably low average cost of 90 cents per annum per pupil, the entire expenditure for this purpose in 1881 having been only $119,161. In summing up the results of his observations, Dr. Gercke concludes that while our city school system has reached so mature a state of development that all attempts to introduce radical innovations must prove abortive, on the other hand it shows much aptitude for reform and improvement, for which there is still a great deal of room, and that its principal danger lies in an excessive straining after uniformity. Fortunately, it has been kept entirely free from sectarianism, and it has demonstrated its capacity for producing secondary or higher schools. The general management is characterized by economy and honesty. The chief defect, aside from those already adverted to, is the lack of a body of trained teachers. Nine-tenths of the instructors are women, who only teach till they marry, and, even of the men, many take up teaching only as an *ad-interim* occupation while they are preparing for some better-paid and more-considered profession. There is only one way of obviating this trouble, and that is by raising salaries. This will necessitate an increase of expenditure, while the current cry is for economy. Proper economy is a good thing. It is a good thing to insist on getting one's money's worth, and to object to being cheated; but it is foolish economy, when you have made up your mind that you must have a thing, to refuse to pay a just price for a good article.

—Something more detailed than the account given by the biographical dictionaries of the architect Du Cerceau, who is referred to by our Paris correspondent in connection with the Château of Chantilly, will be found in the current quarterly issue of *L'Art* (J. W. Bouton), together with views of certain buildings in Orléans attributed to him. Champfleury, who had already paid homage in *Le Livre* to the pencil of Tony Johannot, returns to the subject and to his brother Alfred, and adds further facsimiles of their works. Delacroix is the theme of M. E. Chesneau, in several chapters, and a portrait of him is annexed, but there is a great distance between his sketch of a lioness overpowering a man and most of his other pen-drawings reproduced here. Far more interesting we have found the outline landscapes of Aligny, remarkable for their breadth, firmness, and proportion. Several of them depict the environs of Naples, with more than one masterly sketch of Vesuvius. This artist was not much of a colorist, we are told by M. René Ménard; at least, his sense of form was supreme. But he had one curious distinction: "Never, in the history of the *prix de Rome*, since France has sent her laureates to the Villa Medici, has a single one of them been struck with the magnificences of the Roman Campagna. To comprehend and interpret these required a man alien to the École, and having, in the presence of nature, no other guide than his personal feeling. This man was Aligny." Full-page etchings abound in this as in the previous volume of *L'Art*, but for us none of them surpass in interest the portraits of Corot and Courbet, or are technically more noteworthy than, say, the varied wood-cutting of M. Puyplat. The face and the works of G. F. Watts, the English painter, are celebrated in these pages, where also much may be read and seen concerning the late Hamilton Palace collections, as well as the Salon of 1882.

—An interesting relic has been found in the Public Library of Besançon, a manuscript which formerly belonged to the *librairie* of the Louvre. (The early French employed this word "bookery" as we use library, though now they have confined it, as did the Romans—the writers at least—to a bookseller's shop, and have substituted the Greek and Latin bibliotheca, which has a more learned sound, though it be, after all, only "bookplace.") It contains, as says an inventory of 1373, "le gouvernement des roys et princes, le livre de Moralitez, Boèce de Consolation des Philosophes, l'Establissement de Sainte-Eglise, le Miroer de la Messe, Ysopet et la Misère de l'Omme." And on the last page of the volume, so carefully erased that only a photograph was able to render the words at all legible, was the inscription, in the autograph of Charles V., founder of the *librairie du Louvre*, "En ce livre Roman sont conteneus pluseurs notables et bons livres et est à nous Charles le Ve de notre nom Roy de France et le fîmes escrire et parfere l'an M-CCC-LXXII Charles." The book disappeared from the Louvre between 1413 and 1424, and after various fortunes, in the course of which it was valued, in 1607, at 6 francs (it would now fetch 10,000), it was bequeathed to the Public Library of Besançon in 1694.

—In the new complete and *ne varietur* edition of Victor Hugo's works now publishing in Paris, and to be complete in some forty-five or fifty portly volumes, the latest issue is the third volume of the dramas, containing "Lucrèce Borgia," "Angelo," and "Marie Tudor." In this volume appears for the first time a mass of new passages now printed from the original manuscript. Among these passages are many of minor importance omitted here and there from "Lucrèce Borgia," and one whole act hitherto left out of "Angelo." It is now announced in Paris that "Le Roi s'amuse," produced originally at the Théâtre-Français in 1832, and forbidden by royal mandate after the first performance, is to be acted for the second time at the Théâtre-Français, just fifty years since it was seen there for the first time. M. Got is to play the jester *Triboulet*, known in opera as *Rigoletto* and in English drama as *Bertuccio*. The *Literary World's* recent attempt at a Hugo bibliography, by the way, being apparently almost wholly derived from M. Barbou's biography, was very far from exact or adequate.

—The Jesuits of the House of the Holy Virgin at Laach have recently issued the sixth volume of the 'Collectio Lacensis Sacrorum Conciliorum Recentiorum' (Freiburg: Herder), which ought to complete the work; but we find that the Vatican Council is reserved for a seventh and concluding volume. This undertaking supplements and completes the great collections of the last century by Hardouin and Labbe, Coleti and Mansi, and places within reach of the student a vast mass of material illustrating the development of Catholicism in both hemispheres, which it would be almost impossible for him to obtain in any other form. So long as religion is one of the most powerful factors in human affairs, no one can form a correct conception of secular history without paying close attention to ecclesiastical movements, and this is especially the case with Catholicism, whose pretensions bring it constantly into contact, and frequently into collision, with the state. For the periods prior to the present century, the older collections of councils afford substantially all the assistance in this direction to be looked for from the authentic exposition of the wishes and aspirations of the Church in its synodical gatherings; for during the eighteenth century these almost ceased to be held. The renewed activity of the Church in recent times has, however, expressed itself largely in a revival of these assemblies, and the student has long felt the need of such an authorized collection of their "Acta et Decreta" as the industry of the Jesuit Fathers has here supplied.

—Such of our readers as are interested in that branch of mediæval literature which goes under the title of "Visions and Wanderings" will be gratified to learn of the following publication: 'Visio Tnugdali, lateinisch und Altdeutsch,' published by Albrecht Wagner (Erlangen: Deichert, 1882, pp. lxxii.-186). The editor gives a Latin version in prose, another in verse, fragments of a poem in Lower-Rhenish, and the *Mittelhochdeutsch* poem of one Alber. The editing is based upon a careful collation of numerous manuscripts, especially for the Latin. "Visions and Wanderings" are chiefly interesting to us because of their relations to Dante. Ever since the publication of Labitte's essay, 1842, and the more comprehensive works of Ozanam and Thomas Wright, it has been well known to Dante scholars that the great Italian poet did not invent the framework of his 'Commedia.' Mediæval literature offers a whole cycle of legends in which hell, purgatory, and paradise are described in the form of a vision—*i.e.*, as if visited by a human being in a state of trance. Thus, there is the Vision of Alberic, the Purgatory of St. Patrick, Paul's Journey to Hell, etc., etc. One of the earliest and best known is that of Fursæus, given by Bede in his 'Historia.' The editor goes too far, perhaps, when he asserts (p. vii.) that a continuous chain of such legends can be traced back "bis zum Beginn des Christentums." There are a good many gaps, and we doubt if any one legend can be placed as early as the first, or even second, century with perfect conclusiveness. Irish monks appear to have had a large, if not the largest, share in shaping these legends, and giving them currency. Thus the writer of the present 'Visio Tnugdali is undoubtedly an Irishman (see p. xxiii.); but we need not, therefore, conclude that vision literature is of Irish, or even of Christian, invention. The descriptions of the nether world in the 'Æneid' and in the 'Odyssey,' not to speak of similar passages in classic literature, may very well have prompted the movement. And when we connect "visions" with "wanderings'—*e. g.*, the voyages of Brandan and Maeldan—and consider what a part was played in later Greek literature by such ethnographic fables as the Argonautic expedition, the travels of Pytheas (part of which are genuine), Ktesias, Megasthenes, the marvels and wonders in the Alexander fable (Pseudo-Kallisthenes), we shall scarcely err in assigning to all mediæval tales of the kind a Greek-Oriental origin. Perhaps we may even trace them back to that great literary beehive, the fables of Brahmanism and Buddhism. Perhaps we may go back still further, and recognize their prototype in the popular story-telling of Old Egypt. See the story of the "Naufragé" in Maspero's 'Contes' and the London *Academy*, July 8, p. 24.

MAJOR DI CESNOLA'S SALAMINIA.

Salaminia (Cyprus). The History, Treasures, and Antiquities of Salamis in the Island of Cyprus. By Alexander Palma di Cesnola, F.S.A. With an Introduction by Samuel Birch, Esq., D.C.L., LL.D., F.S.A. ; and with upward of 700 illustrations, and map of Ancient Cyprus. London : Trübner & Co. 8vo, pp. xlviii.-330.

MAJOR DI CESNOLA, the writer of this volume, describes himself as a soldier by profession, and "an enthusiastic digger-up of antiquities" by position. He is not to be confounded with his brother, the better-known explorer of Cypriote antiquity, General Luigi Palma di Cesnola, the Director of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York. His book justifies the modesty of his claims as an archæologist, but its full title is a little misleading. The "History" of Salamis promised by it, and for which students of the past would naturally look with the hope that new discoveries had thrown light upon the subject, is a compilation from old and familiar authorities which occupies but two or three pages. The author tells us in his text that the city of Salamis is situated in the middle of the eastern coast of Cyprus, and is careful to warn his readers by a note that "this site must not be confounded with the island of Salamis off the west coast of Attica," etc., etc. But, if the "History" of Salamis is thus slighted, the "Treasures and Antiquities" are not much better treated. There is no topographic sketch of the site, no general description of the ground and of the character of the remains, whether those of tombs or temples ; there is no attempt to give any connected account of discoveries, or to study the field from the point of view of archæology proper. Even the 700 illustrations announced in the title shrink into more moderate proportions when we find that 375 of them are obtained by enumerating the small objects grouped upon twenty full-page plates. And the "map of Ancient Cyprus" turns out to be not made up from original investigations, but merely a reproduction of the map published by Ortelius in 1581—exceedingly creditable for that time, but far beneath the level of modern knowledge.

The book is, in truth, little more than an illustrated catalogue of a considerable collection of antiquities dug up, not at Salamis only, but at other sites as well, and which does not contain any objects of the first order of interest, while it affords few specimens that exhibit features novel to the student of Cypriote antiquity, or add essentially to the knowledge of it. As a catalogue of such vases, terra-cotta figures, lamps, and other minor articles as form the staple of any large collection of antiquities from Cyprus, and of those rarer objects of more precious material—ornaments of gold and silver, engraved gems, works in alabaster, crystal, and ivory, of which there is such a rich display in the New York Museum—the volume of Major di Cesnola has its value. Like the collection it describes, it contributes little to the increase of real knowledge, but it makes very considerable additions to the stock of familiar facts ; and, in view of his ignorance of archæology, the book is creditable to its author in its general freedom from additions to the stock of familiar errors. Its pages are, indeed, not free from loose statements, of which the Preface affords one rather striking example. On p. xx. Major di Cesnola tells us that he arrived "in Cyprus at the end of July, 1876," and "in the month of August was ready to resume researches," while on p. xxi. he states, somewhat to the surprise of the attentive reader, that "from the end of June until October, 1876, I was obliged to suspend work." There is no reconciliation of these statements.

The introduction, by Dr. Birch, points out the objects of chief interest in the collection, and contains some critical remarks upon them. Dr. Birch has a reputation as a scholar, but, whether from his devotion to Egyptian hieroglyphics or from some more recondite cause, his English style is often of worse than Egyptian obscurity. The introductions he has furnished to successive volumes of the translations of Egyptian and Assyrian texts published by the Society of Biblical Archæology may have prepared the reader in a degree for what he finds here; but it is not without a fresh sensation of wonder that he comes upon sentences like the following :

"A class of objects, also of Phœnician fabric, are the scarabæi made of hard stones. These scarabæi were made on the island as well as imported. The earlier engraved were followed by the usual Greek intaglios, and many of the period of Greek and Roman dominion are in the collection. These are principally of the later period of art, and probably made in Cyprus, as under the Ptolemies there was a mine in the island."

What mine was in the island at one time that was not there at another is not obvious, and what the existence of a mine has to do with the local carving of gems is a puzzle. Again, he says : "Silver contemporaneous with the earliest period does not *retain its preservation* so well as gold"—preservation being a quality not hitherto, so far as we know, attributed to either metal. He informs us that many specimens of ancient glass "exhibit a rare iridescence of colors," not satisfying the natural curiosity as to what other iridescence they might be expected to exhibit. But perhaps his most remarkable statement (the choice is large) is that "the great peculiarity of early Cypriote art is the employment of birds in its earliest development." We are tempted to give longer specimens of Dr. Birch's peculiar employment of words, but these are enough to show its nature ; and they would be simply amusing were it not for the regret that they awaken that a scholar should write in so slovenly a style, and that often, instead of elucidating, he should darken the subject which he treats. Dr. Birch's reputation will hardly be able to stand his own attacks upon it.

This book will do nothing to alter the judgment already formed by students of Cypriote art as to its general character. The antiquities found in the island present a curious and instructive medley of Egyptian, Assyrian, Phœnician, and Greek works. Cyprus imported the greater part of her art. What her native artists produced was affected by the influence of foreign methods, both in technical quality and in the forms of expression. Such originality as her artists exhibit gives evidence of a low order of civilization, as compared with that of Egypt on the one hand and of Greece on the other. A refined sense of beauty is seldom manifest in any of the higher forms of her art, and there is no display in them of the poetic imagination. Cyprus never embodied a lofty type of ideal loveliness, never expressed a deep sentiment by strokes of vigorous realism. No building noble from its harmonies of proportion ever stood upon her soil. Her sculptors lacked the discipline of marble, and, though bronze was at their command, they preferred to work out their conceptions in soft stone or softer clay. The exquisiteness which their work sometimes exhibits is an exquisiteness purely external—of hair, of garlands, of ornaments. The faces they have preserved for us are of men and women who lived soft lives, and pleased themselves with sensual more than with intellectual delights. Cyprus never produced a great artist ; the service of the Cyprian goddess forbade. Aphrodite and Athene are the divinities of different breeds of men.

LUBBOCK'S ANTS, BEES, AND WASPS.

Ants, Bees, and Wasps. A Record of Observations on the Habits of the Social Hymenoptera. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., M.P., F.R.S., etc. [International Scientific Series, Vol. xlii.] D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

THE author remarks in his Preface :

"This volume contains the record of various experiments made with ants, bees, and wasps during the past ten years. . . . My object has not been so much to describe the usual habits of these insects as to test their mental condition and powers of sense. . . . The principal point in which my mode of experimenting has differed from that of previous observers has been that I have carefully marked and watched particular insects ; and, secondly, that I have had nests under observation for long periods—even for seven years."

The work embraces eleven chapters and a somewhat extended Appendix, containing the detailed records of some experiments and descriptions of a few species. There are also five excellent colored lithographic plates, thirty-one figures in the text, a full index, and a list of nearly seventy books and papers referred to. Of the single short chapter devoted to wasps, the most interesting portion describes the life and pathetic death of a *Polistes gallica*, which the author kept for no less than nine months, "during several of which I never saw her sting." Perhaps now some one will undertake to tame an American hornet. A second, somewhat longer, chapter is given to bees, upon which the author had intended to make most of his observations ; "but I soon found that ants were more convenient for experimental purposes, and I think they have also more power and flexibility of mind. They are certainly calmer and less excitable." The introductory chapter gives a condensed but clear account of the life-history of ants. These insects form three families, and more than a thousand species are known, of which rather more than thirty inhabit England. The author has kept in captivity about half of the British species, as well as a considerable number of foreign forms, and for the past few years has generally had from thirty to forty communities under observation. The remaining chapters deal with "The Formation and Maintenance of Nests and the Division of Labor," "The Relation of Ants to Plants," "The Relations of Ants to other Animals," "Behavior to Relations," "Recognition of Friends," "Powers of Communication," and "The Senses of Ants." In treating all these subjects, our author deals fully and fairly with what has been written thereon by others.

The chapter on "The Relations of Ants to other Animals" contains an account of the remarkable institution of slavery among ants, first discovered by Huber. It is now known that several species enslave other species, and become more or less dependent upon them, and Lubbock characterizes the several degrees as follows :

"These four genera offer us every gradation, from lawless violence to contemptible parasitism. *Formica sanguinea*, which may be assumed to have comparatively recently taken to slave-making, has not as yet been materially affected. It is predatory, but can do for itself, and, if necessary, carry on a nest without slaves.

"*Polyergus*, on the contrary, already illustrates the lowering tendency of slavery. They have lost their knowledge of art, their natural affection for their young, and even their instinct of feeding ! They are, however, bold and powerful marauders.

"In *Strongylognathus*, the enervating influence of slavery has gone further, and even told on the bodily strength. They are no longer able to capture their slaves in fair and open warfare.

"In *Anergates*, finally, we come to the last scene of this sad history. . . . They are weak in body and mind, few in numbers, and apparently nearly extinct, the miserable representatives of [presumably] far superior ancestors, maintaining a precarious existence as contemptible parasites of their former slaves."

That some ants assume the charge of large numbers of plant-lice (Aphides), and actually "milk" from them the sweetish juice which they exude, has been long known; in addition, there have been found in ants' nests a few other insects under circumstances indicating "that some of them may be kept as *pets*."

The peculiar value of the present work rests in the fulness and accuracy of the record of the author's personal observations and experiments. Extending as they did over days and weeks for a single insect or community, it was fortunate that efficient aid could be rendered by his two daughters and their governess. In some instances an entry was made every two or three minutes for at least twelve hours respecting the doings of a single ant. The individuals under observation were ingeniously distinguished by painting their backs with different colors. Few naturalists have manifested the patience to conduct such experiments, and fewer still, perhaps, the power of so arranging the numerical records that their true significance may readily appear. And yet Sir John Lubbock is likewise a leading banker and an active member of Parliament.

Very interesting and instructive are the experiments with *intoxicated* ants, in order to ascertain how far a discrimination was made between friends and strangers, such as would show a recognition of the former notwithstanding their abnormal condition:

"The general results were that the ants removed forty-one friends and fifty-two strangers. Of the friends, thirty-two were carried to the nest, and nine were thrown into the water. Of the strangers, on the contrary, forty-three were thrown into the water; only nine were taken into the nest, and seven of these were shortly afterward brought out again and thrown away. Indeed, I fully believe that the other two were treated in the same manner. . . . It seems clear, then, that even in a condition of insensibility these ants were recognized by their friends. . . . The sober ants seemed somewhat puzzled at finding their fellow-creatures in such a disgraceful condition, took them up, and carried them about for some time in a somewhat aimless manner."

The following statements certainly merit the attention of many human families and communities:

"So far as I can observe, ants of the same nest never quarrel. I have never seen the slightest evidence of ill-temper in any of my nests; all is harmony. Nor are instances of active assistance at all rare."

For example, an ant lacking the antennæ lost its way, was set upon by ants of another species, and left wounded and helpless on the ground. An ant from its own nest found it, "examined it carefully, then picked her up carefully and carried her away into the nest."

"While the utmost harmony reigns between those belonging to the same community, . . . if a stranger is introduced, she is at once attacked. This implies that all in one community have the power of recognizing one another, a most surprising fact when we consider the shortness of their life and their immense numbers. In the large communities of *Formica pratensis* there are probably from 400,000 to 500,000 ants."

Our author concludes that "the recognition is not personal or individual, . . . yet that the fact that they recognize their friends, even when intoxicated, and that they know the young born in their own nest, even when they have been brought out of the chrysalis by strangers, seems to indicate that the recognition is not effected by means of any sign or password." What, then, is the means of communication? Notwithstanding the somewhat vague assertions of previous writers, Lubbock concludes, from his own careful experiments, that "when an ant has discovered a store of food, and others flock to it, they are guided in some cases by sight, while in others they track one another by scent."

In other experiments, the food—a fly or spider—was so pinned to a board as to prevent the ant which first found it from carrying it to the nest, and the fact that the ant returned with several companions apparently to aid in securing the prey, disposes our author to accredit to ants "something approaching to language." But even here the protracted efforts to move the prey may have caused its scent to adhere to the ant. Certainly, any other means of communication must have been very imperfect, for none of the ants summoned went directly to the prey, or even followed the guide, and some never found the former at all. In some cases, too, they "had all the appearance of having come out reluctantly, or as if they had been asleep, or were only half-awake," as if the harmony so strongly dwelt upon were of a passive rather than an active character. Indeed, our author relates several cases of almost wanton neglect of members of the same community, which show that "tenderness is not invariably the rule; . . . that there are individual differences among ants—Priests and Levites and Good Samaritans—as among men" (p. 101).

The most conclusive experiments respecting the power of communication are described on pages 172–175: "During fifty-two hours, the ants which had access to a glass containing numerous larvæ brought 304 friends; while, during fifty-nine hours, those which were visiting a glass with only two or three larvæ brought only 104 to their assistance." It is difficult to see how information as to the *greater number* of objects to be moved could be given excepting by some kind of language. What the ant's language consists in is still undetermined. To all sounds producible by human instruments, Lubbock concludes that ants, like bees and wasps, are insensitive; but he is disposed to think that they may perceive sounds which we cannot hear (p. 233). As to the other senses, "there can be no doubt whatever that in ants the sense of smell is highly developed"; moreover, ants have two kinds of eyes, simple (ocelli) and compound, and it is clear that they see therewith, but the precise mechanism is "difficult to understand." From a series of ingenious experiments with variously-colored media, our author concludes that ants are not sensitive to the ultra-red rays, but perceive the ultra-violet rays, and that the colors of objects and the general aspect of nature presents to them a very different appearance from what it does to us (p. 220).

From the most general point of view, the present work has three aspects—(1) as a record of personal observation; (2) as a digest of these observations in combination with those of other writers; and (3) as a discussion of the ultimate significance of the facts and considerations so attained. Upon the first two points nearly unqualified praise is due to the author's ingenuity, care, patience, and candor. The following paragraph well illustrates also his anxiety to avoid an error of proximate interpretation:

"Every one knows that if an ant or a bee in the course of her rambles has found a supply of food, a number of others will soon make their way to the store. This, however, does not necessarily imply any power of describing localities. A very simple sign would suffice, and very little intelligence is implied if the other ants merely accompany their friend to the treasure which she has discovered. On the other hand, if the ant or bee can describe the locality and send her friends to that food, the case is very different" (p. 160).

When, however, our author passes from facts and their immediate significance to a discussion of their broader psychological aspect, his remarks are less satisfactory, as may be judged from the following passages:

"In the face of such facts as these, it is impossible not to ask ourselves, How far are ants mere exquisite automatons; how far are they conscious beings? When we see an ant-hill, tenanted by thousands of industrious inhabitants, . . . each one fulfilling its duties industriously and without confusion, it is difficult altogether to deny to them the gift of reason; and the preceding observations tend to confirm the opinion that *their mental powers differ from those of men not so much in kind as in degree*" (p. 181).

"The Anthropoid apes no doubt approach nearer to man in bodily structure than do any other animals; but when we consider the habits of Ants—their social organization, their large communities and elaborate habitations, their roadways, their possession of domestic animals, and even, in some cases, of slaves—it must be admitted that *they have a fair claim to rank next to man in the scale of intelligence*" (p. 1).

The concluding portions of these two extracts are italicized, because they will impress most readers not only as unsubstantiated by what is related in the first seven chapters of the work, but as absolutely refuted by some of the experiments described in chapter ix. The author found that ants would carry larvæ at least thirteen feet up and down nearly vertical sticks rather than fall about two-fifths of an inch. In another experiment, "they tried in vain to stretch up from the earth to the glass, which was just out of their reach, though they could touch it with their antennæ; but it did not occur to them to heap up the earth a little, though if they had moved only half-a-dozen particles they would have secured direct access to the food. . . . I was the more surprised at their want of ingenuity in constructing bridges on account of the ingenuity with which they avail themselves of earth for constructing their nests" (pp. 248, 249). Without insisting unduly upon metaphysical distinctions, do not the foregoing facts illustrate the commonly-accepted difference between instinct and intelligence, between an inherited skill in the performance of certain acts and a capacity for adaptation to new conditions? Unless, however, the passages above quoted are to be regarded as the insufficiently revised expressions of a very natural enthusiasm respecting the special and almost peculiar objects of his study, the author, a President of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, believes that no animal other than man would venture to drop a distance little greater than its own length, and easily spanned by its limbs, rather than perform a really toilsome journey.

Upon the whole, it is to be wished that Sir John had either omitted these passages altogether or devoted an entire chapter to the comparative psychology of his favorites. The space for such a chapter might well have been gained by condensing the typographical arrangement of some of the numerical records—as, *e.g.*, those upon pages 162, 163, 297, 301, 367-370, etc.—and by omitting the technical descriptions of new species.

RUGE'S HISTORY OF OUR TIMES.

Geschichte unsrer Zeit, von den Freiheitskriegen bis zum Ausbruche des deutsch-französischen Krieges. Von Arnold Ruge. Leipzig and Heidelberg.

Arnold Ruge—whose long life, embracing successive periods of participation in the *Burschenschaft*, imprisonment, professional activity, editorial work, revolutionary agitation in the Fatherland, conspiracy in exile, and quiet authorship, came to a close in England on the last

day of 1880—could justly boast of having gone through the events of his time not merely as a spectator, but as one who had a part, though a *pars minima*, perhaps, in shaping them. And as a thinker, observer, and actor, familiar with men and things and theories, he had a right to bequeath to us, as he has done, a history of the age. In composing it, however, the ardent Neo-Hegelian theorist and revolutionist was less bent on telling what he had witnessed and observed, learned and unlearned, in the course of his checkered career at home and abroad, than on proving to his readers that his Neo-Hegelian views of civilization and progress, of reason and the spirit of the age, of self-government and equality, of the futility of political reaction, of the irrepressible advance of science and the doom of religion, are fully justified and brilliantly illustrated by the struggles and vicissitudes of the century. He narrates little, illumines the salient points of the history with fugitive rays, and abstracts from this light a dogmatic vindication of his extreme historical optimism: The civilized world is triumphantly marching ahead toward material felicity, self-rule, ethical elevation, and freedom from caste and belief. Napoleons, Bourbons, Metternichs, Jesuits, popedom, the slave power, the Church, can form only temporary obstacles in the path of the free spirit; they are all doomed to be successively crushed by it; they even serve it, unconsciously and unwillingly, and help to destroy each other. The *Hallesche Jahrbücher* of 1838–40, the *Deutsche Jahrbücher* of 1840–43, the *Reform* of 1848 were right; their editor has unlearned nothing. Leipzig, the barricades of 1830 and 1848, Solferino, Appomattox Court-House, Sadowa, Sedan have righted many a thing; Világos has been, and Warsaw will be, avenged. The republican philosopher and poet whom the renovated German Empire pensioned at the close of his life dies happy in his faith. He is far from recanting anything. Hear his introductory retrospect, for instance:

"The German reformers of the sixteenth century rebelled, not against superstition, but only against the commonwealth of superstition, the hierarchy and its president, the Pope. In lieu of the spiritual hierarchy they set up spiritual anarchy—a sound principle, for the spirit has no master—but they did it in the name of superstition, and they were, indeed, greater believers than the Pope and the Cardinals; they made the story-book of the Jews and Christians the norm of thought and source of truth; they replaced the authority of the hierarchy by the authority of the 'holy writ'; and, though they recognized no other but the 'invisible' Church, they never thought of banishing the mediæval spirit, Christianity: the more absurd a story sounded, the more edifying it was to them. They made no serious attempts to discover the sense of the dogmas and myths, or to realize morality; the old conflict between heaven and earth remained. . . . Still less did the Reformation attack the social and political institutions of the Middle Age, feudalism and despotism. . . . The French in the eighteenth century were the first to take this step, setting up science in lieu of religion, in lieu of feudalism the right of the individual, and in lieu of despotism or absolutism the free state, the republic. The historians who even nowadays close the Middle Age with the advent of the Reformation call neither the Middle Age nor its opposite by the right name: they still cherish a fondness for its spiritual slavery, the Christian faith, and for its external slavery, the feudal exploitation of man and despotic rule."

The same uncompromising spirit pervades the whole book, and its tone is aggressive throughout. It is history written, or rather discussed, by a combatant; there is plenty of invective, of piquant sallies, and animated protests, amid which the facts are often largely, and the details entirely, skipped over. The philosophy of the history is the main point; the work is to be a prose epopee of the modern idea; even the men who carry the victorious banner are treated with neglect. The author surely does not forget his revolutionary associates, Kossuth, Mazzini, or Ledru-Rollin, nor does he forget himself; but he wastes very little praise on any man—Canning is perhaps the only exception—and his egotism is of a very mild kind, and not unamiable. Adulation he is entirely free from, and the adoration of the German spirit and virtues which disfigures so many German writings, is equally alien to him. In fact, he has preserved unimpaired his enthusiastic admiration of the great *journées* of revolutionary France. The 14th of July and 4th of August, 1789; the last days of July, 1830; the 24th of February, 1848; and the 4th of September, 1870, are still to him the sacred dates in the calendar of self-emancipating humanity. The massacre and guillotine days of 1792, 1793, 1794, and 1871, fortunately, do not fall within the scope of his sketch. Nor is he inclined to expatiate on crimes or errors committed on the revolutionary side in a contest. Thus he faithfully records the atrocities committed by the Turks on the Greeks in 1821, but makes no allusion to the horrors of Tripolitza, where—after a partial capitulation and surrender—ten thousand Turkish men, women, and children perished in a three days' uninterrupted butchery, followed by equally horrible massacres in the surroundings. "Colocotronis took Tripolitza by storm"—this is all our author says about the affair, forgetting that Colocotronis boasted that his horse, stepping over piles of the massacred, nowhere touched the ground between the walls and the palaces, and that he reckoned the number of the butchered at 32,000. "By honest victories did the Greek avenge cowardly massacres and atrocious desolation," says our author. But in *discussing* history deductively, and pleading for an historical dogma, one must not be too precise in stating facts.

It is a pity that there is also some unintentional looseness in the author's way of stating facts: a looseness of diction which often distorts the statements. When, for instance, he says, "Karl Albert rückte vor, ging am 8. April über den Mincio und die Etsch," he means to state that the King of Sardinia crossed the Mincio on the 8th, and the Adige weeks later. When he says, "Pio nono . . . wurde am 11. December als weltliches Oberhaupt abgesetzt und flüchtete nach Gaeta," he reverses the order of events, for Pius IX. fled to Gaëta on November 24. In the phrase "Görgei, Perczel, Klapka und Bem schlugen die Croaten" the word *Croats* is used figuratively for all the various defenders of the Austrian cause in Hungary. When our author says, "Am 12. Juni, 1864, setzte Louis Napoleon auch wirklich seinen Kaiser in Mexico ein; . . . aber dies war gerade das Jahr, in dem General Grant Richmond nahm und Jefferson Davis gefangen geführt wurde," his statement, if not originating in a slip of the memory, can be excused only on the assumption that "das Jahr" does not refer to the year 1864, but to a twelvemonth embracing both June, 1864, and the spring (April and May) of 1865. Unfortunately the book is also disfigured by a large number of absolutely false dates, some owing to defective revision and proof-reading (the publication is posthumous) and some to the use of untrustworthy materials. Among those we have noticed are the dates of the evacuation of the citadel of Milan by Radetzky (March 20 for March 22), of the proclamation of the republic of Venice (March 20 for March 23), of the battle of Custozza in 1884 (July 24 for July 25), of the capture of Buda by Görgei (May 26 for May 21), of the battle of the Alma (Sept. 26 for Sept. 20), of the naval duel at Hampton Roads (March 7 for March 9), of MacClellan's fight before Richmond (July 1–5 for June 26–July 1), of the battle of Chancellorsville (May 1–2 for May 2–4), of the battle of Gettysburg (July 31 for July 1–3), of Grant's advance in 1864 (June 5 for May 4), of the battle of Spottsylvania Court-House (June 11 for May 10–12), and of the evacuation of Richmond (April 5 for April 2). In spite of its various shortcomings, however, we can recommend this 'History of Our Times' as not only readable, but instructive. It is as suggestive as it is one-sided.

Camps in the Rockies. By W. A. Baillie-Grohman. Chas. Scribner's Sons.

AMONG the legion of books on the Far West in its various aspects which have appeared since King's 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada,' we have found none so fresh, so full of the breath of its Alpine woods and peaks, and giving withal so fair and representative a view of frontier life as Baillie-Grohman's 'Camps in the Rockies.' His sketches, like those of Mr. King, are founded on personal explorations involving hardships and dangers of no trivial nature; and though, from a literary point of view, Mr. Grohman's style wants the ease, fluency, and grace of the former, and he writes rather from the standpoint of the sportsman than the scientist, yet his language is clear and concise, and his experiences and observations are given with a frankness and modesty, free from all attempt at fine writing, which carry the reader with him, and leave no trace of a feeling that he has been romancing or drawing the long-bow.

Mr. Grohman is essentially an Englishman, although his father was an Austrian of high standing at the Imperial Court, and he himself was brought up among the Tyrolese Alps, where he gained his first taste for hunting at an early age in pursuit of the chamois, and later earned laurels as a member of the Alpine Club in peak-climbing. His first literary venture was a little book on 'Tyrol and the Tyrolese,' founded on his experiences among the mountains and peculiar people of whose life we get such charming glimpses in Tautphœus's novels. An enthusiastic sportsman and mountaineer, and an earnest student of nature, Mr. Grohman came to this country some three or four years since, to shoot some of its big game and compare its people and their mountains with those among which he had spent his youth. His first season's experience was mainly useful in familiarizing him with the ways of the West, and teaching him "how not to do it." In succeeding excursions, therefore, instead of providing a large and expensive outfit, after the manner of the "top-shelfer," he associated himself on equal terms with a little band of hunters and trappers, with whom he spent several seasons among the mountains, suffering many personal discomforts, and obtaining an intimate knowledge of the country and of his companions that could hardly have been got in any other way. In his selection of hunting-ground Mr. Grohman was also exceptionally fortunate. Owing to the fierceness of the Indian tribes to whose reservation it belonged, the wild and mountainous region of northwest Wyoming had seldom been visited, even by the hardy trappers. With the discovery of the wonders of the Yellowstone Park on its northern border, and its subsequent exploration by various Government expeditions, that portion has become comparatively well known; but the region lying to the south, between it and the Green River basin, comprising the mountain groups of the Wind River and the Sierra Shoshone, is still practically a *terra incognita*. Here our author found in abundance the game he sought—the grizzly bear, mule-deer, big-horn, and wapiti (commonly, though erroneously from a zoölogical point of view, known as the *elk*). The white mountain goat, which he was particu-

larly anxious to bag, as being the nearest representative of the chamois in this country, must, he found, be sought in more northern latitudes.

The chapters on the experiences of the sportsman and his three trapper companions contain many good descriptions of the characteristic scenery, and remarks on the habits of its game which will be of interest to the scientist as well as the general reader. Mr. Grohman's German blood shows itself in his close observation and accurate statement of fact. His own experiences, though wanting the blood-curdling episodes of most books on hunting, are yet full of interest because of the frank truthfulness of their narration, and the un-English capability on the part of the author of appreciating a joke, even when it is against himself. His solitary bear story may serve as an illustration:

"I was out on my usual preliminary bug-stalk; and going along with bent form, now hitting, then again missing my plump game, my whole attention being fixed upon my occupation, I reached a clump of dense service-berry bushes. I had just delivered a successful throw, and was about to stoop to gather in the prize, when out of the bushes, as if growing from the earth, there rose—a grizzly. Rearing up on his hind legs, as they invariably do when surprised, he stood, his head and half-opened jaws a foot and a half or two feet over my six feet of humanity, and hardly more than a yard between gigantic him and pigmy me. The reader will believe me when I say he looked the biggest grizzly I ever saw, or want to see, so close. It would be difficult to say who was the more astonished of the two, but I know very well who was the most frightened. My heart seemed all of a sudden to be in two places; for had I not felt a big lump of it in my throat, I could have sworn it was leaking out at a big rent in the toes of my moccasins.

"Now, grizzly-shooting is a fine healthy sport—I know none I am fonder of; but there ought to be neighboring trees to facilitate *centralization to the rear;* and above all, I must be handling my old 'trail-stopper'; and that moment I was here on a treeless barren *en face* with one I 'was not looking for' or 'had not lost,' and yonder, 100 yards off, lay that famous old rifle—Boreas [the horse], in the distance, putting some spare ground between him and that noxious intruder. Fortunately, the old Uncle of the Rockies had more than probably never had anything to do with human beings, for I saw very plainly that he was more puzzled as to my identity than I was regarding his. His small pig eyes were not very ferocious-looking, and first one, then the other, ear would move, expressing, as I interpreted it, more impatience than ill-feeling. I do not exactly remember who first moved, but I do recollect that on looking back *over my shoulder*, I saw the old gentleman actually running away from me! On regaining possession of my rifle, which on this quite exceptional occasion I had allowed to get beyond my reach, as it interfered with my 'buggings,' I felt considerably braver, and spent the rest of the day in a vain endeavor to resume our acquaintanceship on more satisfactory terms. But the old gentleman evidently thought he had frightened me sufficiently, and so kept out of my way."

Mr. Grohman had a great desire to see the most characteristic of all the wonders of the West, the cañons of Colorado. The fitting out of a boat expedition, however, being somewhat above the means of a private individual, he conceived the rather novel idea of exploring them in midwinter on the ice. This somewhat hazardous undertaking was successfully carried out by the aid of the officers of Fort Bridger, and forms the subject of his "Camps and Cañons on the Colorado River." In "Camps in Cowboy-land," he gives a graphic picture of the life of the cattle-raiser of the plains of the West, which is as free from exaggeration as the nature of the subject will allow of.

No inconsiderable portion of the book is devoted to the characteristic features of Western life and people, of whom Mr. Grohman is a hearty admirer; and, as a natural consequence, it abounds in Western stories, in which, however, Mr. Grohman has endeavored to avoid the rock on which so many English travellers have split—of swallowing whole the yarns with which the Westerner delights to regale the gullible tourist. To his English friends he gives a very practical piece of advice in regard to the necessity of carrying a revolver. Most travellers' books teach them that it is an absolute necessity, and, that when once they have crossed the Missouri River, "a man for breakfast" will be the order of the day. He reasons that it is not only unnecessary, but a disadvantage. In the first place, if they avoid disreputable places they will probably see or hear of no shooting. In the second place, if they do frequent such places, and get into an altercation with a Westerner "on the shoot," his practised fingers will have discharged the contents of his revolver before they can be quick enough to have drawn theirs. And, thirdly, such action on his part would be considered justifiable homicide if it was found that they carried a revolver on their persons.

The scenery of the West Mr. Grohman regards as in keeping with the character of its people, and possessing an essentially American character. It abounds in elements of sublimity and grandeur; but, as contrasted with the verdure-clad slopes and soft, hazy atmosphere of the Alps, the bare, rocky surfaces and the brilliant, garish atmosphere of the Rocky Mountains give an effect of crudity and newness, wanting the mellowing touch of time. Of the Western people he says, after briefly describing their prominent characteristics:

"If we look at the result of all this twenty years of experimentalizing, we see the unfinished, rough sketch of a country vast and great as few ever were, and as none other now is; peopled, as it would seem to me, not with a strange medley of race and temperament, as is so often remarked, but rather by a community about which there is a singular unanimity of purpose and a startling uniformity of character."

A Flight to Mexico. By J. J. Aubertin. With seven illustrations. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1882. 8vo, pp. 325.

REGARDED merely as a book of travels, 'A Flight to Mexico' cannot take a very high rank, chiefly from the great freedom of digression which the author allows himself. At first it is rather amusing to have Mr. Aubertin thinking aloud, as it were, for our benefit, but it soon becomes wearisome and at times positively irritating. He jumps, for instance, in a single sentence from a reference to Brazil and its chief products to Mexico, and from thence, by the slender link of a Latin quotation, to Eton, ending with some trite remarks on "the ever-changing human brain." In another place he gives a long and dull account of a visit to the grotto of Adelsberg, in Austria, his excuse being that he did not see a somewhat similar cave in Mexico. These digressions, it should be said, are the most numerous and the most tiresome when Mr. Aubertin has the least to tell us, but they cease when we come to the important parts of his narrative.

He landed at Vera Cruz June 26, 1881, at a time when the yellow fever was raging with such violence that the captain of the English mail steamer "issued strict orders against any of the officers or crew going on shore for the few days the vessel was to stay there." The miserable sanitary condition of the chief port of Mexico, which "is, in some months, a mere pest-house," is naturally one of the chief obstacles to the growth of commerce, and to this fact the native press seems at length to be thoroughly awake. The mere traveller, however, is never compelled to pass a night in the port, but can take a mid-day train for the interior, which the railway company "always put on as far as Orizaba for passengers arriving by the packets." The inefficiency of the Custom-house officials is also the subject of Mr. Aubertin's criticism. French silks, he assures us, "can be bought cheaper in Mexico city than in New York, though the Mexican duty is double that of the American, and though the freight to Vera Cruz is higher than that to New York; not counting the freight on 263 miles by railway after the goods are landed." And he adds, with a certain air of incredulity, as if making a statement which he cannot expect his readers to credit, "Not only, it is said, are Custom-house positions given to individuals merely because they are poor, but sometimes to political agitators, merely to keep them quiet." Of the railway connecting the port with the city of Mexico, built and managed by an English company, Mr. Aubertin speaks in terms of the highest praise, both in regard to the excellence of its works and the beauty of the scenery. We have no space, however, to dwell upon this, nor upon the skill with which the engineers overcame the difficulties presented by the Sierra Madre in an ascent of 8,150 feet—difficulties so great that at Atoyac "the workmen were hung over the rocks by ropes to complete the cutting out of the line." The city of Mexico proved a disappointment. The scenery was not equal in grandeur to our traveller's expectations, the hotel was poor, the food bad, and the air pestilential. Though he found the city dull, yet it speaks well for the Mexicans that "bull-fights are forbidden within the federal or capital district," and that the sport is "denounced in more than one of the newspapers, the *Monitor Republicano* at their head, by whom it was coupled with gambling."

The principal silver mines which Mr. Aubertin visited were those of the Real del Monte Company at Pachuca, and the Santa Gertrudes. At one of the former the ore was still crushed and reduced in the most primitive fashion. Near the "treading-ground" of Regla was a "vast perpendicular wall of tall compact basaltic columns," similar to those found at Staffa and the Giant's Causeway, though far surpassing these latter, "as regards masses." Pieces cut from these columns "are rudely tied by a cord, and are run round and round in a broad trough of water and ore." After the requisite fineness is produced, "quicksilver and sulphate of copper are mixed with it, and horses are driven to and fro over the mess as we have seen them being driven round and round to thresh corn. Men, also, were at work after the same fashion, under roofing, recalling, but by violent antithesis, the treading of the wine-press! Men and horses of course suffer by this ugly and incomplete process; their feet and legs become gradually paralyzed, and the men are subjected at last to great trembling of the nerves, and thousands of ingots escape reduction and are lost." At a hacienda near by there had been set up some "elaborate machinery for extracting silver ore. . . . But it unhappily came to pass that on its being for the first time set to work, it was committed to incompetent and uninstructed hands, and in consequence of this some boiler or boilers had burst, by means whereof the whole affair had been thrown out of order and had been left in that abject condition ever since. Now, this is a fair sample of what is going on in the not-doing style in Mexico."

At Las Animas, near Orizaba, was a large coffee plantation, from which Mr. Aubertin brought home "two sacks, one of the double-bean, and one of the perola, or single-bean coffee." These were tested in London by a Rio coffee shipper, who pronounced them both to be "first-class coffees. As regards the perola, indeed, he ranked it with the best Java that he is in the habit of drinking. Mexico, with fitting population, could produce an unlimited quantity of coffee. She has coffee grounds in all parts, and coffee trees

in comparatively very few. This is a question of overwhelming importance to her, considering what a large market for coffee exists among her Northern neighbors. And all who have an interest in Mexico have a right to augur the most promising results from an extended cultivation of this plant." At another hacienda, Jasmine, not far distant, sugar was the chief production. But of this Mr. Aubertin does not speak so particularly, though he refers to the "vast plantations" of the sugar-cane through which he passed, and to the excellent machinery, including the centrifugal pans, which had been set up in the sugar-house of the estate. Having been instrumental in introducing the culture of cotton into the Brazilian province of San Paulo during our Civil War, it was natural that he should be interested in the attempts to introduce the growth and manufacture of cotton into Mexico. The only factory which he visited was the "Hercules," at Querétaro, the largest at that time in the country. It employed 1,200 hands, all of whom are "Indians, steady, attentive, and obedient." Their working-hours, the year round, are from five o'clock in the morning till half-past nine at night, with two intermissions, if he correctly informs us, for breakfast and dinner, aggregating an hour and a half. "The short staple cotton in use comes from the State of Vera Cruz; the long staple from the Pacific Coast; and rather more than half the raw quality employed is imported from the States." It may be said here that while Mr. Aubertin is confident that a time of great prosperity is in store for Mexico, in which her rich natural resources will be greatly developed, he is no less certain that the United States must furnish both the capital and the men who shall accomplish this peaceful revolution.

By a rare good fortune, one of the three companions of our author in the diligence on his journey to Querétaro was "the Government Assessor at the court-martial which sat in judgment on Maximilian and his two Generals"; and the second was a Colonel who "commanded a regiment at the execution." His host in the city, the owner of the "Hercules" factory, had entertained Maximilian in his house "when he made his imperial visit to the city in the early days of his aspiring to found a throne," and "supported him later, and more sadly, while he lay for five weeks an invalided prisoner in the convent of the Capuchinas." By the aid of this latter gentleman Mr. Aubertin obtained an interview with the priest who attended the unfortunate monarch in his last moments. From these various witnesses was received a detailed and presumably accurate account of the tragedy on the Cerro de las Campanas. It is a sad and touching story, in which treachery combined with a fatal weakness of character brought a brave man to an untimely end. Two incidents of the closing scenes of his life seem to us to show in a striking manner both the weakness and the nobility of Maximilian's character. "Just as they were leaving the Capuchinas Convent for the Cerro," said the Canon Soria, his confessor, "Maximilian pulled himself together, and striking his hand over his breast, said: 'I have doubled eight handkerchiefs over here to prevent my blood from soiling my uniform.'" On reaching the place of execution he said to General Miramon, "on the latter passing to the left in order to leave the centre for Maximilian, 'General, a brave man must be respected, even by sovereigns; permit me, then, on dying, to concede to you the post of honor.'" Oppressed with the failure of all his hopes, worn out with sickness, and believing his wife, the scarcely less miserable Carlotta, to be dead, there can be little doubt that he went willingly to his fate. "He said he always wished to die on a fine day," his confessor told Mr. Aubertin, "and was well content to do so on that morning." As they rode together in a carriage to the fatal spot, "he remarked upon the view of the city, and said, 'What a beautiful view, and what a beautiful day to die on!'"

Here it may be well to call attention to an inaccurate statement in Sir Theodore Martin's fourth volume of his 'Life of the Prince Consort' in regard to this event. He represents Maximilian as, "just before he was shot," giving a message for his wife to the attending priest. But Mr. Aubertin makes it evident that he died in the firm belief in his wife's death. The false report which was brought to him, but three or four days before his execution, by Mejia, the Indian general who suffered with him, was "generally supposed to have been invented by Mejia to pacify the mind of the Emperor, who had been more afflicted by the idea of leaving her in misery than by any other consideration."

Though our author stayed in Mexico but nine weeks, he made such good use of his time and opportunities, and he was so thoroughly prepared by his life in Brazil to understand and appreciate what he saw, that his book is more than a mere sketch. To all appearances it is, as far as it goes, a faithful picture of the present condition and prospects of the country.

Essays at Home and Elsewhere. By E. S. Nadal. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

THESE essays are partly critical and partly social; and, at the risk of using a very hackneyed phrase, we can think of no word that so aptly characterizes their general drift as "suggestive." Mr. Nadal's English is simple and straightforward, and no one can read the whole book without meeting with a good many trains of thought or suggestions that will make him feel that his time has not been thrown away. In the essay on Byron, which is the best in the book, Mr. Nadal has some interesting remarks on the fighting passion as it appears in Byron's poems. Byron's combatants, as he says, fight like tigers; they are filled with a deadly enmity. Sir Walter Scott's are apt to display a magnanimity in battle which reminds us of "highly honorable head-boys at Rugby." On the other hand, "the combatants of Byron have for one another a really feline hate. His imagination carries us into the midst of dark and implacable passions. He describes a character of man to whom an insult incompletely avenged is as irremediable a calamity as the loss of her virtue to a woman." Mr. Nadal adds:

"Such states of mind, although they exist, are very much the exception at present. It is, indeed, surprising, considering what the possibilities of those passions are, and their history, to see how little force they have in most people's minds. It is evident that they are gradually, but surely, growing weaker. This is being accomplished by the delicate and universal influence of democracy upon the individual character. This power works not through the moral sense of men, but through their self-interest. It does not repress the thought, but represses its manifestation. People cannot go on nursing thoughts which they are not permitted to express or exercise. Hence the passions themselves dwindle like those organs of the animal creation which disappear by disuse."

The idea which lies at the bottom of these passages, that the passions of hate and revenge in modern life are not what they once were, has no doubt a good deal of truth in it; and their intensity in Byron's poetry was the intensity of the antique, anti-democratic world—the world in which love-making and war were felt to be the only proper occupation for a gentleman. But the connection between the change and democracy Mr. Nadal does not make at all clear. It is probably the commercial spirit that every year tends to produce a type of character in which hate plays a very unimportant part. Displays of hate and anger, moral considerations apart, are discountenanced universally in this country, not because it is governed by universal suffrage, but because the country is devoted to business; and nothing is more dangerous to success in business than a sensitive and uncertain temper, or indulgence in feelings of animosity, as such. In a commercial country the man will get on best who is most universally good-natured and considerate of the feelings of others, and who allows his intellect to be least clouded by passion of any kind. A man who is frequently losing his temper, or easily insulted, is at a disadvantage in the struggle for opportunities of profit. Consequently, most Americans are accustomed to look upon temper of any kind as a vice, and even to confound a perfectly natural and just indignation with it. In a country in which most people are always trying to sell each other something, bad temper interferes with success in life; and, on the principle of natural selection, those will succeed best who have the best tempers, and thus amiability will itself become, as it has become in the United States, a marked national trait, and the Byronic passions will only be found among the uncommercial classes—the cutthroats and ruffians who figure in the police reports.

Mr. Nadal makes up for his occasional suggestiveness by writing a vast amount of rubbish, which there can be no excuse for printing unless the fact that the author really does not know the difference between the important and the trivial in literature. He has an essay on Artemus Ward which would probably have made that eminent showman laugh loudly if he could have read it. Mr. Browne was, after all, hardly a serious literary character, and an analysis of the sources and meaning of his humor is a task full of peril.

A Comprehensive Commentary on the Qurán: Comprising Sale's Translation and Preliminary Discourse, with Additional Notes and Emendations. By the Rev. E. M. Wherry, M.A. Vol. I. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

WE have here the twenty-ninth volume of "The English and Foreign Philosophical Library," the constituent members of which have been of various degrees of excellence, and, taken altogether, rather a motley assemblage. For a moment our temptation is to say that the novelty of spelling which substitutes Qurán for Koran, is the only new thing about the book. Of 390 pages, more than 280 are taken up with Sale's preliminary discourse on the Koran, and much of the remainder of the book with his translation. This appeared in 1734, and has stood the winnowing of time remarkably well. The "Preliminary Discourse" also has suffered less than almost any other study in comparative religion of an equal age. Sale brought to his work of translation and exposition a remarkable sobriety and diligence, and a spirit quite uncommon 150 years ago. Luther's "Oh, fie, for shame, you horrid devil—you damned Mahomet!" was not then two centuries old, this being a note on a translation of the Koran, a miserable one in Latin, that he came upon in 1540. From Luther to Sale there was but little change, if any. The talk of Behemoths, and beasts, and korahs, and six hundred and sixty-sixes, and the Little Horn of Daniel, had shown hardly any sign of improvement when Sale attained by a magnificent leap to well-nigh the appreciation of Goethe and Carlyle. Mohammed was at least for him no miserable impostor, but a sincere reformer of religion, deserving of a name high and revered among the great religious founders

of the world. At points where the "Preliminary Discourse" of Sale has obviously been corrected by more recent studies Mr. Wherry has made the necessary corrections.

The translation of Sale, as well as his preliminary discourse, was a remarkable production for the time when it appeared, quite worthy of the generous commendation of Voltaire, though his opinion in the premises was of small account. Its arrangement of the Suras is the orthodox arrangement, whereas the recent translation of Rodwell attempts a chronological order. Both arrangements have their advantages. Mr. Wherry, preparing a commentary for the use of the missionaries, naturally preferred the orthodox arrangement. Rodwell's translation is more exact and has more of verbal felicity, but Mr. Wherry has used it so freely in checking Sale that not much is lost upon this side. For a translation that gives a better idea than either Sale's or Rodwell's of the Koran's real force and beauty we must betake ourselves to Lane's 'Selections.'

Mr. Wherry is a Christian missionary, and has worked with missionary aims, but he is one of the broader-minded of his class. He has been at considerable pains to draw out the testimony of the Koran to the genuineness and credibility of the Christian Scriptures; to insist upon the fabricated character of the Koran in contrast with its claim to supernatural inspiration; to indicate Mohammed's denial of the doctrines of the "Former Scriptures" while attesting their divinity; and to reprobate his appeals to Heaven in sanction of his personal immorality. There is something over "vigorous and rigorous" in Mr. Wherry's putting of these things; but, on the other hand, he is careful to correct many of the grosser misrepresentations and misapprehensions of the Christian world concerning Mohammed and his religion. Many of his own notes are a real addition to those of Sale, but the value of his commentary depends less on these than on his citations from the best Moslem commentators and the ablest European scholars in elucidation of the text. The notes from Muir and Nöldeke are always able and instructive. Mr. R. Bosworth Smith's 'Mohammed and Mohammedanism' is quoted in a manner more respectful than its trivial and bumptious character would seem to warrant. Another volume will be necessary for the completion of the translation and the commentary.

William Penn (1644–1718). By R. J. Burdette. [Lives of American Worthies.] Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

THE work before us marks a very decided departure from the ordinary methods of biographical and historical criticism. It is a difficult task for any but the most rigidly conscientious writer to execute a comic biography which shall do adequate justice to the merits of the character he designs to present, so easy is it, under the disguise of a joke, to portray the most disinterested and high-minded actions in such a manner as sorely to mislead the uninformed. Mr. Burdette appears to have been particularly sedulous to avoid this danger. He has endeavored, as far as possible, to be perfectly fair, and frequently at the close of some humorous or exaggerated account of events he has a serious paragraph by way of rectification. His closing eulogy of Penn is flattering enough to satisfy the great Quaker's most ardent admirer:

"In an age of bitter persecution and unbridled wickedness he never wronged his conscience. A favored member of a court where statesmanship was intrigue and trickery, where the highest morality was corruption, and whose austerity was venality, he never stained his hands with a bribe. Living under a Government at war with the people, and educated in a school that taught the doctrine of passive obedience, his life-long dream was of popular government, of a state where the people ruled."

But Mr. Burdette has by no means wholly escaped the quicksands of comic biography. The effort to present in a humorous guise Penn's final reception of his religious faith, his diplomatic mission to Holland, his prolonged residence in England, his assumed tenacity of self-interest, and his anxiety for "quit rents," has resulted, as such efforts are very likely to result, in somewhat distorting the real facts of the case. At one place the author says of Penn: "His faculty of self-interest was well developed," but forgets at the same time to give due prominence to the fact that Penn refused the offer of the Assembly of 1683 to grant him "an impost on certain imports and exports"; and also that, in after-life, when oppressed with financial burdens and despoiled of many of his rights by his delinquent colonists, he steadfastly declined to consider his manifest advantage, by selling the province to the Crown, without the strongest guarantees that the liberties he had granted to the people of Pennsylvania should be preserved intact. Our author also attributes the attitude of the early Pennsylvanians regarding "quit-rents" to the fact that their proprietor stood to them in the relation of a feudal lord. It is possible that such was the true cause, but it seems hardly likely when we inquire what ground they had for withholding supplies, and allowing the Proprietary to maintain, at his private expense, the Government by which they profited so much. The early settlers not only never paid Penn his "quit-rents," but the Assembly only voted supplies on one or two occasions. They even refused a grant to defray his expenses to England, when he was obliged to return to the mother country to represent their interests before the House of Lords. Logan's view of the case, that their conduct was due to an excess of freedom, is the more probable one. In a letter to Penn, the Secretary says: "There are few that think it any sin to haul what they can from thee."

Mr. Burdette has, upon the whole, displayed fidelity to historical facts. He has drawn his materials largely from the works of Dixon and Janney. His aim has not been to add anything substantially new to our knowledge of the subject, but simply to set forth in a comical way the somewhat prosaic items of history. His sketch of the pamphleteering energies of religious controversialists of the seventeenth century is very amusing.

American Game-Bird Shooting. By John Mortimer Murphy. Illustrated. Orange Judd Co.

A PARAGRAPH of the publishers' circular which accompanies Mr. Murphy's work claims preëminence for him as a sportsman on the following grounds: "Having served in the artillery, when only a mere lad, during the War, and subsequently acted as Assistant Adjutant-General of the State of Oregon, he has a complete knowledge of ordnance, and this and his varied experiences in field sports have made him a clever 'all-round sportsman.'" It would be most desirable if the majority of those who use a sporting gun were made to go through a similar course of training. What with the casualties of war and the dangers attendant on an Assistant Adjutant-Generalship of Oregon and the care of its ordnance, the chances of the survival of even an "all-round sportsman" would be pleasantly slim. Mr. Murphy has not emerged from so bitter an apprenticeship entirely unscathed, as is demonstrated by the fact that he has written a book on 'American Game-Bird Shooting.'

It is but just to concede that to one class of readers this book cannot fail to prove attractive. Those youths about to become the possessors of, or who already own, their first shotgun, will accord it a warm and gracious welcome. To them the facts the author gives will prove both instructive and entertaining; to the sportsman he imparts no information which has not been already given much more agreeably over and over again. What the effect of Mr. Murphy's success as an author will be, in the way of encouragement, upon his successors to the Assistant Adjutant-Generalship of Oregon and the "all-round sportsmen" of that State, is a question to which the boldest man will shrink from hazarding a reply.

Essays on the Floating-Matter of the Air, in relation to Putrefaction and Infection. By John Tyndall, F.R.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

As all the essays contained in this volume have already been before the public for several years, it is only necessary to call attention to their publication in book form. No better book can be placed in the hands of a student about to engage in the study of the question of spontaneous generation and the germ theory of disease. The care and ingenuity displayed in peforming the experiments, and the power of close reasoning shown in the discussion of their results, entitle the book to be regarded as a model of its class. Now that the recent researches of Koch upon tuberculosis have justified the hope that we are upon the threshold of important discoveries in regard to the connection of low organisms with the production of disease, it is of vital importance that the minds of all who are engaged in the research should be imbued with the spirit of fairness and the love of truth which are so conspicuous in the writings of Dr. Tyndall.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 28–30. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Collot's French Dialogues and Phrases.—Interlinear French Reader.—French Anecdotes and Questions.—Levizac's French Grammar and Exercises.—Pronouncing French Reader. Five volumes. Philadelphia: T. Ellwood Zell.
Daugé, H. A Fair Philosopher. George W. Harlan & Co. $1.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vols. i.-xiv. Subscription edition. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Gercke, Dr. H. Das öffentliche Schulwesen der Stadt. New York: E. Steiger. 30 cents.
Griswold, W. M. Autoren- und Sachregister der *Deutschen Rundschau* (vols. i.-xxix). Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index.
Hackett, F. W. The Geneva Award Acts, with Notes, and References to Decisions of the Court of Commissioners of *Alabama* Claims. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Hennell, Sara S. Comparative Ethics. I. Moral Standpoint. London: Trübner & Co.
Hollister, G. H. Kinley Hollow. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Hubbard's Guide to Moosehead Lake and Northern Maine. Boston: A. Williams & Co. $1 50
Locke, D. R. Nasby in Exile; or, Six Months of Travel in England, Ireland, etc. Illustrated. Toledo: Locke Publishing Co.; New York: C. T. Dillingham. $3 50.
Lombard, J. K. Gleanings. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50c.
Longley, E. Eclectic Manual of Phonography. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 75 cents.
Miller, J. B. Das englische Recht und das römische Recht. New York: E. Steiger. 30 cents.
Murphy, J. M. American Game-Bird Shooting. Orange Judd Co. $2.
Reiss, W., and Stübel, A. Necropolis of Ancon, in Peru. Part 7. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7 50.
Russell, W. C. My Watch Below; or, Yarns Spun when Off Duty. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cts.
Short, J. T. Ohio: a Sketch of Industrial Progress. Columbus: A. H. Smythe.
Stebbins, Sarah Bridges. The Annals of a Baby. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Stirling, M. C. The Minister's Son. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Treat, Mary. Injurious Insects of the Farm and Garden. Orange Judd Co. $2.
Vaihinger, Prof. H. Commentar zu Kant's Kritik der Reinen Vernunft. Vol. i., Part 2. Stuttgart: W. Spemann.
Walcott, C. F. History of the Twenty-first Regiment Massachusetts Volunteers, 1861–65. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Westcott, B. F., and Hort, F. J. A. The New Testament in the Original Greek. Introduction by Dr. Schaff. Harper & Bros.
Whitehead, Celia B. What's the Matter? W. B. Smith & Co. 25 cents.
Whitman, W. Leaves of Grass. Philadelphia: Rees, Welsh & Co. $2.
Yonge, Charlotte M. Unknown to History. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Young Disciple: a Novel. W. B. Smith & Co. $1 25.
Zöckler, Prof. O. Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften. Vol. i., Part 1. Nördlingen: C. H. Beck; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Zola, E. The Mysteries of Marseilles. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 24, 1882.

The Week.

THE seizure of the Suez Canal by Sir Garnet Wolseley has some lessons which may be of service to our Government in the matter of the proposed canal across the Isthmus of Panama. The British have taken possession of it from end to end, and are apparently going to use it as a base for their operations against Cairo. Now, the neutrality of the Canal has been guaranteed by the Sultan, within whose dominions, technically considered, it lies; but it turns out, as might have been expected, that his guarantee is not of the slightest value, inasmuch as he has no power to enforce it, were he never so desirous of doing so. He weighs in the matter about as much as M. de Lesseps, who is protesting valiantly. Whether a joint guarantee of the Powers would have been any more effective is very doubtful. It could only have been made effective by combined opposition to the British plans on the part of the naval Powers, but this it would have been almost impossible to bring about. Guarantees of neutrality, like other joint treaties, are apt to be enforced only when it suits everybody concerned. In any such combination Germany would have been a leading factor, and it suits Germany just now to let England have her way; and in the presence of this attitude of Bismarck the French and Italian fleets count for nothing. One thing the whole affair teaches is, in fact, that nothing but a very powerful fleet at each end of an interoceanic canal, or very powerful army along its banks, can guarantee its neutrality. Another is that threats of what will happen if it is violated are not likely to be much regarded by a belligerent. Belligerents seldom care much about remote consequences. They trust to luck, and think only of to-morrow or the day after. As a matter of fact, most of the bold, unscrupulous strokes in war succeed. By the time those who feel outraged by them get ready to chastise the insult, their anger has blown over. Almost the only exception to this rule in recent times has been the Russian invasion of Turkey in 1853. If we want to have a perfectly sure hold of the Panama Canal, we shall have to own it, and have enough force on the spot to repel any attempt to seize it, besides guaranteeing its neutrality on paper.

The plan of campaign in Egypt, as now revealed by Sir Garnet Wolseley, bids fair to justify the anticipation attributed to him that active operations will be over by September 15. It may be described very briefly by saying that Arabi had made all his preparations to resist an advance on Cairo, the capital, from Alexandria, and had constructed extensive and formidable earthworks for this purpose, and that the British are ignoring these altogether and have established a base substantially in his rear, which will compel him to abandon his present position and fight, if he fights at all, somewhere northeast of Cairo, probably at Tel-el-Kebir, on the railroad from Ismaïlia. The British are now in possession of the whole Canal, and have established themselves at Ismaïlia, the little half-way city created by the late Khedive, and there is evidently to be a rapid concentric advance both from that point and from Suez to Cairo, a distance of about sixty miles. There is no sign as yet of any such fighting power on the part of the Arabs as to lead us to expect that the march across the desert will be seriously impeded. Thus far there has been substantially no resistance to the invaders in the open, and but a feeble one behind the works. The defeat and slaughter of the intrenched garrison of Shaluff by a comparatively small party of British, shows that the Egyptian troops have not improved in quality since the Crimean war, or the Russo-Turkish war of 1876. In both of these they were practically worthless, even when supported by men of sterner stuff.

In the meantime the state of things in Turkey is very curious. Lord Dufferin has been trying to force the Sultan into signing a convention binding him to send troops to Egypt to aid in subduing Arabi Pasha, but placing them practically under Sir Garnet Wolseley's orders. This the Sultan and the Pashas cannot make up their minds to do, almost certainly for the very simple reason that their object in going to Egypt is not to fight, but to get at Arabi's treasury, which they believe to be pretty full, as the fellaheen are much better taxpayers than the Sultan's own subjects. The reason why the English want to keep the Turks under their own orders is that they know the Turkish fighting will not amount to anything, but wish to show the natives that the head of the Mohammedan world is on their side. There is, too, some very reasonable fear that if the Turks were allowed to wander about loose, they would, if they helped anybody, help the Egyptians. The Sultan is accordingly in a very perplexing situation, and apparently also in a very bad humor, for he has issued a decree forbidding the sale of mules to the British commissariat. This is not surprising, for the court is credibly reported to be in worse straits for money than ever before, so that a second stoppage of the palace mutton is not unlikely. The Galata bankers will lend no more at any rate of interest, and the London *Truth* has an amusing story, which is not improbable, that one of the officers has been selling some of the imperial furniture to raise the wind for himself. In fact, it may be said that the treatment of this crew of swindling debauchees and eunuchs as a regular government, to be negotiated with and deferred to, is one of the oddest phenomena in modern history, when we consider that it is the result of a sort of concert between the leading civilized Powers of the world.

Mr. Gustav Schwab, while giving his views on the subject of the wool trade before the Tariff Commission, said, in the innocence of his heart, that if he were to follow his own convictions, he would make an argument in favor of free wool, but that he supposed it would not be acceptable to the Commission. This remark was made in the course of a colloquy with Mr. A. M. Garland, the President of the National Wool-Growers' Association, who enjoys a place on the Commission. The National Wool-Growers' Association is an organization whose chief business is to look after the wool tariff. Probably Mr. Schwab was aware of this fact, and hastily drew the inference that an argument for free wool would be out of place then and there. Mr. Kenner, of Louisiana, was so impressed with Mr. Schwab's frankness that he insisted upon knowing how the latter came to imagine that an argument for free wool would not be acceptable to the Commission. Mr. Schwab replied that he had learned at Washington city that the wool-growers had great influence in legislation, and that this fact was uppermost in his mind when he made the observation which excited Mr. Kenner's curiosity. No allusion to Mr. Kenner's colleague, Mr. Garland, was intended, or to any interests he might be supposed to represent. Mr. Schwab's politeness was as graceful as his former frankness had been charming. We trust that Mr. Kenner was soothed by it.

Before he made the formal statement of his views on wool duties, Mr. Schwab had had an informal conversation on the subject both with Mr. Garland and with Tariff Commissioner Hayes, a member of the same National Wool-Growers' Association and a representative also of the wool manufacturers. It might be hastily assumed that these particular wool-growers were associated solely for the purpose of promoting the raising and shearing of sheep, but that would be a great mistake. The chief object of the society is to maintain a satisfactory protective duty on imported wool, and the associates are far more concerned about members of Congress than about sheep. Mr. Hayes has made himself so useful in securing these high duties, in connection with high duties on manufactured wool, that he would be entitled to life-membership of the Association even if he should take no further interest in the wool question. A further and proper recognition of these services is his selection for President of the Tariff Commission. Mr. Schwab might be excused for taking for granted that these eminent wool-growers were not friendly to free wool. To assume that, after so long and so openly maintaining the patriotic and commercial duty of putting a high tariff on wool, they would prove false to their convictions and betray the trust of the National Association, simply because they had been appointed members of a commission to revise the tariff laws, would be an act of discourtesy of which we are sure Mr. Schwab is altogether incapable. But if there had been any doubt as to their position, these celebrated wool growers removed it in the course of the conversation, when Mr. Garland and Mr. Hayes both spoke of the abolition of the duty "as an

impracticable measure, which, of course, Mr. Schwab would not even mention." So when he addressed the Commission, instead of raising the unworthy imputation that an honorable wool-grower could undergo an economic transformation and abandon the opinions of a lifetime upon the calling of the Commission to order, Mr. Schwab politely assumed that these Commissioners believed then what they believed ten minutes before, and said that, while he was himself for free wool, he did not think it worth while to discuss the subject from that point of view.

In an interview reported on Thursday Representative Carlisle, of Kentucky, said that the meetings of the Tariff Commission "reminded him very much of the sessions of the Committee of Ways and Means." That Committee listens regularly to the "selfishly interested" people who want "the tariff adjusted to suit their own objects and views." This is what the Tariff Commission is doing. Mr. Carlisle predicted that the Commission would simply "send to Congress three or four thousand printed pages of testimony which not a half-dozen members would read." This is just what the Committee of Ways and Means would do if it should be directed to sit during the recess. The testimony will be almost wholly of the selfishly-interested kind which Mr. Carlisle describes. While the various witnesses will have particular interests to serve, there will be substantial unanimity of protest against a reduction of duties If it be asked why so much testimony of this sort will be taken, the answer is that it is generally understood that the Commission was organized for the very purpose of gathering such evidence. It is equally well understood that evidence of a different kind is not wanted. Neither Mr. Kenner nor any other rational man can suppose for a moment that the Commission was formed with a view to free wool or free anything else. If the design had been to reduce duties and enlarge the free list, a majority of the Commission would have been composed of men inclined to such a policy; or at least half of it would have been so made up. Certainly that policy would not have been altogether denied representation.

At Saratoga on Thursday Mr. Bonney, of Chicago, gave the Bankers' Convention some account of what is known as the "equity" bankruptcy scheme, reported favorably in the Senate at the last session. The scheme is simply to put the whole business of winding up bankrupt estates in the hands of the United States courts, leaving them, as in all other matters over which they have jurisdiction, to make their own rules of practice and procedure. This plan has never been tried, certainly in this country, where we have always had an elaborate system provided in the Bankrupt Act itself, with a special set of officials, minute regulations as to fees, etc. The act, when one is in force, is always amended every year, so that the procedure never becomes entirely stable. Now, this instability would undoubtedly be avoided by turning the whole matter over to the courts; and, taking the United States courts as they are, and Congress as it is, there can be little doubt that bankrupts and creditors would be better satisfied in the long run with having the matter wholly regulated by the judges in each circuit than by members of Congress. At any rate, the other plan, whenever it has been tried, has failed, while this plan may work well. If it does not, Congress can always interfere, and pass an old-fashioned bankrupt act, while, if it begins with one, it is not likely to go back to the equity plan; for, with an ordinary bankrupt act, owing to the number of officials interested in its being continued in force, the pressure against any change which would sweep them out of existence would be very great.

According to a cable despatch published the other day, Mr. Lowell has abandoned all hope of the international copyright negotiations coming to anything. Nobody is likely to be very much surprised at the news; it was anticipated by all who have followed the negotiations with any attention. The pirates have now a great opportunity, which they probably will not neglect, to reap a rich harvest, and we trust they will do so, for nothing but unlimited piracy will ever convince the great publishers that their attempts to establish international copyright on the basis of protection to the American book manufacturers will not work. The "Harper" treaty has broken down because the publishers have attempted, under pretence of making literary property sacred, to compel the foreign author to publish his book in America. Sooner or later the publishers will find out that they must all come into the market on equal terms, or else that they will be permanently driven out of the market by the pirates. The authors' best friend at present is the pirate, for it is the pirate alone who can bring the publishers to their senses. He has already half-converted most of the publishers, and in time he will make his work of regeneration complete.

The international law reformers have held their tenth annual conference of the International Congress at Liverpool, and discussed, among other things, the possibility of introducing an international form of bill of lading. It was voted, as the principle of liability, that the shipowner, whether of steam or sailing ship, should be liable for the faults of his servants in all matters relating to the ordinary course of the voyage, such as the stowage and right delivery of the cargo, and other matters of this kind; but, on the other hand, the shipowner should be exempt from liability for everything which comes under the head of "accidents of navigation," even though the loss from these may be indirectly attributable to some fault or neglect of the crew. This change seems very objectionable. It makes the responsibility of a carrier at sea different from that of a land-carrier, and without any good reason. A more sensible vote was that on the retention of the words "act of God," which some of the members objected to, incredible as it may seem, on the ground of "irreverence," and others because they were not sufficiently definite. The fact is that the term has acquired, by the decisions of judges, a perfectly definite legal meaning, and the sure way to unsettle it would be to introduce a new phrase, which would call for more interpretation. The Conference took this view, and the motion to strike out the words was lost by a vote of 27 to 12.

Another subject discussed by the Conference was that of marriage. The conclusion said to have been reached is, that the rule that a marriage valid in the place where contracted should be valid everywhere ought to be made international. This is the rule of our courts, but the fact that it is shows at once how very slight an improvement would be effected by making it universal. The rule has prevailed here since the settlement of the country, and yet there is no country in the world where divorce is so easy and the marriage tie so loose. In fact, in the modern world this country produces more marital troubles and complications than all the rest put together. Much of it comes from the ease with which foreign divorces are obtained on short residence, and this evil cannot be reduced by making a marriage good in one place good in all.

Another Southern "outrage" has been discovered in an election law passed by the Legislature of Louisiana. According to the account given by the alarmists, this statute provides that no ballot shall be received by the inspectors or counted by the canvassers "unless it is printed on paper furnished by the Secretary of State," and "so distinguished from all other paper as to be readily and unerringly identified." This is described as "the crowning manifestation" of "Democratic folly and recklessness and corruption," inasmuch as it leaves it for the Secretary of State "to say who shall cast a vote in Louisiana." We should be extremely reluctant to fix a limit to Democratic "folly and recklessness," in Louisiana or elsewhere; and certainly, if the Secretary of State should refuse to furnish the official paper to anybody but his friends, he might possibly prevent a good many people from voting. Any law may be abused, but it cannot be taken for granted that the officer entrusted with its execution will abuse it. Under such an assumption it might be necessary altogether to stop the making of laws. We suspect that this Louisiana law is very like the one under which elections are now held in the State of New York, and which prescribes the size of ballots, and the color and quality of paper on which, and the kind of type with which, they shall be printed. Some objection was made to this measure when it was proposed, but it is found to work well. Instead of promoting fraud, the intent and the effect are to prevent it. The tissue-ballot swindle is impossible under it, and as for the ready and unerring identification on which stress is laid by the critics of the Louisiana law, the truth is that, as the outside of all ballots of all parties will be alike, it will really be impossible to identify them for the purpose of intimidation or other unlawful object.

The principal financial event of the week was the advance in the posted discount rate of the Bank of England to four per cent. from three per cent. Although the reserve of the

Bank is not high, yet nothing in the present situation demanded the advance. It was therefore construed as a premonition or notice to the commercial world, and particularly to this country, that an effort will be made to prevent gold leaving London during the remainder of the year. It is now tolerably clear that England will need more of our breadstuffs and cotton than last year, and there was a good prospect that we should draw gold from her. The importance of the action of the Bank is that it weakens this expectation. Here the Treasury continues to take in more money than it pays out, and some currency is going to the interior from the Atlantic cities. The surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced to less than $2,000,000, and is falling. The rate for call loans did not, however, fairly advance above 4@4½ per cent. Foreign exchange advanced for short-date remittances. At the Stock Exchange the tendency of prices for railroad stocks was, with few exceptions, to lower figures, and the decline ranged from ½ to 4¼ points. The general trade of the country is looking well and promises to be extraordinarily good during the autumn. The railroad tonnage does not yet show an increase, for the reason that the movement of the new crops has not yet become important.

Mr. James W. Fitch, of Ohio, has written a letter to the New Haven *Palladium* to protest against the "Walter Malley March" being played on the green, and against the Walter Malley jury having picnics in honor of saving Blanche and the Malley boys from the gallows. The *Palladium* thinks that "disgrace enough" has been brought upon New Haven by the trial, and insists that the "Walter Malley March" must not be played any more. The *Palladium* and Mr. Fitch do not analyze the reasons for objecting to such performances, but if they did, they would no doubt say that the whole Malley trial was a very disgusting and repulsive inquiry; that "the boys" are cold-blooded young villains, apparently destitute of shame; that their accomplice, Blanche, is an outcast of a very depraved type; that much of the testimony in the case was so disgusting as to be unfit for publication; and that consequently the whole affair is one which everybody in New Haven dislikes to hear mentioned or alluded to. The leader of the American band who plays the "Walter Malley March," however, draws exactly the opposite conclusion—that these facts make the case replete with human interest, and that there is nothing that the citizen of New Haven likes better, when he takes his pleasure, than to listen to inspiriting strains which recall the villany of the boys, the vileness of Blanche, and the excitement produced by the mass of filth and perjury which made up the evidence in the case. If the leader of the band could be induced to give his views about the matter to the press, they would constitute a contribution to psychology and sociology of great interest.

Mr. Wilde's lecture at Long Beach on the useful and the beautiful is said to have caused a great deal of ill-feeling, and from the reports of the lecture which have appeared, this must have been due to his uncalled-for attack on the cast-iron stove. He denounced it in very plain language, and declared that it was the stove which had most shocked and disgusted him in America. He found himself able to stand the architecture of the houses, and the dressing, and the insincere furniture; but the stove, the cast-iron stove, with its meaningless shape and its ornamentation of cast-iron roses, he protested against. That this should have caused some feeling in the audience is only natural, considering the important part that the stove plays in American life. The iron stove is a great national institution, and if the public is to be weaned from it, it should be gently and gradually, and not by violent denunciation and abuse. Other countries get along without stoves; but then they get along without a great many things that we have. The French, for instance, although their attention has often been called to the matter, get along without any word for "home" in their language, but we cannot. We are accustomed to the stove. We have it in the country store, and round it cluster a thousand interesting political and religious associations. The store "base-burner" has been in every town and village of the United States the nursery of political agitation and political harmony. Then there is the "air-tight" stove, at the glowing sides of which the solitary village Tweed, sent hungry to bed, warms himself while maturing schemes of adult pillage and spoliation. Then there is the railroad stove, which has slain its thousands, and tens of thousands, and the gas-stove, which has rendered the atmosphere hideous in many a happy American home. We may suffer from the stove, but our sufferings endear it to us, and therefore the reformer should rouse us from our dream gently.

It seems to be time that the somewhat ridiculous controversy which has been raging in England over the *Nation's* statement that not over "one man in one hundred thousand," in this community, "had the manners or cultivation of a gentleman, changed his shirt more than once a week, or ate with his fork," should cease. Mr. Matthew Arnold seized on it as a bit of statistics illustrating the low condition of American manners, in an article on American Society, and ever since then it has formed a subject of heated discussion between the friends and enemies of American institutions, which is continued in the last number of the *Spectator*. The article in which the shirt-and-fork illustration appeared in our columns was suggested by a protest of the *Pall Mall Gazette* against the luxurious habits and ideas in which boys who have no pecuniary expectations, and will have to earn their own bread, are brought up in English schools and colleges. We said this protest was as applicable to this country as to England; that here, too, young men in college get into wealthy men's way of looking at life, although, after leaving college, they will have to work for a living in a society which is, as to shirts and forks, in the condition we described, and to which they will have to adapt themselves. It was no more a statistical statement than that old one about the knowledge possessed by "every school-boy," and the crushing calculation which some of its critics have made, that this would leave only five hundred clean-shirted and fork-using men in the United States, is about as useful as the production of several school-boys ignorant of what "every school-boy knows."

The British Parliament has adjourned until the 24th of October, after a lively but entirely inconclusive debate on the arrest of Mr. Gray. In this Mr. Gladstone plainly indicated that he regarded the action of Mr. Justice Lawson in imprisoning Mr. Gray as oppressive; but very truly said that he knew of no way in which even a Parliamentary committee could secure his release. If, as we suppose, the punishment has nothing to do with coercion, but is simply an excessive punishment for a common-law contempt of court, there is nothing short of an address to the Crown for the removal of the Judge which would be of any avail. Mr. Gladstone went so far as to suggest such a course, amid loud cheers from the Irish members. Nothing could better show the embarrassing position in which the hasty action of the Judge places the Government than the debate which followed. Mr. Sexton insisted that he ought to have allowed Mr. Gray to make a defence, and read telegrams relating to one of the convictions commented upon by Mr. Gray's newspaper (the Hynes case), reciting affidavits declaring several of the jurymen to have been drunk, and repeating the accusations of jury-packing in Ireland. Mr. Gray of course ought not to have had a severe and unusual punishment inflicted upon him without being given leave to show that there was some basis of fact for his publication, and obviously it would be a gross outrage to carry out the sentence on Hynes if his conviction could be proved to have been procured from a drunken jury.

When these facts came out, Mr. Johnson, Attorney-General for Ireland, was obliged to enter into a defence of the composition of Irish juries, and to promise that Earl Spencer should investigate the charge with regard to the Hynes jury. Thus, while Mr. Gray is being locked up in Ireland for making the charge, the Attorney-General is promising in Parliament to have it at once investigated—a state of affairs only calculated to bring into greater contempt the administration of the law in Ireland. The publicity of the debate defeats any object that might be gained by the imprisonment itself. On this account the adjournment of Parliament will strengthen Mr. Gladstone's hands for the time being. Whatever is done in Ireland by hasty judges or over-zealous prosecuting officers—and probably many oppressive things will be done—the Government will escape the dangerous attacks of the Irish party in the House. The adjournment will also be an advantage in the Egyptian campaign, for an atmosphere of Parliamentary debate and criticism at home is not that in which any Government likes to carry on a foreign war. If, as now seems probable, the Egyptian campaign proves short and decisive, the prestige of Mr. Gladstone—for he is the Government—will be greatly increased when Parliament reconvenes.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 16, to TUESDAY, August 22, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR remained in this city until Tuesday, when he went to Newport. A Cabinet meeting was held at his house on Lexington Avenue on Monday afternoon. Nothing of particular public interest was discussed.

Considerable excitement has been caused in political circles in this State by a recent editorial article in the Albany *Evening Journal*, charging Mr. Conkling, in the interest of Jay Gould, with having endeavored to influence Governor Cornell's action on the Elevated Railway and Pacific Mail Steamship Tax Bills, offering him his (Conkling's) support in the Governorship contest, and also an opportunity to profit by the probable rise of the stocks. The article is supposed to have been "inspired" by Governor Cornell, and it will have a great influence on the coming political campaign for the Governorship in this State.

Mr. Jay Gould added his mite to the Conkling-Cornell controversy by asserting, in an interview published in a Sunday newspaper, that Governor Cornell promised to sign the Elevated Railroad Tax Bill, but that, after the bill had been passed, he discovered some constitutional objections, and expressed a wish that Mr. Conkling should be employed by the company to give a legal opinion on them. Mr. Conkling was employed, and the Governor vetoed the bill. Mr. Gould also asserts that Governor Cornell got up a blind pool in American District Telegraph stock, with his assistance and that of Mr. Russell Sage and Sidney Dillon; that after inducing his friends to buy stock he "went the other way" and made a large sum of money by selling. Governor Cornell denies that he promised to sign the Tax Bill, but makes no explanation in regard to the blind pool. The Albany *Journal*, in an editorial article on Monday, reiterated its charges, and also asserted that Mr. Cornell was promised Mr. Conkling's support, and that of all the Gould newspapers, if he would make a favorable decision on the Tax Bill.

The conventions of the First, Second, and Third Assembly Districts of Albany County, N. Y., were held on Tuesday, to select delegates to the Republican State Convention. Pronounced anti-Cornell delegates were elected throughout. In the Second District a resolution to endorse Governor Cornell's administration was overwhelmingly voted down. Secretary Folger was a favorite candidate among the politicians at the conventions.

Senator Mahone, of Virginia, is seriously troubled by the open revolt of Congressman Fulkerson, of the Ninth District, who has broken loose from the coalition, and declares himself an Independent candidate for Congress.

The Ohio Democrats, on Wednesday, nominated F. D. Walker for Secretary of State, John Foley for Treasurer, and minor State officers. The platform demands civil-service reform and a reduction of taxation in national affairs. In State affairs the Democrats declare that they will use all legal means to eliminate the prohibition amendment from the Constitution. They demand State regulation of railway freight charges.

On Friday the Greenbackers of Massachusetts nominated General Benjamin F. Butler for Governor, George Dutton, of Springfield, for Lieutenant-Governor, and other minor State officers. The platform demands a check upon the power of wealth, and a system that will secure to the laborer the profits of his toil; that the national debt shall be paid as rapidly as the revenues will allow; that the general Government shall coin and issue all money, whether metallic or paper, make it a full legal tender for all debts, without exception, and receive it in payment of all taxes, and that it shall abolish the national banks as banks of issue. A board of arbitration for the settlement of labor troubles in the State is recommended, and Minister Lowell's course at the Court of St. James is condemned.

The State Committee of the Anti-Monopoly party of New York held a meeting in this city on Wednesday and decided to hold their State Convention on September 13, at Saratoga.

Governor Foster, of Ohio, made a speech before a Republican County Convention on Wednesday, in which he denounced the whiskey dealers' rebellion in that State in strong terms.

At a meeting of the Western Distillers' Association in Chicago, on Thursday, resolutions were passed favoring the enforcement of the Sunday laws, and asking no special privilege for their business in that respect. They approve a well-digested license law, with the fee placed high enough to yield a large revenue and reduce the number of drinking-places. They oppose arraying themselves against either of the great political parties.

Before the Tariff Commission, during the week, pleas have been heard from the representatives of a great number of industries, most of them in favor of increased duties. A notable exception was Mr. Gustav Schwab, of this city, who remarked that he would advocate free wool, except that such an argument would not be acceptable to the Commission. This remark was resented by Commissioner Kenner, who said that they were willing to hear free-trade as well as protection arguments. William S. Rice, of New York, on Thursday, urged the removal of the ten per cent. duty on hay. A programme has been arranged by the Commission to hold meetings in a number of the prominent cities during the next few weeks.

The Bankers' Association opened its annual Convention at Saratoga on Wednesday with a large attendance from all sections of the country. The President, Mr. George S. Coe, made an opening address, in which he discussed the question of bi-metallism, the functions of a bank, and the best basis of a bank currency. A valuable paper was read by Professor Atwater, of Princeton College, on the means of securing a safe, elastic currency when Government bonds are no longer obtainable. Mr. W. H. Perkins, cashier of a bank in Jackson, Miss., read a paper, on Thursday, on the industrial growth of that State. The Convention adjourned on Thursday, after reëlecting Mr. George S. Coe President.

The American Bar Association, at its meeting on August 11, adopted the majority report of the Select Committee on a bill for relief of the Supreme Court of the United States, which approved the general scheme of the Davis bill, passed by the Senate on May 12, establishing an Intermediate Court of Appeal. It was erroneously asserted in the Summary of last week that Mr. Evarts approved of the plan adopted. On the contrary, Mr. Evarts favored the minority report, for a division of the Supreme Court into three Committees.

Arguments in the Star-route trial, at Washington, proceeded slowly according to the programme announced last week. Mr. Carpenter spoke for the defence on Wednesday, concluding his argument, and Mr. Chandler, counsel for Brady, followed. Colonel Bliss began his argument for the prosecution on Thursday afternoon, and finished on Friday. Mr. Williams and Colonel Totten spoke for the defence on Monday, the latter gentleman being succeeded by Mr. McSweeny on Tuesday.

Several more letters from ex-Senator Dorsey to the late President Garfield have been published. They are of a similar impertinent character with the first one, and are full of advice to him to give ample acknowledgment to the Stalwarts in all his nominations.

It is estimated that the Government receipts for the present fiscal year will amount to $450,000,000.

The State Department, at Washington, is informed of the release of Messrs. McSweeny and Slattery, two of the alleged American "suspects" who have been for some time imprisoned in Ireland.

Secretary Lincoln, of the War Department, on Thursday appointed 200 new clerks for the pension service.

The White House, at Washington, is being thoroughly renovated. The sewerage and ventilation are undergoing improvement.

Secretary Chandler, of the Navy, is making a tour of inspection of the Navy-yards, in the United States steamer *Tallapoosa*. He visited Wilmington, Del., on Wednesday, and inspected the unfinished monitor, *Amphitrite*.

Several Government expeditions, to observe the transit of Venus, in December, left this country for the Southern Hemisphere during the week.

Crop reports from the West continue to be favorable in the main. Oats are turning out well, but the crop will not meet the large estimates of a fortnight ago. The corn has been somewhat injured by cool weather. In New York State an increased yield is promised in all crops, with the exception of corn.

The Wampanoag Mills at Fall River, Mass., were compelled to shut down on Friday, on account of the strike of the spinners. The strike is extending among the driver-boys of the Pennsylvania coal mines.

The strike at the Cohoes, N. Y., mills has virtually ended in favor of the mill-owners.

Serious trouble was apprehended at the Pine Ridge Agency of the Sioux Indians last week. Troops were ordered to the seat of the difficulty. The trouble arose from dissatisfaction of Red Cloud with Agent McGillicuddy. The sentiment of the greater part of the tribe was against him, and he was forced to submit on Monday. He is now on parole, and the chiefs and police of the tribe are responsible for his conduct.

From Choctaw County, Alabama, it is reported that a bundle of papers recently found disclosed a plot on the part of negroes to kill all the white people in the county on a certain day, when a majority would be congregated at a camp-meeting. A meeting of the citizens of the county was held on Saturday last, at which 700 were present, 150 of them being negroes. After hearing the papers read it was decided by an almost unanimous vote that one of the negro leaders, Jack Turner, was a dangerous character, and that the public demanded his immediate death. He was accordingly hanged that afternoon. Six other negroes are in jail awaiting further developments.

Mr. Herbert Spencer arrived in this city, from England, on Monday afternoon. He is the guest of Prof. E. L. Youmans. His visit to this country is solely for his health. He will visit Chicago, St. Louis, Boston, and parts of Canada.

Mr. Frederic de Peyster, LL.D., one of the oldest and best-known citizens of New York, died at Tivoli, Dutchess Co., on Thursday night. He was eighty-six years of age. He was one of the oldest members of the Historical Society, and was the author of a number of essays on historical and antiquarian subjects. By profession he was a lawyer.

Senator Benjamin Harvey Hill, of Georgia, died, at his home in Atlanta, on Wednesday morning, surrounded by the members of his family. His illness began more than a year ago, but was not considered serious at first. He submitted to several operations upon his tongue, in Philadelphia, last fall, and a cure was predicted. But the cancer could not be conquered and finally resulted in his death. He was fifty-nine years of age. As a lawyer he was very successful; as an orator he was fervent and effective; as a Senator he was pugnacious, often inconsistent, but always sincere. At his home he was admired and respected for his manliness. His term in the Senate would have expired next March. During the war he was a member of the Confederate Senate. He was buried on Saturday with great ceremonies.

FOREIGN.

After the arrival of Sir Garnet Wolseley, the British commander, at Alexandria, on August 15, military affairs in Egypt became more interesting. On Wednesday, General Wolseley, with the authority of the Khedive, issued a proclamation to the people of Egypt representing that the sole object of the British was to restore the authority of the Khedive, and that all peaceful inhabitants would be kindly treated. He then held a conference with Admiral Seymour and all the generals, in order to consult in regard to future action. An incident of the day was an encounter between a British mounted patrol and a party of 500 Bedouins, near Ramleh. Five of the latter were killed.

On Thursday it was reported that General Wolseley had decided upon an early attack on the Abukir forts. Various reports were published as to his plans for the attack, but nothing definite was known. On Friday a number of the troops began to embark on the fleet in the harbor of Alexandria, and by evening the whole expedition was on board ready to start. At 1:15 P. M. on Saturday the fleet steamed out of the harbor to the eastward. In a few hours fighting was begun by the troops, along the Mahmudieh Canal, under the command of General Wood. He pushed a sharp reconnoissance of seven companies within 700 yards of the earthworks of Arabi, near Ramleh. A close examination of the works reveals that they are excellent, and that there are deep cuttings in advance of the entrenchments. It was supposed that, simultaneously with the fighting on land, the fleet would bombard the Abukir forts. The vessels arrived there on Saturday afternoon, but at half-past ten at night quietly steamed to the eastward. On Sunday morning they unexpectedly arrived at Port Saïd, about three o'clock, and occupied it with 600 men. The Government of the Khedive was reinstated, and the Canal closed to merchant vessels. It then became evident that General Wolseley had made a very important movement, which the rumored bombardment of Abukir had effectually covered. Not even the brigade commanders were aware of the plan until they opened their sealed orders on Sunday morning. The occupation of the Canal occasioned a warm protest from M. de Lesseps. The French Government, on Monday, sent him an official communication inviting him to employ prudence and circumspection in his language. On Monday the whole fleet entered the Canal and steamed away to Ismaïlia. The traffic on the Canal will only be temporarily suspended. On Monday evening there was a slight skirmish at Ismaïlia.

All the shops at Port Saïd were opened on Monday afternoon, and the Arabs began to fraternize with the Europeans. The outposts at Ramleh made a demonstration in the afternoon, and some artillery shots were exchanged. The English met with no loss. On Tuesday Arabi began to erect fresh earthworks at Ramleh, and to strengthen his position. It is reported that the Arab tribe holding the territory eastward of Bengazi, in Tripoli, is preparing to assist Arabi. A powerful chief, who is at the head of the national movement in Tripoli, is also reported to favor him.

The majority of the French newspapers comment unfavorably on the action of the British in occupying Suez.

Little has been accomplished by the Conference at Constantinople during the week. The draft of the military convention proposed by the Porte to England was as follows: "The Turkish Army undertakes the pacification of Egypt without foreign assistance, the British to remain in their present positions and not to participate in the operations. The Turks shall be allowed to use Alexandria as a base of operations, and the Turks and British both to withdraw after the pacification of the country." Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador, rejected this and proposed in its stead that the Turks should not undertake operations without the previous consent of the British commander; that British officers should be attached to the Turkish headquarters; and that evacuation should be the subject of a special convention. Lord Dufferin was instructed, on Thursday, not to press the Porte for a reply concerning the military convention. A special Cabinet council was held in Constantinople on Saturday, and the Porte agreed to modify the Turkish draft of the convention by the following additions: that an English general shall be attached to the Turkish camp to facilitate communications between the Turks and the British; that the manœuvres of the troops shall be mutually carried out so as not to interfere with each other; that a date shall be fixed for the evacuation of Egypt by the English.

Lord Dufferin on Sunday assured Saïd Pasha that he was unable to accept the Turkish proposals, even in their new form. On Monday, Saïd promised Lord Dufferin that he would urge the Sultan to accept the British proposals.

Sympathy is growing in Constantinople with Arabi Pasha, and the Sultan is understood to be more averse than ever to the issuance of the proclamation against him.

The American Admiral Nicholson writes to the War Department denying that he warned the Egyptians, before the bombardment of Alexandria, that if they fired on any of his vessels, he would return the fire; he also denies that after the engagement he steamed around the English vessels and cheered them on their work.

Mr. Long, the American Consul, was attacked on Friday, inside the Gabarri Gate at Alexandria, by about forty natives. Some soldiers arrived and dispersed the crowd, and the ringleaders were arrested. The only cause for the attack known is that Mr. Long refused to be stopped when he was driving, and, urging on his horse, injured some of the party.

The report that the Ulemas of Egypt have deposed the Sultan is untrue. On the contrary, they sent congratulatory telegrams to him from all parts of Egypt, on the Feast of Bairam.

A deserter from Arabi's camp arrived at Alexandria on Thursday, and gave a graphic description of the misery prevailing there. The wounded are uncared for, and even shot to end their misery. Many Egyptians have been compelled against their will to fight.

The Khedive has summoned Riaz Pasha from France to join with Sherif Pasha in forming a combination Ministry under the Presidency of the Khedive. Omar Pasha Lufti will probably retain the post of Minister of War.

Great excitement was caused in Dublin on Wednesday, the day following the opening of the Exhibition, by the sentence of Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, member of Parliament and proprietor of the *Freeman's Journal*, to three months' imprisonment, and to pay a fine of $2,500, for contempt of court in publishing a letter of Mr. O'Brien, accusing the jury which recently convicted Francis Hynes of the murder of John Doloughty, of intoxication on the night previous to rendering the verdict, and in commenting thereon. Mr. Gray was then conveyed to Richmond prison. He was Lord Mayor of Dublin in 1880. At the presentation of the freedom of Dublin to Messrs. Parnell and Dillon, on Wednesday, great excitement was shown over the arrest. Mr. Parnell made a speech, advising calmness, and a proclamation was issued, signed by the Lord Mayor and Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, and Davitt, urging the necessity of temperance in the emergency.

In the House of Commons on Thursday, a letter was read by the Speaker, announcing the committal of Mr. Gray. Mr. Gladstone asserted that precedents in similar cases show that the appointment of a committee is the proper course. At the present period of the session, however, it was too late to secure the appointment of a representative committee. He did not, moreover, know any way in which the committee could release Mr. Gray if they wished to do so. He therefore made a purely formal motion that the letter of Judge Lawson be placed on the table. A passing reference of Mr. Gladstone to an address to the Crown for the removal of Judge Lawson as one of the possible alternative courses was received with loud cheers from the Irish members. An animated debate ensued, in which the fact was brought out that Judge Lawson, who sentenced Mr. Gray, had prevented him from making a defence, and refused an adjournment of the case. The debate was not resumed in the evening, and the matter was dropped.

Mr. Gray's newspaper, the Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, on Friday said: "Mr. Gray's sentence is absolutely unparalleled. He only received notice of the nature of the proceedings against him on Tuesday night, and was without any time to prepare his defence, which would probably have consisted of affidavits sustaining the truth of his published assertions." It is generally anticipated that Mr. Gray will soon be released by Earl Spencer, and his fine remitted.

On Thursday evening Mr. Gladstone moved, in the House of Commons, an adjournment from Friday until October 24. It was carried wthout a discussion. Accordingly, on Friday, both Houses adjourned without any formality.

A man named Joyce, and his family, consisting of his wife, mother, and daughter, were fired at and killed by a party of men in County Galway, Ireland, on Thursday evening. It is believed in that locality that the Joyces gave information in regard to the murder of the bailiffs of Lord Ardiloun.

Alarming rumors were telegraphed from Paris and St. Petersburg on Friday that Russia was concentrating an army of 78,000 men in the Caucasus, and that she was about to occupy the whole of Asia Minor to the Bosphorus. An official denial of the reported concentration of the troops was promptly issued at St. Petersburg.

There was a concentration of Greek and Turkish troops on the frontier of Thessaly recently, near the border as settled by the Commission. Hostilities seemed imminent, but satisfactory explanations ensued, and the Turks withdrew.

General Ducrot, a French soldier who took a prominent part in the Franco-Prussian war, died in Paris on Thursday, at the age of sixty-five. He was a grand officer of the Legion of Honor, and the author of several works on military subjects, among them a history of the defence of Paris in 1870-71.

The steamer *Hope*, commanded by Sir Allen Young, C. B., which left England in June last in search of the steamer *Eira*, has arrived at Peterhead, Scotland, with the entire crew of that vessel. The *Hope* picked them up in Matotchkin Straits, Nova Zembla, on the 3d of August, they having lost their ship off Franz-Josef Land and journeyed in boats to the straits through the ice. The *Eira* sailed from England in June, 1881, for Barentz Sea, the expedition being a private exploring enterprise of her owner, Mr. Leigh Smith.

Engineer Melville, and the seamen, Nindermann and Noros, *Jeannette* survivors, were given a grand reception at Moscow on their arrival there on Wednesday.

Admiral Feodor Lütke, the celebrated Russian navigator, died on Monday, at the age of eighty-five. He accompanied Captain Golovnin in his voyage round the world in 1817-19. He was the founder of the Russian Geographical Society.

The intention of the British Government to restore Cetewayo to his kingdom causes consternation at Durban, South Africa.

The troubles in Corea have culminated in an insurrection, and the King and Queen have been assassinated. The Japanese legation was attacked by the natives belonging to the anti-foreign party.

DORSEY'S CAREER.

THE *Herald* published on Tuesday some letters of Dorsey's to an Arkansas postmaster, written in 1877, but relating to a transaction which was prevented from furnishing materials for prosecution by the statute of limitations. In these he invites the postmaster, one Clendenning, to fill up a batch of surety bonds to be signed by anybody, and to certify to "the pecuniary ability and responsibility" of this anybody, and then send them on to Washington to be used by Dorsey in getting his fraudulent contracts. The correspondence is a perfect specimen of the swindler's art. The first letter is very affectionate, and only introduces the subject of the bonds, which he desired "made for a friend," after some expressions of friendly interest and hints how to keep his office so that "there would be no trouble," but concludes with a solemn warning "under no possible circumstances to let any one know from whom they (the bonds) came." Clendenning, however, proved to be an honest man, and pointed out to the Senator that he was inviting him to commit a crime. This drew from Dorsey what is probably as good a detected criminal's letter as ever was written. He knew nothing about these bonds whatever. The request he had made was simply to oblige a friend, and, having failed, he cared no more about the matter. But he was surprised that the tone of Clendenning's letter should have been a "little harsh." "It sounds," says he, "as if I had asked you to do an unlawful act, which you proposed to decline with implied indignation" He was shocked at this imputation, and he showed the harsh letter to another postmaster, who said there was nothing in Clendenning's scruples, and that he certified bonds in this way by the hundred. So Mr. Dorsey closed with a gentle reproach to Clendenning for doubting his integrity, and told him to send the bonds to some one else, or burn them up, it being "a matter of total indifference" to him (Dorsey) what became of them.

Curiously enough, another letter of his of exactly the same date as the letter to Clendenning, and addressed to another postmaster, whose confirmation was made while the letter was on its way, has also been unearthed, making precisely the same request, almost in the same terms, also for "an intimate friend," but as "a special favor to him," and also "under no circumstances" to be made known to anybody. Whether he succeeded better in this case than in the other does not appear; but the correspondence in both shows clearly that the man was really an habitual criminal, and was pursuing fraud on the Government through politics as a profession, and with all the dodges, in the way of tones, and gestures, and cant, of the regular pickpocket.

What is most interesting in his case is not, however, his rascality, for nothing is commoner than this. His little games as a criminal could be carried on just as successfully and neatly by scores of confidence men in all the great cities of the Union. What makes his case a remarkable one is the fact that he was able to bring high official position to the support of his real occupation. Great interest was excited some years ago by the extraordinary cleverness of some American swindlers in England, who, simply in order to defraud a London bank, actually formed a partnership in a provincial town, and took the trouble to carry on a legitimate business for two years. This was a very remarkable example of far-reaching forethought and persistence on the part of members of the criminal class, but it really falls short of Dorsey's in brilliancy and tenacity, for he seems to have climbed into the United States Senate, and to have successfully assumed and played the rôle of a statesman and party leader, for the simple purpose of stealing the public money; and by stealing we do not mean corruption in the ordinary sense of the term, but the plain fraud of the police courts, committed through perjury and forgery. We cannot recall anything like this in modern times. Men of high political position have before now fallen victims to pecuniary temptation, but they had attained their high political position through their political talents and attainments before they fell. They rose, in short, because they were worthy to rise, and were overcome by a novel strain on their integrity. But Dorsey seems to have risen and become one of the great men of the state for the purpose of swindling; which is very much as if a man were to pursue a laborious career at the bar in order to reach the bench and thus have decisions to sell.

His case is certainly, therefore, a very interesting one, and one which will repay the study of other people besides political reformers. To these it is most interesting, as showing the way in which the spoils system keeps Senators constantly on the verge of transactions which, even if they do not take the form of ordinary fraud, will not bear examination. The system is one, in short, which some men may carry on and remain pure, but to which no wise man will expose himself if he can help it, and of which any corrupt man may readily make use for the worst purposes.

STATE OWNERSHIP OF RAILWAYS IN ITALY.

THE Italian Government, having purchased all the railways in Italy, finds an elephant on its hands. In order to get at all the facts bearing on the case, a Railroad Commission was constituted in 1878 to ascertain, if possible, how far the present railroad system served the interests of the state, and whether any other system was better. After nearly three years' work, during which sessions were held in almost all the principal Italian cities, the Commission made its report in seven large folio volumes. The last volume contains a summary of the arguments and conclusions of the Commission and is especially worthy of notice. We depend for our points upon a review of the work in a German economic periodical.

At the close of the year 1879 there were in operation in Italy 8,348 kilometres of railroad, of which the state owned 5,384 kilometres, was part owner of 444 kilometres more, and operated 564 kilometres belonging to private parties. By the close of 1880 the state had practically come into possession of all the railways on the peninsula of any importance, without, however, being altogether satisfied with the result. As far back as 1874, the proposition was made by the Government to lease the railways then owned to private parties, but it was rejected by Parliament; and, on a renewal of it in 1877, when it was again rejected, the Railroad Commission was constituted to investigate the question. The report first discusses the railroad as an industrial enterprise. The operation of railways cannot be regarded as one of the functions of the state. He who considers it as such has a false conception of the state, is, if logical, a Socialist, and would end by favoring the absolutism of the state. The operation of a railway is a series of processes partly industrial and partly commercial. It is in every respect a mere branch of business. It is objected that this business is a monopoly. But it is tempered by the competition of other transportation agencies. And, even where this is not the case, since it is the function of the state to protect the interests of the public against the abuse of the railroads, they are naturally better protected when the state is not at once interested party and judge.

Some have expected that freight tariffs would be lower on public railways, but facts disappoint the expectation. The state has, on the contrary, in some countries actually increased freight rates by the introduction of a tax on transportation. In Italy, during the five years following the establishment of the tax, the consequent increase in rates amounted to 73,000,000 lire. In several instances where the management of the roads proposed to lower the rates the Government refused to allow it, lest the burden of paying the interest on the bonds should prove too heavy; and in many states the financial condition would justify such a fear. The state might also treat the freight tariff as a tax and increase it *ad libitum*. For 1876 the expenses of operating amounted to the following per cent. of the gross income in the countries named:

	Public roads.	Private roads.
Germany	59	53
Austria-Hungary	76	50
Belgium	63	59
Denmark	71	55
Norway	74	63
Sweden	63	57

On the average, the running expenses of state roads amounted to 67 per cent., and of private roads to 56 per cent., of the gross income. On the basis of these facts the French Railroad Commission declared in 1878 that the comparative study of these two systems of management, and the tables exhibiting its results, proved that everywhere, in Italy, Germany, Austria, Belgium, state management had been more costly.

It has been objected, again, that private railroads, in the pursuit of their own selfish ends, will be likely to sacrifice the permanent interests of the community for the sake of some temporary advantage to themselves. But it must be remembered that the interests of the railroads and those of the community are in the long run identical. Railroads can be permanently prosperous only so long as the community is prosperous. Moreover, the railroads, being generally chartered for a long or indefinite period, can afford to make temporary sacrifices for the sake of future advantages, and are therefore not likely to come in

conflict with the permanent interest of the community, even if they are left without state control. On the other hand must be considered the influences which work against economy under state management, such as the constantly increasing demands of the general public for better accommodations, greater speed, and more frequent trains. Parliamentary governments are rarely able to withstand such pressure. Already trains are run on the Italian railways with little or no business. The public demands much and wishes to pay but little.

The report considers with great detail the political and economical dangers connected with a state system of railways. The concentration of power in the hands of the Government, and the abuse of that power in the spheres of production, exchange, and consumption, lead to innumerable inconveniences, darken and confuse the simple relation between state and subject, make parliamentary control difficult, and render even an approximately correct budget impossible. The Italian railroads employ more than 54,000 officers, who, with the other public officers, represent an army of 120,000 men. These are scattered throughout the land, appear at elections as political factors, and depend upon the Government, from which alone they have to expect favors. In the year 1879 the Alta Italia gave notice of 120 places to be filled by competition. 2,731 candidates appeared. Of these 2,731, 2,611 had to be rejected. Is it not probable that these discontented persons appeared at election time as dangerous elements? Nor must we forget that nowadays every one who aspires to even the most unimportant position takes care to provide himself with recommendations from influential politicians, and that the Government is compelled in its choice of candidates to strengthen its own party. As a consequence, neither rewards nor punishments are fairly distributed. If, therefore, a state bureaucracy is, under the best conditions, poorly adapted to undertake business enterprises, a set of officers who are neither rewarded nor punished as they deserve will certainly perform their services indifferently. When the Alta Italia passed into the hands of the state, there was a marked deterioration in the discipline and industry of a formerly very excellent body of employees.

The state, again, acquires too large powers of interference in the whole economic life of the nation. It becomes the greatest undertaker, and thus it will determine prices and usages. Other undertakers must follow suit; but there is a great difference between them and the state. The state simply shifts its losses upon the taxpayers; but what are the private undertakers to do, who in the long run must bear both their own losses and those of the state (in the form of higher taxes)? Besides, many difficulties will arise from the laborers themselves. In the workshops alone of three great Italian railroads there are over 9,000 laborers employed. The state will, of course, as railroad operator, own coal and iron mines, and thus have control of an army of workmen. If they demand higher wages, the state will often be compelled to yield. As a strike against the state assumes the character of a riot, in the absence of an impartial judge the state (which is an interested party) must proceed against the laborers with its own police or, perhaps, military. This the Government would be slow to do, at the expense of its own popularity. And what would the taxpayers have to say to all this? It can easily be seen how, under such circumstances, the relations between state and subject would become strained.

Further, a great economical interest is entrusted to an administration whose head changes with every change in the parliamentary majority. Parliamentary control is no control at all. Even now the final balances in the public accounts remain unsettled for years, to be disposed of in two or three hours. Besides, as a matter of fact, the railroad bureaus undertake enterprises and make contracts without any authority from Parliament. And how is it possible to hamper and cripple the management, with its ever-varying necessities, by tying it fast to a budget? But if this is impossible, of what value is parliamentary control when a budget of two milliards (as, for instance, in France) is withdrawn from its supervision? From all these considerations the Commission concludes that the system of state railways endangers political freedom; the power of the Ministry is enormously increased; personal interests become hopelessly involved with those of the public welfare, of politics and administration; they corrupt each other, and thus the form of liberty may be preserved while its substance has been lost. The Commission recommends, therefore, that the state should lease its railways to private companies, the latter to pay all running expenses and outlays for repairs, and also the interest on capital invested by the state. The companies might either pay a certain fixed rent or a given per cent. of their gross income.

We have no space for a discussion of the views above presented. Many of them are just, some exaggerated, and one or two probably false. The Commission evidently has large faith in the results of free competition, and, as it seems to us, too great a fear of state interference. The Italian civil service we might infer to be in much the same condition as our own, from the distrust of the efficiency and honesty of the Government system which the Commission evidently has, and which is quite as evidently based on Italian experience. The report is worthy our careful study.

SOCIETY AND ADVERTISING.

The announcement that a young London club man, well known in Society, is going on the stage, following close upon the heels of Mrs. Langtry's engagement, has caused some excitement in London, and the usual discussion as to whether he is likely to "succeed" in his new venture. Of course, speculations of this sort are not worth much except among those who have actually had some means of judging, but it should be observed that success in such a case has two entirely different meanings. A "society" man or woman who takes to acting may make a hit from having real dramatic talent; on the other hand, what the French call a success of curiosity is almost certain, from the mere fact that Society is interested in the event. The success will be in proportion to the amount of social notoriety the person who makes the attempt enjoys; but almost any one is sure of a certain share of it. It is evident, from the discussions in the London papers, that London Society enjoys having Mrs. Langtry become an actress, and for a variety of reasons. It has one more thing to talk about, and its own importance is increased by one of its leading members doing something eccentric and original. If, after the disturbance which took place some time ago in the Union Club in this city, Mr. Loubat or Mr. Turnbull had suddenly gone on the stage, he would undoubtedly have had an immediate and phenomenal success, though whether either of them has any dramatic ability, it is of course impossible for any one to tell.

The reformers who are always urging a *rapprochement* between Society and the stage, and the impossibility of actors leading good and pure lives unless their art is recognized as entitling them to an assured position in Society, ought to be pleased with such attempts as Mrs. Langtry's and Mr. Farquhar's. If they were to become common—and there is every probability that a good many of them will be made—it would be impossible for Society to regard its life as something apart from that of actors and actresses. Society can hardly give better proof of the feebleness of the old social prejudice against the stage than by its members adopting it as a profession.

It may be said that the notoriety attendant upon débuts of this kind is very offensive, and that Society, being based on the principle of seclusion and reserve, must in the long run discountenance them and cast off such of its members as make them. But this view is based on the antique theory of Society as a close corporation, governed by strict rules, transmitted mainly by inheritance—a body which only exists by rigidly excluding those who do not conform to its code. But Society as it now exists is not like this at all. For exclusiveness and reserve it has substituted notoriety and advertising. It has in England, from which country we derive at present our social ideas, a regularly organized machinery for the purpose. In fact, it is hardly too much to say that Society is getting to be something like a circus, in which the Society newspapers play the part of advertising wagons and brass bands. It announces and describes its parties, balls, dinners, games, rides, drives, with the same publicity that Barnum gives his performances. Its leading performers acquire the same world-wide notoriety that attaches to the "queens of the air" who are able to take flying leaps through six hoops, and their photographs are to be bought at the same stores.

The notion that Society is managed by a very exclusive and fastidious body, which has a holy horror of publicity and sensationalism, is a survival from a period when it really was exclusive, and is wholly unsupported by the facts as they exist. It enjoys and promotes just the same sensationalism that we lament so much in the Church, but which is, after all, characteristic of the Church as it exists. It

rejoices in anything that will bring its performances to the notice of the world at large, and imagines that its interests are advanced by this.

This tendency must often suggest a wonder as to what is going to become of Society in the future. There always must be something of the sort in the world, for Society is nothing more than the organized pursuit of pleasure. But now that it has become recognized that a great part of the pleasure consists in being seen in the act of taking it, and that Society has become a show, and advertises its attractions, it has a great many opportunities which it never had before. The æsthetic tour of Oscar Wilde, under the management of a showman who also ran a burlesque of him, gives us a hint of what we have to look for in the social world. Mr. Wilde took up æstheticism much as Mrs. Langtry and Mr. Farquhar are taking up the stage. Mr. Wilde's whole capital as a reformer comes from Society, which first took him up from its liking for anything odd, and then caricatured him into notoriety. Society is capable of producing many more such attractions, and would really offer a fine field to Barnum, were it not that, from the nature of the case, it has to be its own showman.

THE PARLIAMENTARY CRISIS.

LONDON, August 10, 1882.

As the strong point of the British Constitution is its flexibility, its indefiniteness, its capability of being stretched and twisted to suit the exigencies of an unexpected case, so its weak point is the existence in it of a variety of powers which are expected to work in harmony with one another, but which may by their discord and collision bring about a deadlock. The House of Lords, as everybody knows, is in theory a coordinate power with the House of Commons. Its consent is equally necessary to every act of legislation (setting aside the different functions of the two bodies as regards money bills), and no means exists of overriding its resistance to a measure which the House of Commons may have passed by the most overwhelming majorities, except the extraordinary one of creating Peers sufficient to change the balance of parties in the Upper House. Practically, it has become of late years a received maxim that when the country has been appealed to by a general election, and has given its decision between the programmes placed before it by the two rival parties, the House of Lords ought to bow to that decision. But of course it is often inconvenient to have a general election, both because it is a very heavy fine upon members and because it disturbs the regular course of government at home and abroad. When, therefore, a Prime Minister cannot dissolve Parliament, and finds himself in conflict with the majority of the House of Lords, he is really without any constitutional remedy. He can only appeal to public opinion, and if the Peers deem that public opinion is against them, or are willing to defy it, they can checkmate him—checkmate him for the moment; for, of course, there is a fear of penalties which may result in future.

Such a deadlock between the two Houses has often been dreaded, and has several times seemed on the point of straining the Constitution beyond what its aged frame could bear. The most famous instance was before the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832, when it was with the greatest difficulty, and only by fears of a revolution, that the Lords were brought to yield. We had another a year ago, apropos of the Irish Land Act, when the Lords introduced amendments to which the Commons objected as destroying the value of the measure. For two days the crisis was very acute, and then it became known that the Peers would yield in substance, while receiving some formal concessions to soothe their feelings. We have now just had a similar crisis, very like the last in most of its features, and specially like in the behavior of Lord Salisbury and Mr. Gladstone respectively. The occasion was a smaller one, because the Irish Arrears Bill of this year is a far less considerable measure than was the Irish Land Bill of last year, but the situation was in some respects more complicated and more dangerous, for Mr. Gladstone's Government is not so strong now as it was then, so that there was a greater temptation to the Tory leaders to play for a dissolution of Parliament, while at the same time the state of foreign affairs, with a war just beginning in Egypt, and a possibility of diplomatic difficulties with Turkey and perhaps other European Powers, makes a dissolution a far more inconvenient and even dangerous course.

It is not worth while to trouble you with the minor points of difference between the two Houses as to this Arrears Bill. The principal were these two: Ought the application to the Land Court for the benefit of the Act to be open to either the landlord alone or the tenant alone, as the bill proposed, or ought it, as Lord Salisbury's amendment insisted, to be made only by landlord and tenant jointly, so that the landlord would have the power, if he chose, of preventing the tenant from applying? Ought the value of the "tenant-right," as it is called—that is, the proceeds of the sale of the tenant's interest when it may come to be sold—to stand charged with the payment of the arrears from the present payment whereof the Act relieves the tenant? The bill of the Government, while giving the Court a discretion as to whether they would or not take into account the value of the tenant-right in estimating the tenant's ability to pay, did not charge the arrears upon the tenant-right when a sale should take place. The House of Lords proposed that such a charge should exist. The bill went up to the House of Lords in the end of July. It was read a second time without a division, Lord Salisbury, as leader of the Opposition, announcing that he proposed to amend it in Committee; and when Committee came, these two amendments, with others of less magnitude, were passed not only by considerable majorities, but with a good deal of strong and bold language, Lord Salisbury denouncing the bill in vehement words, and some of his hotter followers declaring that this time there must be no surrender; that the bill was a disgraceful concession to Irish agitators; that the House of Commons was far too subservient to Mr. Gladstone; that the country would support the Peers in resisting his dictatorship, with much more to the same effect.

This attitude startled and alarmed the Lower House, who had by this time become very weary of the Arrears Bill, of all Irish affairs, and indeed of legislation altogether—no more unprofitable session having been seen for many years past. Even the most careless were anxious to get away from work and London altogether, and in no mood for a fresh struggle, while serious politicians felt that the time was a bad one for a crisis which might weaken or even paralyze the executive. The usual course would have been for the House of Commons to proceed forthwith to consider the Lords' amendments. Mr. Gladstone, however, adjourned them for some days, prudently desiring to take time to consider what course his Ministry should pursue, and also to allow the opinion of the country to be fully expressed and to tell upon the House of Lords. He doubtless also hoped that an interval of reflection would sober down the passion for combat, if not of Lord Salisbury himself, at least of a part of his supporters. An anxious week elapsed, everybody asking everybody else what the Lords would do, and the barometer, so to speak, falling and rising from day to day. The hotter Tories argued thus: Mr. Gladstone's Ministry has been discredited by the barrenness of the present session, by its Irish policy, by the outbreak of hostilities in Egypt. It has lost its hold on the country. If it ventures to dissolve Parliament, it may be defeated, and will at any rate come back with a greatly diminished majority. If when stopped by the House of Lords it does not dissolve Parliament, it may resign; and in that case we can come in, carry on the administration for some months, keep Ireland in order by stringently using the Prevention of Crime Act, have a successful campaign in Egypt, and then, on the strength of these achievements, dissolve and get a majority from the country. If, finally, Mr. Gladstone neither dissolves nor resigns, he will at any rate be damaged by the check the Lords will have given him; and a measure wrong in principle and not likely to do any permanent good to Ireland will have been averted. The country is far too much disgusted with legislative remedies for Irish ills to care what becomes of this bill, or to resent the conduct of the Peers in rejecting it.

These arguments were zealously urged by minor Tory speakers, and still more by Tory newspapers, our Conservative press generally going further and faster than its leaders do. On the other hand, the more cautious Conservative statesmen pointed out that if the resistance of the House of Lords provoked a dissolution, the blame of it and of all the injury to our foreign policy which it might involve would be thrown on the Lords; that the chief cry at the election would be a cry against the House of Lords; that this would in fact rehabilitate the Liberal Ministry and make its shortcomings forgotten. Even if Mr. Gladstone were to resign, the time was not a good one for the Tories to come in and succeed him. They could not count on a majority, and to be in office with the House of Commons against them, or even with a very small majority, would be an unfortunate position, dangerous to their future prospects. These reasonings had their effect: the Tory leaders in the House of Commons showed no alacrity for a contest; the feeling of the Tories throughout the country did not promise much zeal in case of a general election; at last the Tory Peers themselves who had supported Lord Salisbury began secretly to waver and doubt whether the ground was a good one on which to give battle to the Commons. When on the evening of Tuesday, the 8th of August, Mr. Gladstone brought the Lords amendments before the House of Commons, it was already beginning to be understood that the crisis was virtually over. Nobody could say that anything had happened; nobody could give any good reason for his belief; yet everybody felt that the thunder-cloud was moving away. The Prime Minister's speech was an instance of that wonderful skill, tact, and delicacy which he can put forth on great occasions; it was eminently respectful and conciliatory toward the House of Lords, and spared all their susceptibilities, while yet intimating a firm resolve to stand by all the essential points of the bill. Some of their minor amendments were to be accepted; others were to be recast; they were to be dealt with neither hostilely nor, as he expressed it, "in a huxtering spirit." This moderate and dignified attitude partly contributed to the largeness of the majority—one hundred and thirty-six—by which his dissent from

Lord Salisbury's principal amendment was carried. When the numbers were announced it was felt that the struggle was ended, not so much on account of the mere difference in numbers, as because it was plain that the Tory party had not put forth its full strength. Some of its most judicious and respected members refused to vote, and it was certain that the feelings which moved them would move the Peers also.

So it has now turned out. This evening, after a previous private meeting with his supporters in the House of Lords, Lord Salisbury has declared that though he retains all his objections to certain parts of the Bill, and would reject them if he could, the bulk of his party does not agree with him, so that he has no choice but to give way, while disclaiming all responsibility for "an act of robbery." We are thus in smooth water again. The remaining business of the session will be chiefly formal. The country will breathe again after the mingled excitements and vexations of the last six months. Nothing will remain from this latest constitutional crisis except a strengthened distrust of Lord Salisbury's leadership by the more moderate Tories, and a strengthened desire to agitate against the existence of the House of Lords among the less moderate Whigs. Y.

"PARSIFAL" AT BAYREUTH.

A RETROSPECT.

BAYREUTH, August 1, 1882.

FRANZ LISZT wrote to a friend in 1875, after listening to about twenty rehearsals of the "Ring of the Nibelung" at Bayreuth: "It overtops and commands our whole art-epoch as Mont Blanc does the other mountains." In "Parsifal" a new summit has been raised by the volcanic force of genius, but it belongs to another chain. It is the culminating point of religious music, which has only once before, in Bach's Passion Music, reached to a similar height. An agnostic confessed to me, after listening to "Parsifal," that in this dramatic apotheosis of religious music he had for the first time realized what was meant by religious emotion. Those unfamiliar with the details of Wagner's life are apt to imagine that old age, which naturally turns men's thoughts toward religious affairs, explains the choice of such a subject for his last drama. But Wagner's interest in religious symbolism is of much older standing, as his oft-expressed admiration for Palestrina and Bach alone would have sufficed to show. In 1843 he composed for a music festival a Biblical scene, "Das Liebesmahl der Apostel," and six years later he conceived the plan of writing a work on the subject of Jesus of Nazareth, which, however, he subsequently laid aside as impracticable. The former work has probably, and the latter beyond doubt, furnished some of the poetic motives for "Parsifal." By transferring his conceptions to the mystic regions of mythology, they became available for theatrical purposes, and the result was "Parsifal," which its author appropriately called neither a music drama nor simply a festival drama, but a festival-consecration drama—why, only those can appreciate who have heard it; for it is a matter of feeling, not of intellect.

A German critic has already expressed his fears that the religious feelings of some people will be offended by some of the scenes and proceedings in "Parsifal." I cannot believe this, unless religion be synonymous with the crudest bigotry and ignorance. Nevertheless, it is doubtful if Herr Neumann could obtain permission to produce this work on the London stage next spring, or as long as the present laws in regard to the exclusion of religious subjects from the theatrical stage prevail in England. On the concert or oratorio stage, of course, Biblical personages may appear in dress coat and kid gloves and sing those love songs which Handel transferred from his worldly operas to his oratorios; but they may not, on the dramatic stage, walk and act in appropriate costumes singing appropriate music. The distinction is one of those profound subtleties which my feeble mind is utterly unable to comprehend, all the more as the modern drama is generally derived from mediæval religious miracle plays. The stage, it is true, is often, or let us even admit commonly, used for frivolous purposes; but is that any reason why, therefore, any class of pure and noble subjects, which cannot but refine the audience, should be excluded from it altogether? The logic is absurd.

As given at Bayreuth the performances of "Parsifal" extend over six hours—from 4 to 10—only four of which, however, are devoted to the drama, the remaining time being devoted to recreation in the open air or refreshments in a restaurant, whence the hearers are summoned to their seats again by the Parsifal or Grail motive blown by trombones and a trumpet on the balcony. These long intermissions suggest the performances in the days of Bach, when part of a long religious work was given in the morning and part in the afternoon. Over-fatigue is thus avoided, and the third act, which is the grandest of all, is much more appreciated than would be possible in any other place where such an arrangement would not be feasible. That the four hours of music are not exclusively of a religious character is self-evident, as Wagner is too great a dramatist to overlook the necessity of contrasts. In the second act we have the weird, gloomy scenery and music of the wizard *Klingsor*, followed by the brilliant colors of the magic flower garden (suggesting the Venusberg in "Tannhäuser"), the captivating forms of the flower-decked girls, and the sensuous charm of their song. In the first we have reminiscences of "Lohengrin," the death of the swan, followed by the reproaches of *Gurnemanz*, which are expressed in poetic language of the greatest beauty, introducing a most touching episode. *Kundry's* mysterious character, with its various psychic transformations—now as the wandering, unhappy bearer of a great curse, now as the submissive servant of the Grail, and again as the lovely, alluring slave of *Klingsor*—gives scope for effective contrasts and bold situations. *Parsifal* unites with the character of a saviour that of a second *Siegfried*, who grows up in a forest, ignorant of the world and its ways and of any but the natural love of woman, until he meets *Kundry*, whom he relieves from her curse by resisting her blind, delusive temptations. The unhappy *Amfortas*, a modern Philoctetes, appeals to our pity, even as the wounded *Tristan* in the drama of that name. *Gurnemanz* is an admirably-drawn character, to whom some of the most melodious and expressive music is allotted, notably the sublime benediction motive after the anointment of *Parsifal*—one of those scenes which make the poor critic realize most vividly the immense superiority of musical expression to the written words which fain would give an idea of its beauty.

It has been repeatedly asserted that Wagner has in "Die Meistersinger," and again in "Parsifal," "gone back on himself" to a certain extent by abandoning some of his theoretical notions and reverting to his second, semi-operatic period. He has done no such thing. "Parsifal" is in its form as perfect an embodiment of his theories as is "Tristan," with which it has much in common, especially in harmonic structure and in the *Amfortas* music. Nowhere has the skeleton of the music-drama, the system of leading motives, reached such absolute formal perfection as in "Parsifal." These leading motives characterize the general emotional aspect of each person in the drama as vividly as the poem itself. They are usually assigned to the orchestra, but are not played each time a person speaks or acts. *Parsifal* may sing for ten minutes and his own motive not be heard once, unless reference is made to his own peculiar mission in the dramatic plot. These motives have a three-fold import. They are always admirably adapted to the prevailing "tone" of each character, be it frivolous, sentimental, heroic, gloomy, tender, or ferocious; and no one succeeds better than Wagner in embodying each person's "tone" in tones. Then they gain a great psychological value in the drama by calling up a presentiment of a coming event, as when *Kundry* in the first act falls into her sleep of exhaustion, while *Klingsor's* magic motive is heard; and in the second act we behold *Klingsor* invoking her to the same music; whereby the two events are at once connected in the hearer's mind. Thirdly, a leading motive can serve as a reminiscence, and thus associate the past with the present in one moment, while it would require many minutes to explain the same situation in words or by a scenic change. In these three elements lies the epoch-making value of the leading motives. Wagner's motives are of great rhythmic, melodic, or harmonic beauty, and almost always of plastic simplicity, so that they can be easily retained in the memory. Often, however, they possess no particular charm in their primitive skeleton form, and no more suggest the gorgeously colored instrumental tapestry the composer weaves with them than Bach's fugal themes suggest the wonderful structures he builds on them.

The vocal parts of the actors are in "Parsifal" in the same accordance with the style of "Tristan" and the "Nibelungen." We have here neither old-fashioned melody or tune nor recitative, but something intermediate between the two, which allows the words to be clearly spoken while retaining a melodious flow. The proper word for it is melodious declamation. But there is also a good deal of choral music in "Parsifal"; and in this it might seem as if there were a case of "reversion" to the "Lohengrin" period. Wrong again. Wagner does not assert that choral music should be banished altogether from the stage, but only when its introduction has no other aim than that of producing "effect," by making music the end and the drama the means, instead of vice versa. The stage is a mirror of life, and in its proper place a chorus can be as dramatic as anything else. Even the florid melodies we hear in Italian operas might under some conditions be called dramatic; if, for instance, the scene were laid in the room of a singing-teacher giving a lesson in trills, runs, and *fioriture* in general to one of his pupils. In an otherwise appreciative notice of "Die Meistersinger," an English critic lately said that "in the final scene the three choruses of shoemakers, tailors, and bakers, most charming and genuinely comic as they are, can hardly be justified by the composer's theories." Yes, they can. If Wagner brings a Volksfest on the stage, nothing can be more dramatic than the introduction of such processions, songs and dances, for they are an exact reproduction of the scenes which have often been witnessed in that Nürnberg meadow, famous for its historical processions. So, in "Parsifal," the choruses of knights, youths, and boys are highly dramatic in effect, as they help the hearer to realize fully the ecclesiastic situation and to forget that he is a mere spectator before the stage. Even the "four-storied" arrangement of these choruses is justifiable; for when the Grail motive is taken up successively in a higher position first by the knights on the

stage, then by the youths midway up the cupola, then by the boys at the top, and finally by the violins in their highest position, down in the mystic abyss, the effect is quite ethereal and superterrestrial; it is an effect with a cause, and in accordance with the situation, and not an "effect without a cause," as in the operas of Meyerbeer and others.

In its dramatic structure "Parsifal" is equal to the best of its predecessors. It would be a mere truism to say to-day that no dramatic poet ever had a more admirable instinct for stage effect than Wagner, Shakspere not excepted. Even the long episodic narratives which contain the exposition are exceedingly interesting if every word is as distinctly pronounced as it is by some of the vocalists assembled here, notably by Scaria, who is the lion of the present festival, although Materna, Brandt, Hill, and Winkelmann are very close approaches to him. The poetry of "Parsifal" is, of course, devoid as a rule of rhetorical embellishments, figures of speech, and similes, for these are here supplied by the music, which is like the soul breathed into the dramatic body. There are some beautiful exceptions to this statement, which space alone forbids my quoting. A "reversion" might be imagined in the fact that rhyme is introduced, were it not that in this "Christian" drama this is quite in place, as Wagner himself has explained that rhymed verse is the characteristic form of Christian poetry. Alliteration, on the other hand, is not resorted to in this drama. The repetition of a number of soft or harsh consonances in one word intensifies the general tone of softness or harshness of the situation, and is therefore desirable in a drama like "Tristan," but not in a religious drama like "Parsifal," where the tone must be more quiet and subdued, even as the music itself, which is more solemn, majestic, and ethereal than in Wagner's worldly dramas. "Parsifal," I repeat, rightly bears the name of "stage-consecrating play," for by it the stage is consecrated for religious purposes.

I cannot close my Bayreuth correspondence without a parting reference to the theatre in which these performances are taking place. Of the successful *ensemble* I have already spoken, and it would not be worth while at this distance to compare the merits of the singers who alternate in their rôles. But to the theatre itself attention cannot be often enough called, for it is the only existing theatre in which a complete illusion is attained; and if at the present day an architect undertakes to build an opera-house on any old-fashioned system, he can only be accused of either great wilfulness or gross ignorance. I earnestly hope that if a new opera-house is to be built in New York, the Bayreuth model may be taken into consideration. The very entrance puts the spectator in an artistic mood. The whole theatre is one parquet, in the shape of an amphitheatre, each row rising above its predecessor, so that up to the royal boxes in the background one seat is about as good as another. There are no boxes at the sides, their places being taken by simple but handsome columns, between which are the twelve exits by means of which the whole house can be emptied in two minutes. Especially advantageous is the absence of a proscenium box connecting the stage with the auditorium. Its place is taken by an open space between the last columns and the stage, leading down into the mystic abyss in which the invisible orchestra is at work. The effect of this open space is that it makes the stage seem further removed, while the figures on it are as large as before, and, in consequence, by a familiar optical illusion, everything seems larger and more distinct, the difference between our ordinary stages and that of the Wagner theatre being similar to that between a photograph and a stereoscopic view. This optical illusion is rendered the more complete by the invisibleness of the musicians and the conductor to the audience, although the conductor is visible, of course, to the vocalists. The sounds rising from the mystic abyss are not localized by the hearer. They seem to come from the stage itself—to hover about the singers as its fragrance does about a rose; and the music thus gains that exquisite charm which alone belongs to invisible music, as all those know who have ever been waked up in the morning by a serenade. The sounds, too, are somewhat subdued, so that the singers are never "drowned," as so often happens in ordinary theatres. The only disadvantage of the present arrangement is that the brass, being actually placed under the stage, is a little too much subdued, for which reason the stirring fortissimo passages lose some of their accustomed splendor and glory. But this shortcoming can probably be remedied by a somewhat different acoustic arrangement, while retaining all the present advantages.

Three performances have now been given, and the house has been full each time, while the enthusiasm has steadily increased. I have already written that on the first night Wagner begged the audience not to applaud after the first and second act, so as not to spoil the "Stimmung." This request was respected by the audience on the second night, when the majority still belonged to the society of patrons. On the third night, however, the audience was of a more miscellaneous character, and, in spite of the efforts of the faithful, the applause broke out like a storm after the second act. *Que voulez-vous?* The people are accustomed to express their approval by clapping their hands, and it is not easy to cure them of this habit, although it certainly would be more artistic to wait till the end. The fact, however, that the hearers—and those not the full-blooded Wagnerites—would applaud in spite of Wagner, proves better than any adjectives of my own the beauty and impressiveness of "Parsifal." Many who came to hear only one performance left Bayreuth after securing tickets for a later performance, and there are some who have tickets for all the sixteen nights.

THE RESTORED CASTLE OF CHANTILLY.—II.

PARIS, August 4, 1882.

I HAVE attempted to describe the Château of Chantilly in its present state. I have left aside, however, the principal room in the new Château, which has received the name of the *Tribune*, as it somewhat recalls, by its dimensions, the famous Tribune at Florence. This room is circular, and placed in one of the three towers which flank the great polygon of the Castle. The gem of this choice collection is the famous "Vierge d'Orléans," by Raphael. This picture belonged once to the Regent, and adorned for a long time the Orléans gallery; it was sold at the time of the Revolution, and came into the possession of M. Delessert, the banker. At his death it was sold at public auction in Paris, and the Duc d'Aumale, who was at the time in exile in England, had it bought for the sum of 150,000 francs. Such treasures have really no price. The "Vierge d'Orléans" is a picture of modest dimensions; it has all the freshness, the youth, the grace of the *péruginesque* manner of Raphael, while it has already the perfection, the solidity, the grand style of the Raphael of the third manner. It is a sort of connecting-link between the end and the beginning—a résumé of all the qualities of this ever-admirable master. The child has on its little face the stern expression which was so intensified in the great Madonna which is now admired in Dresden. The Virgin is perhaps the prettiest of all the Madonnas painted by Raphael. The color is as fresh as on the first day—no hand has ever touched this delicate masterpiece; it can safely be said that it is now exactly as it was when it came from the hand of the greatest painter of all times.

This picture is placed on a little stand by itself; close by it are two portraits placed also apart. One of them is a picture which has been, so to speak, rediscovered. It was part of a collection of portraits, called the Collection Lenoir, which was formed at the end of the eighteenth century by a M. Lenoir, who was a great amateur, and sold by him in England to the Duke of Sutherland. These historical portraits for a long time adorned the rooms of Sutherland House; they did not attract much notice, as they were chiefly portraits of Frenchmen and Frenchwomen. Many were by Janet, called Clouet, and Clouet has only become the fashion again lately, since the revival of the French historical school. A few years ago the present Duke of Sutherland sold the Lenoir collection to the Duc d'Aumale, who valued it chiefly on account of its historical character. Among the rest, there was a portrait which much attracted the notice of those who first saw it in France. It was evidently painted by one of the earliest painters in oil; it recalls the manner of Van Eyck or of Antonello da Messina. The Duc d'Aumale had a very good copy made of the famous head of a condottiere by Antonello, which is in the *Salon Carré* of the Louvre. It is impossible not to be struck with a certain similarity between the picture by Antonello and the portrait I am now speaking of. On looking closely at this portrait, which is painted on wood, curious traces were found on the back, which was quite blackened by dirt and by age. It was washed carefully, and on it were found monograms and emblems, and a device: "Nul ne s'y frotte." There was no doubt now: the portrait represented a prince of the House of Burgundy who is called the "Grand Bâtard de Bourgogne." He wears the Golden Fleece, the curious black pointed cap over long hair. In my opinion, it was painted by a pupil of Van Eyck rather than by Antonello da Messina. Whatever be its origin, it is a most curious relic, and nothing can exceed the perfection of it, in a technical point of view. The young Prince has a hard, wicked, stubborn expression; he seems alive, and I doubt if ever life has been represented with a more extraordinary degree of realism.

The third picture placed apart is a portrait of the Cardinal de Bourbon, a great-uncle of Henri IV., not the Cardinal de Bourbon of the Ligue. This picture is much older than the preceding; it is also very interesting, both historically and technically. Among the pictures of the *Tribune*, I will mention at once a portrait of Molière, as it was also sent from England in the Collection Lenoir. This portrait had been quite forgotten, and the French amateurs were not aware of its existence. It was thought that the best likeness of Molière was his portrait by Mignard, which may be seen in the foyer of the Théâtre-Français. There is a very interesting life of Mignard, which was written after his death, in which it is related that this painter was extremely fond of Molière, and that he made his portrait three times. We have now the portrait of the French Theatre and the portrait in possession of the Duc d'Aumale (which is undoubtedly, in my eyes, by Mignard); what has become of the third? I have tried in vain to discover it: it has probably been lost or destroyed. The portrait of the French Theatre represents Molière in one of his costumes as an actor, rouged, with a false moustache, and with a wig. The portrait which be-

longs to the Duc d'Aumale represents Molière as he was—as a man ; and in this respect it is invaluable. You see there the true Molière, the unfortunate husband, the worn-out, sad, melancholy creator of so many immortal types. His mouth, with thick lips, has a curious curve, as if even smiling had become painful ; his eyes are heavy and red, with an indescribable sweetness and sadness. I know of nothing more pathetic than the face of this true Molière ; it makes you love the man, it fills you with pity. If Mignard had only painted this picture and the portrait of his daughter, which is in the gallery of Versailles, he would be a very great artist. There is no *mignardise* in it ; it is nature itself.

The *Tribune* of Chantilly has some pictures of the early Italian painters, which come chiefly from a collection formed by M. Reiset, formerly custodian of the Louvre (the catalogue of this collection was published by M. Reiset when he intended to sell it at public auction ; but the Duc d'Aumale bought the whole collection before the sale took place). One of the finest pictures in it is a portrait of the famous Simonetta by Pallajuolo. It has all the qualities of the precursors : it is bold, original, and has an intense individuality. I must cite also an allegorical figure of Spring, by Sandro Botticelli. Spring is represented by a tall young woman, with flowers in her arms and children clinging to the folds of her gown. The children are somewhat grotesque, as is often the case in Botticelli's pictures ; but the young woman is very charming. She has all the grace, the elegance, of the best figures of this extraordinary painter, who was at the same time a naturalist and an idealist.

I cannot cite here all the ancient pictures of this collection. There are some beautiful portraits of the sixteenth and of the eighteenth century. The modern school is represented by some very remarkable specimens. I will name first a portrait of Bonaparte, then First Consul, by Gérard. It is perhaps the best portrait of the greatest man of our times. The face has a classical beauty, and is full of genius ; at the same time, the brow and the clear eyes have a hardness which verges on cruelty. The First Consul wears the very simple green uniform of the Consular Guards.

The Duc d'Orléans, the eldest son of Louis Philippe, was a great patron of literature and of art. He was acquainted personally with Musset, with Decamps, and many others ; he ordered once two pictures of moderate dimensions from Ingres and from Delaroche. The price was to be 6,000 francs apiece, which was thought very generous in the year 1830. Ingres made for the Duke his "Stratonice," and Delaroche his "Assassination of the Duc de Guise," which is by far his best picture. The Duke was so satisfied with the pictures that he sent to each of the painters 12,000 francs—double what had been agreed on. The Duc d'Aumale is now the possessor of these two pictures, which are very good specimens of the school of 1830. The "Stratonice" does not find as many admirers as it did once : Alma-Tadema and others have shown us Greece and antiquity in truer colors. Still, it cannot be denied that the composition is very noble, and that the æsthetic effect is considerable. The "Assassination of the Duc de Guise" is truly a magnificent picture ; it has every quality—line, color, truth ; it is a page of history. Delacroix is represented in the *Tribune* by one of his best pictures, the "Two Foscari," a most pathetic composition. The old Doge is obliged to deliver his own son to the torturers. The color of this great scene is very much admired by all artists. In order to be complete, I should have to make a real catalogue. I will only say that Watteau and Prudhon are very well represented in this room, where every picture is a choice one.

Thus far I have only spoken of the showrooms, if I may so express myself, of the new Castle. There is, besides, a great *corps de logis*, which forms what is called the Apartment—that is to say, it is destined for the most distinguished guests who will be received at Chantilly. This part is not quite finished, and is not visible to the public. Many works of art, tapestries, pictures, bronzes, etc., have already found a place in the fine rooms, which look out on the enormous parterre planned by Lenôtre. In the centre of this parterre one sees a statue of the Grand Condé, in a sort of Roman dress. The Duc d'Aumale has ordered other statues, which will be near the statue of Condé. Bossuet has already been finished by M. Guillaume ; he was a great friend of Condé, and delivered his funeral oration, as everybody knows. The other statues will be those of La Bruyère (who was a preceptor in the house of Condé, and who composed his immortal 'Caractères' at Chantilly), Molière, and Lenôtre. There are, besides, in the parterres several allegorical statues. Chapu has just finished two very pretty ones, "Pluto" and "Proserpine." Proserpine is seen gathering flowers, and Pluto watches her at a distance, concealing himself among marine plants. These statues give a very noble character to the old French parterres, which are made a sort of continuation of the architecture of the great Castle.

In our artistic world great curiosity is felt on the subject of the statue which Dubois is preparing for the Constable's Terrace. The model already set up there, and to which I alluded in my last letter, is a rough sketch, which Dubois only made so as to get a true impression of the scenery, of the height of the pedestal, of the general effect of the work. But, as I have said, it would not be fair to judge his future work by this *maquette*. Dubois is the most conscientious of artists ; he is never satisfied. In fact, he is in danger of spoiling the work of his inspiration by over-correcting. We may feel sure that he will spare no pains to produce an equestrian statue of the Constable worthy of the great name of Montmorency, worthy of Chantilly and of its present proprietor, who is doing his best to make of Chantilly a kind of museum of French history.

Correspondence.

ERRORS OF THE CENSUS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I should like to call your attention to some errors in the Population Volume of the Tenth Census.

Table I *d*, on page 5, purports to give the number of inhabitants to the square mile of land surface in each of the States and Territories at the date of each enumeration. From this table we learn that in 1870 Connecticut had, for every square mile of her surface, 110.9 inhabitants, and that in 1880 this number had decreased to 107.8. The natural supposition would be that the population of the State was less in the latter year than in the former. But Table I *c*, on the same page, indicates that the population had *increased* during the decade to the extent of 15.8 per cent. ; and Table I *b*, on the opposite page, gives the number of inhabitants in Connecticut in 1870 as 537,454, and in 1880 as 622,700. According to the Special Census Bulletin which gives the area of the States and Territories, the land surface of Connecticut is 4,845 square miles. Experiment will show that if the population of the State at each Census be divided by this number, the quotient will be identical with the figures which Table I *d* gives as the number of persons to the square mile at that date, except in 1880. In that year the quotient will be 128.5, and, as we have already seen, the figures in the table are 107.8. As Connecticut has not increased in area in the last ten years, it follows that the table is wrong, and that instead of 107.8 inhabitants to the square mile in 1880, as is asserted by it, Connecticut really had 128.5.

In the same table (I *d*, p. 5) the number of persons to the square mile in the District of Columbia in 1870 is stated to have been 2,191.0 ; in 1860, 750.8 ; and in 1850, 516.9. The increase of population between 1860 and 1870 thus appears to have been about 181 per cent. Table I *c*, on the same page, however, says that the increase was only 75.4. The area of the District is 60 square miles (see Special Census Bulletin on Areas). The population in 1870 was 131,700 ; in 1860, 75,080 ; and in 1850, 51,687. If the population at any period be divided by 60, the quotient will be the number of inhabitants to the square mile at that period. The results obtained in this way are below contrasted with those given in the Census :

	Result of Division.	Census Result.
1870.....	2,195.0	2,191.0
1860.....	1,251.3	750.8
1850.....	861.4	516.9

The error of 4 in 1870 is apparently a mere slip. The mistakes in 1860 and 1850 are of a more interesting character. It will be noticed that the figures for those years given by the Census are the exact ones which would be obtained if the population in those years had been divided by 100. The area of the District of Columbia was originally 100 square miles. In 1846, however, Alexandria County was receded to Virginia. Since that time the area has been, as above stated, 60 square miles. The Census Office kept on using the old area till 1870. It is not speaking harshly to say that this error is evidence of great carelessness.

Among other maps in this volume is one showing the curves of mean annual temperature. On page 17, Table I *m* purports to give the number of persons in each State and Territory living between the several curves. The map and the table correspond in form and intention, but, as will presently appear, they frequently contradict instead of confirming each other. Thus the map places a considerable tract in northern Arkansas between 55° and 60° of mean annual temperature. If this tract be carefully measured, it will be found that it must comprise the counties of Benton, Baxter, Boone, Carroll, Fulton, Madison, Marion, Washington, and parts of several others. The population of the counties named is 107,861 (see p. 50), whereas, according to the table (I *m*, p. 17), that part of Arkansas having a mean temperature of 55°–60° has a population of only 12,647.

According to the same table, the entire population of Maryland lives in the belt of country in which the mean annual temperature does not fall below 50° ; but on the map the curve corresponding to a mean temperature of 50° crosses the State at about the longitude of Hagerstown. All the State west of this curve has a mean annual temperature of 45°–50°. Garrett, Alleghany, and part of Washington Counties are west of this line. The population of the first two alone is 50,187 (see p. 64).

The same map indicates that the temperature of something more than one-half the area of West Virginia is 45°–50°. Measurements will show that this part of the State comprises counties whose aggregate population is rather above than below 210,000. Yet the table (I *m*, p. 17) gives its population as 22,193.

On the same map, the curve corresponding to 55° mean annual temperature divides Missouri into two unequal parts. About three-fifths of the State lying north of this curve have 50°–55° mean annual temperature, and about two-fifths

lying to the south of it a mean annual temperature of from 55° to 60°. Just on the northern boundary there is a small piece, made up of parts of Putnam, Harrison, Mercer, and Worth Counties, in which the mean temperature is 45°–50°. Thirty thousand would be a very large estimate of the population of this tract. The entire population of the four counties named is only 56,735 (see pp. 68, 69). In the extreme southeast corner of the State there is a strip of land which, as closely as can be judged, is about coterminous with Dunklin and Pemiscot Counties, in which the temperature is 60°–65°. The aggregate population of these counties is 13,903 (see pp. 68, 69). Now, the table (I *m*, p. 17) puts 1,323,176 people in that small section of northern Missouri in which the mean annual temperature is 45°–50°; 831,301 are assigned to the three-fifths of the State where the mean temperature is from 50° to 55°; and only 13,903 people are given as the inhabitants of the southern two-fifths of the State in which the mean of the thermometer is 55° to 60°. This last-named portion of the State, as represented on the map, contains the city of St. Louis, whose population is 350,518 (see p. 246). No population at all is credited to the small area in Dunklin and Pemiscot Counties which has a temperature of 60°–65°. It is plain that there is an error somewhere.

It will be noticed that the population credited to the 55°–60° belt—viz., 13,903—while absurdly too small for it, is exactly the population of the two counties in the tract having a mean temperature of 60°–65°. 831,301 seems rather a small population for the thickly-settled counties in the northern three-fifths of the State, but it is just about what we should expect to find in the 55°–60° section. 1,323,176 is an impossible population for a belt of country taking in parts of only four counties, the aggregate population of which is, as we have seen, only 56,735, but it is a very reasonable number for the inhabitants of the 50°–55° belt of the State. In short, the figures for Missouri in this table (I *m*, p. 17) have all been moved one column to the left of their proper positions. It is true that if this explanation be accepted, it would appear that it had not been intended to credit any population at all to the part of the State having a mean temperature of 45°–50°; but the proof is too plain that the error arose in the manner suggested for this circumstance to cast any serious doubt upon that explanation, especially as we have already seen that omissions in this table of even more important groups of population are by no means rare. The blame for this misplacement of figures cannot be saddled upon the broad shoulders of the printer, for it is carried through no less than four tables (I *l*, p. 16; I *m*, p. 17; I *n*, p. 18; I *o*, p. 19). It certainly seems that a very little vigilance would have sufficed for the discovery and correction of so patent a slip.

This is but the first instalment of the errors and inconsistencies discovered by me in this volume; I may soon call your attention to others.

JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, MD., Aug. 15, 1882.

THE MANUFACTURE OF HAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to your remarks on hay in this week's issue, may I, as a practical yeoman, ask how the article may be "cured," or manufactured, by "only lying in the sun"? Such simplicity would materially lighten the labor and expense of harvesting a crop which, to a New England farmer, is of some value during the long winter.—Yours,

H. S. RUSSELL.

HOME FARM, MILTON, August 12, 1882.

[The hay is cured by "only lying in the sun." What the practical yeoman does is to make it lie in such manner that the sun can get at it. Nothing else that we know of is done, except cart it home to the barn; but if this constituted "manufacture," coal would be a manufactured article, and so would seaweed used as manure. At all events, we have the authority of the courts for saying that haymaking is not "manufacture," and maintain that it consists in exposing cut grass to the sun's rays. We greatly doubt, however, whether this explanation will be of much use to the practical farmer.—ED. NATION.]

THE DUTY ON BICYCLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You mention that a manufacturer of bicycles only asks to be "let alone, . . . being neither helped nor hindered." According to the newspaper accounts, this is exceedingly inaccurate. The manufacturer of bicycles asked to have the duty on steel lessened, but not the duty which falls on bicycles. He did not ask to have the 35 per cent. *ad valorem* duty on bicycles remitted, or inform the committee that by means of this heavy duty, and $10 royalty charged for patents, the Pope Manufacturing Co. has established a monopoly which, even for an "infant industry," is exceedingly oppressive.

It was truly "a very unreasonable position for an infant to take."—Respectfully,

M. B. T.

MILWAUKEE, August 16, 1882.

THE LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your valued correspondent, Dr. Dexter, in his communication of the 20th of July, has briefly referred to a number of authors whose testimony he did not cite. Some of this evidence seems to me too valuable not to be laid before your readers. Some additional facts and reflections suggested by the discussion follow.

In Dr. Belknap's sketch of the life of Governor Carver, published in the second volume of his 'American Biography,' issued in the year of his death, 1798, he says, in reference to the landing from the shallop, "Monday, December 11th":

"The rock on which they first stepped ashore, at high water, is now enclosed with a wharf. The upper part of it has been separated from the lower part, and drawn into the public square of the town of Plymouth, where it is distinguished by the name of *The Forefathers' Rock*. The 22d of Dec. (Gregorian style) is regarded by the people of Plymouth as a festival."

Dr. Belknap was born in 1744, twenty-five years before the Old Colony Club instituted the celebration of the landing on the 22d of December. And he says here that the people of Plymouth celebrate that day as expressing in the Gregorian calendar, the day of the landing.

Dr. James Thacher, an Old Colony man, in his 'History of Plymouth,' 1832, pages 24, 25, has a long account of the landing from the shallop, "on Monday, the 11th day of December, O. S.," after which he proceeds to say: "This, then, is to be considered as the first stepping on the Rock of the Pilgrims from the shallop belonging to the *Mayflower*, and this is the *birthday of our nation*." He then says that the day usually celebrated, the 22d of December, has hitherto been supposed to correspond to the 11th, O. S.; that this is an error, and that the 21st should hereafter be commemorated. He then proceeds to give a long history of the introduction of the Gregorian calendar, and the reason for the blunder which the Old Colony Club made in 1769 in assigning the 22d of December instead of the 21st, as the true day for celebrating the landing.

Dr. Thacher was born in 1754, fifteen years before the Old Colony Club was instituted, of which he gives a history, and he may reasonably be supposed to have been informed on all the questions here discussed. He lived in Plymouth nearly all his life. As he could not have been ignorant himself of the significance of the day celebrated as that of the Landing, so he must have known the views of others who were equally intelligent with himself.

Judge John Davis, the editor of Morton's 'Memorial,' was emphatically the antiquary of the Old Colony. What he and his brother, Samuel Davis, the author of 'Ancient Vestiges,' did not know about the antiquities of Plymouth was not worth knowing. Judge Davis was born in Plymouth in 1761. He must have known all about the Old Colony Club, and about all its members, and about all the orators, of which he himself was one, of Forefathers' Day. He must have known, himself, the day he was commemorating, or the event he was commemorating. In a note to his edition of Morton's 'Memorial,' 1826, page 48, he quotes from "Mourt" the well-known passage of the landing from the shallop on Monday, the 21st of December. After saying that the place of the landing is satisfactorily ascertained, he says:

"The 22d of December, corresponding to the 11th, Old Style, has long been observed at Plymouth, and occasionally at Boston, in commemoration of the landing of the Fathers. The New England Society, in the city of New York, annually celebrate this day by an appropriate festival. At Plymouth it has universally the familiar appellation of *Forefathers' Day*."

Judge Davis says nothing here about the error of one day in reckoning from old to new style; but in a later *manuscript* note in his own copy of the memorial, now before me, written on this page, he says: "In 1620, December 11, O.S., corresponded to December 21, N.S. When the anniversary was instituted at Plymouth, in 1769, *eleven* days were added for difference, instead of ten, the true difference. The difference between old and new style then existing was incorrectly assumed in determining the day of celebration," etc.

Why should we seek to relegate to the region of myths the well-known facts of history? There are myths enough already woven into our history against which we may sharpen our wits while we expose them; so we can afford to let the facts that have an historical basis stand. We see here how the celebration of the 22d of December came about. There was a landing of the Plymouth fathers on the 11th (21st) of December, 1620; and any one who wishes to celebrate the day may be sure of its genuineness. There was no landing there on the 22d, old style or new style, of which there is any record. Why, then, confuse the minds of people by getting up or perpetuating a celebration on that day? Why introduce an element of myth into Plymouth history where the facts are clear? The story of the landing *upon a rock* is traditional. It has been handed down from an early period, but it does not rest on contemporaneous record. But the landing from the shallop somewhere within the Bay, and the marching into the land on Monday, the 11th of December, O.S., 1620, is a matter of record at the time.

Some surprise has been expressed, mingled with incredulity, that the Old Colony Club, in 1769, should have so blundered on the subject of the old and new style; but as wise persons as they have blundered since, and continue to blunder, about the same thing. Dr. Belknap delivered in Boston, in 1792, before the Historical Society, a discourse to commemorate the discovery

of America three hundred years before, on October 12, 1492; and the day selected for the celebration was October 23—eleven days being added, after the reckoning of the Old Colony Club, whereas, for the year 1492, but *nine* days were required to represent the difference.

The American Antiquarian Society was founded in 1812, and in the following year they instituted an annual celebration to be held October 23—that being, they say, the anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. The annual meetings of that Society continued to be held on that day till, about thirty years ago, after Mr. Savage's report to the Pilgrim Society, the 21st of October was, by a vote of the Society, substituted.

The Essex Historical Society in 1828 celebrated the two hundredth anniversary of the arrival of Endicott at Salem, September 6, 1628, and they selected the 18th of September as the true day, thus adding *twelve* days to represent the difference of style. Being asked, a few days before the festival, in the street, what is the difference between old and new style, Dr. Bowditch, the greatest mathematician in the country, correctly replied, in his prompt way, "Twelve days." But Dr. Bowditch afterward said, when it was too late, the question should have been, "What *was* the difference two hundred years ago?" (Savage's 'Report on the Day for Celebrating the Landing of the Pilgrims,' Boston, 1850, p. 10). The Essex Institute, the successor of the Essex Historical Society, celebrated, in 1878, the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of Endicott's landing, and they still adhered to the day adopted fifty years before, September 18, instead of selecting the true day, the 16th; the President of the Society, in his opening address, saying they did not wish to discredit the judgment of their predecessors, nor "express an opinion on a subject that has agitated so much the minds of scholars and historical students."

When John Quincy Adams was asked, in 1843, to deliver an address before the Historical Society, on the "Confederation of the Four New England Colonies of 19th May, 1643," it at first occurred to him—perhaps from his long residence in Russia, where the old calendar is still in use—that twelve days would be required to represent the true date; but he soon saw, or was led to see, his error, and the address was delivered on the 29th (Savage's 'Report,' pp. 10, 11).

C. D.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

[The argument of our correspondent controverts no statement made by the *Nation*. It shows clearly enough that learned historians and societies of historians "blundered on the subject of the old and new style," and that wise persons "continue to blunder about the same thing"; all which, in view of the simplicity of the subject, is strange indeed. But the "blundering" (the candid reader will excuse the word, seeing that we take it from the pen of our much-esteemed correspondent) of Dr. Belknap and Judge Davis must not be shifted over to the Old Colony Club. That very respectable club had no occasion to "institute" the anniversary called Forefathers' Day, and consequently had no occasion to confuse the calendar. To cite Dr. Thacher's 'History of Plymouth,' second edition, 1835, page 29: "Tradition says that Elder Faunce was in the habit, on every anniversary, of placing his children and grandchildren on the rock, and conversing with them respecting their forefathers." Elder Faunce died in 1746, when in the ninety-eighth year of his age, and as he "bid an everlasting adieu" to the rock in 1741, when he is reported to have "bedewed it with his tears," his "habit" of taking his descendants thither on the *anniversary* of the landing of the forefathers was formed many years before the Old Colony Club came into existence. The club was established in 1769, in which year it "instituted" the first public celebration of Forefathers' Day in Plymouth. It had nothing to do with "instituting" the anniversary, for that, in 1769, was already a time-honored day, and had been celebrated, in a quiet way, as was his "habit," by Elder Faunce, and we know not by how many others.

Our correspondent holds that what Judge Davis "did not know about the antiquities of Plymouth was not worth knowing," and yet all the Judge's marvellous knowledge failed him in his reckoning of old and new styles. He was a Forefathers' Day orator and ode-maker, and we willingly admit that he must have known "the day he was commemorating, or the event he was commemorating." In 1813 the Massachusetts Historical Society voted to "celebrate the anniversary of the Landing of the Forefathers on the 22d of December," and elected Judge Davis to deliver a discourse. The discourse was printed, and having carefully searched its pages, we can say that it contains no mention of the "shallop" landing. On the contrary, the Judge's reference to "the little band whom we this day commemorate," points distinctly to the landing of "the whole number of the company," which he puts down as "one hundred and one." And in his "Ode for the 22d of December, composed for the anniversary festival, 1792," we find that his poetic vision was in harmony with the sentiment of his oration. We have room for one verse only of that ode:

> "By yon wave-beaten rock
> See the illustrious flock,
> Collected stand;
> To seek some sheltering grove,
> Their faithful partners move,
> Dear pledges of their love,
> In either hand."

Neither the oration nor the ode will apply to the landing of an exploring party on the 11th of December. The real question for discussion is not about the landing of the "shallop" party (we have alluded to that event, as a matter of fact, over and over), but it is whether *Forefathers' Day* commemorates the landing of a few sailors and adventurers, or a subsequent landing of the entire body of the Leyden Pilgrims—the landing from the *Mayflower*, on Plymouth Rock. Our "view" of Forefathers' Day, as it was presented in the *Nation* of July 6, has not been shaken by any quotations from Mourt, or Belknap, or Davis, or Thacher; and believing it to be the true one, we have no hesitation in reproducing it:

"Whether the disembarkation [from the *Mayflower*] was made in one day, or occupied several days, is not so material. It is the idea of a general landing of men, women, and children that has made any one day remarkable; and the stream of literature sets in one plain direction—to the 'consecration' of the landing of the Pilgrims from the *Mayflower* on the 22d of December, 1620."

—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS send us vols. i.–xiv. of their so-called "Subscription Edition" of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' beautifully bound in half-morocco. The impression has been made from the original plates, and one only misses the broad page-margins; but this, while a loss to the eye, is more than offset by the greater ease in handling the at best heavy volumes. A welcome new feature of the "Subscription Edition" is a series of United States maps designed to replace those which have already appeared. Their merit does not lie in artistic engraving, but in clearness and accuracy. The selection of names of towns has been determined by the populations of the last census. The railroad lines are delineated in red—sometimes, we observe, a little in advance of the actual rail-laying, as in the depicted junction of the Oregon and California roads. Many will find the series in a detached form convenient. Of the latest volume, the 14th, we must take another occasion to speak in detail.

A work of no ordinary interest, 'The Letters of Lydia Maria Child,' with a biographical introduction by J. G. Whittier, and an appendix by Wendell Phillips, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Harper & Bros. will have ready next month Mr. Wm. H. Gibson's 'Highways and Byways,' with his own illustrations; and in October, Mr. Abbey's illustrated Herrick.

The second volume of Mrs. Stanton's 'History of Woman Suffrage' will be published immediately by Fowler & Wells.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' fall list embraces 'Social Equality: a Study in a Missing Science,' by W. H. Mallock; 'The Development of Constitutional Liberty in the English Colonies,' by Eben G. Scott; 'The Political Conspiracies preceding the Rebellion, with the true stories of Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens,' by Lieut.-Col. Thomas M. Anderson; 'Six Months in Persia,' by E. Stack; 'Travels and Researches among the Lakes and Mountains of Eastern and Central Africa,' by J. Frederick Elton; 'A History of English Prose Fiction,' by Bayard Tuckerman; 'Songs of Lake Geneva, and other Poems,' by John Brayshaw Kaye; 'Sheaves,' a volume of poems by Harriette Converse; 'A School Atlas of Astronomy,' by A. Keith Johnston; a second series of 'Best Reading,' for the five years ending December 31, 1882, edited by L. E. Jones; and a curious symposium, 'How to Succeed,' to which Senators Bayard and Edmunds, novelists, soldiers, politicians, and inventors contribute their experience—shall we say?—or belief.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co., in issuing the complete 'Poems of Thomas Bailey Aldrich,' have taken exceptional pains with the illustrations, which for the sake of harmony have been executed by members of the Paint and Clay Club of Boston, in mutual understanding and criticism. Mr. W. B. Closson engraves two of his own designs.

Père Didon's lectures on 'Science without God,' translated by Rosa Conder, will be issued in September by T. Whitaker.

Macmillan & Co. have repurchased from Henry Holt & Co. their "Elementary Classics," of which a list was given in last week's *Nation*.

Wentworth's 'Elements of Algebra,' with the addition of half its bulk devoted to the discussion of subjects usually found in the higher algebras, will compose his 'Complete Algebra' promised immediately by Ginn, Heath & Co.

We receive from Ithaca, N. Y., a 'Bibliographia Psiupsilonica,' issued by the Chi Charter—a small pamphlet of seventeen pages, compiled, doubtless, by Prof. Willard Fiske, of Cornell. Its fifty-eight numbers are pronounced nearly complete.

A bibliographical list of the English translations and annotated editions of Goethe's *Faust*, compiled by William Heinemann, is begun in the August *Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton). The

same number reviews a work by J. H. Hessels, 'Gutenberg: Was he the Inventor of Printing?' to which Dr. Van der Linde's reply will be interesting reading.

A sketch of the late Stephen S. Foster, by Parker Pillsbury, is printed in the current number of the *Granite Monthly* (Concord, N. H.).

Mr. Christern will receive subscriptions for a charming art-work, on the Estense Gallery at Modena, by Inspector Venturi, who in the text will trace the origin of this collection, and its varying fortunes of war and of necessity, with the aid of fine illustrations.

The widow of Professor Cairnes is desirous of obtaining copies of his letters, many of which were written to friends in America. She will be very grateful to any correspondent of her late husband who will send such copies to her, or the originals, which she will carefully return after making copies of them. Address Mrs. Cairnes, 46 Oseney Crescent, London, England.

—Our endeavor last week to explain briefly a technical term in the extract from Minister Marsh's letter from Vallombrosa was not quite successful. *Ueberwallung*, in its dendrological sense, of which the common dictionaries take no cognizance, means "the covering over with a growth of bark the top of the stump of a tree which had been entirely cut down; this growth being formed without the aid of leaves, and so without the elaborated sap on which the formation of wood largely depends." The phenomenon is of very rare occurrence, and the writer has never witnessed it in this country.

—"A Summer at York," by Sara D. Clark, and "Spanish Vistas—Mediterranean Ports and Gardens," by George P. Lathrop, are the chief illustrated articles in *Harper's* for September. They will be found worth reading as well as looking through, both having some literary as well as pictorial value. Mr. Lathrop gives an account of a gypsy dance, the *flamenco*, as danced in Malaga, which seems to have the peculiarity of being an Oriental dance performed in Western costume. Two other illustrated articles are "The Weibertreue," by Elise Allen, and the "Visit of the Vikings," by T. W. Higginson, whose conclusion with regard to the Vikings' visit to this country—that there is very little hope of ever identifying a single spot where they landed, or of ever being sure of anything about it beyond the bare fact that they came here before Columbus did—is one not likely to be quarrelled with. "In Surrey," by Mrs. John Lillie, is founded partly on a trip to that county and partly on Madame D'Arblay's Memoirs. For more serious contributions, Mr. Edwin P. Whipple writes on Emerson, and dwells a good deal on a trait which many of his disciples failed for very good reasons to notice—his humor. This serves to explain, or half explain, a good many things that have passed with the untranscendental for pure extravagance or nonsense. We should be inclined to doubt whether his "Nay, Margaret, it is religion," was said with the entire seriousness that is always attributed to it, and certainly it would be unsafe to take Margaret Fuller's word for it. David A. Curtis contributes an article on "The Mississippi River Problem," in which no attempt, however, is made at a solution of the stated problem, "how to keep within fixed bounds a stream that flows in varying volume over a bed of mud, without banks that can be called banks." It is at present one of the grandest fields for the theorist and for an appropriation in the world. The Mississippi River Commission, a body created by the Forty-sixth Congress, believes in keeping the river within bounds by artificial means, and proposes to narrow the river to a uniform width of 3,000 feet, to strengthen the banks, and regulate the shape of the bottom. The critics of this plan say that it cannot be done—that the river must overflow, and that the proper thing to do is to provide auxiliary channels and outlets which shall guide the surplus water to the sea. The cost of the work of the Commission has been put by one of its members at $33,000,000, while its critics say that $460,000,000 would not complete it satisfactorily. The poetry of the number consists of "A Garden Secret," by Philip Bourke Marston; and "Marit and I—a Norse Idyl," by Hjalmar H. Boyesen. Mr. William Black's "Shandon Bells" is continued, and Mr. Curtis contributes two or three graceful essays in the "Easy Chair," the best of them being on that universally conceded American good nature which leads us in travelling and elsewhere to submit to so many impositions that Englishmen cannot be brought to endure.

—The September *Century*, like the other September magazines, is stronger in prose than poetry. Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin contributes an illustrated article on ocean steamships, which brings out in a striking way the extraordinary reduction in the length of ocean voyages effected within the past generation by the introduction of the screw, the compound engine, and the increased size of steamers, and in which he calls attention to the curious fact that stern-propulsion, suggested by the earliest inventors of the marine steam-engine, is, after many experiments, and a long trial of lateral propulsion, the plan upon which the world has finally settled down for marine navigation. Other illustrated articles are "The Original of Rebecca in 'Ivanhoe,'" in which Mr. Gratz Van Rensselaer shows by what seems very conclusive evidence that the idea of the daughter of Isaac of York was suggested to Sir Walter Scott by Irving, through the account given by the latter to the novelist of a certain Rebecca Gratz, a Philadelphia Jewess; "An Old Town with a History" (Castine, Maine), by Noah Brooks; "The Academic Career of President Woolsey," by Prof. George P. Fisher, an article of some intrinsic biographical value; "Dante Gabriel Rossetti," by Edmund W. Gosse, who adds a detail here and there to our knowledge of a very singular man—singular, among other things, in the fact that his mediævalism in art and poetry was not, as was the case with others of his time, the result of study or reflection, but a pure case of what Darwinians would call reversion, for his imagination, born in an English and modern and utilitarian and formal *milieu*, had a distinctly Italian and mediæval character; and "Ningpo and the Buddhist Temples," by Constance F. Gordon-Cumming. The serials go on as usual, and there are two or three serious and critical articles, as well as a short story by Joaquin Miller. Mr. E. V. Smalley's second paper on the "New Northwest" is a very good bit of description, in which he points out what he thinks is a radical difference between the railroad and the pre-railroad genesis of towns in the West. "Formerly the country was settled first, and the towns grew up to supply the needs of the rural population. Now the towns are created by speculators far in advance of the farming settlement; and by the conveniences they afford for selling crops, and buying implements, lumber, and household supplies, they attract farmers to their vicinity. Each new frontier town is an advertisement of the surrounding country, upon the settlement of which it must depend for its existence." As an instance of this process, he cites the town of Billings, on the Yellowstone, where the bare prairie was staked out with streets, avenues, and parks on a scale for a city of 20,000 inhabitants, a "Billings boom" was started in the real-estate market, and blocks in the new city were sold in Chicago and New York. Within sixty days after Billings had been born, $220,000 worth of lots had been sold within its imaginary limits. The town of Duluth was, if we remember right, placed on the market in much the same way, but in such speculations the chances of a financial crash have to be taken into the account, and 1873 was too much for Duluth. General McClellan writes a very inconclusive article on "The War in Egypt," and Mr. Howells a pleasant essay on Mark Twain, an engraving of whom makes the frontispiece of the magazine. Mr. Howells somewhat exaggerates the importance of Mr. Clemens in literature, for although we may be ready to grant all that is said of his native powers, the use to which he puts them is, in estimating his literary rank, a serious matter. Mr. Howells thinks that Mark Twain will last. "All fashions change," he says, "and nothing more wholly and quickly than the fashion of fun; as any one may see by turning back to what amused people in the last generation; that stuff is terrible. As Europe becomes more and more the playground of Americans, and every scene and association becomes insipidly familiar, the jokes about the old masters and the legends will no longer be droll to us. Neither shall we care for the huge Californian mirth when the surprise of the picturesquely mixed civilization and barbarism of the Pacific Coast has quite died away; and Mark Twain would pass with the conditions that have made him intelligible, if he were not an artist of uncommon power as well as a humorist." We wonder what Mr. Clemens himself would say to this. Mr. Smalley, by the way, contributes a new Western waiter story, which might have come out of Mark Twain. The waiter inquires patronizingly of the guest if he is hungry, and on the guest's replying that he is, "I am glad of it," says the waiter; "I like a hungry man."

—Mr. Austin Dobson's illustrated paper on "Thomas Bewick," with which the *Century* opens, has not only the literary finish we expect from this writer, but also the merit of orderly exposition and of a certain originality. Mr. Dobson has visited the engraver's birthplace and his haunts in country and city, and compares his impressions with those recorded by Bewick in his autobiography. He shows us in modern woodcuts what remains of Cherryburn, the Ovingham parsonage and church, with its memorial tablets, the Newcastle workshop of Bewick & Son. Then, proceeding to trace the artist's career, he settles a moot point concerning his early work for Saint's 'Select Fables' in 1776. The rest is for the most part not new, excepting a few details of considerable personal interest. Add to all this twenty specimens of Bewick's art, the largest one being printed from the original block. We have examined these somewhat curiously to see whether they have gained or lost by the *Century's* presswork. It is well known that when Bewick had mastered the difficulties of engraving on wood, he had to overcome the printer's inability to deal with cuts, for an instance of which take the twelfth edition of Croxall's 'Æsop,' printed for the foremost houses in London in 1782. He accordingly lowered the surface of his blocks in such a way that the darker portions protected the lighter against the rough usage of the press, while the proper effects of light, shade, color, and distance were preserved. We could criticise the *Century's* prints more intelligently if we knew which of them were recut and which reproduced by "process"; but we have not found one of them superior to the originals, while, what is most singular, the loss of "atmosphere" is ap-

parent in several (*e. g.*, "The Farmyard," the tail-piece to "The Beaver," and "The Common Snipe"). The prevailing defects are that the absolute blacks are made grays, though in "The Starling" the black of the head is ruinously overdone and extended; and that the finer details are often half or wholly obliterated (see especially the two owls). This last is bad enough when the background is in question, but when plumage is involved the effect is meagre on the one hand and mussy on the other. We apprehend that the ink has something to do with the matter; but, without disparaging the pressman or the ever-watchful supervision of him, we incline to think that Bewick's work will suffer more by excess than by neglect of "overlaying." On the whole, Mr. Dobson's favorite "Old English Hound" comes off best.

— The *Atlantic* for September has a very small supply of poetry—a sonnet to "Darkness" by Julia C. R. Dorr, and three verses called "Tears of Isis" by Francis L. Mace, being all. R. Fellow contributes an article on "American History on the Stage," in which he suggests one or two subjects for serious treatment; among others, the expedition of Sir William Phips against Quebec, and the life and death of John Brown. Nobody can say that a subject is not a good one till it has been tried, but we confess that to our minds it is difficult to imagine anything of importance being done with either. History is the stumbling-block of the playwright. Picturesque, romantic, and dramatic incidents in it attract and delude him at the same time. The best proof of this is that very little really good historical drama has ever been written. The great Greek tragedians employed legend rather than history as the groundwork of their drama; the French classical school took classical subjects as far as possible. Shakspere wrote "histories"; but they can hardly be said to have held the stage. The romantic drama of France, of which "Hernani" may be taken as a type, made use of historical names, but hardly came much nearer actual history than does such a play as "Adrienne Lecouvreur." It must be remembered that in Shakspere's time the drama performed a good many functions which fall to literature now. Audiences which came to see "Henry V.," for instance, came to have the story told them. This they would now get out of a book or a magazine. The modern familiarity with history, the fact that every American boy, for instance, learns the history of his country at school, is a reason the more for thinking it unadapted to dramatic representation. Nobody who could get hold of Parkman's delightful volumes would care to go to see *Sir William Phips* or *Frontenac* given by a star actor at the Grand Opera House, or even at Booth's. Another reason why American history seems to make poor material for the drama is that many of its most serious persons and events have been turned into general ridicule and have had an air of burlesque thrown over them by a variety of causes, which need not here be gone into, but which have permanently impaired their gravity. Washington on any stage would be a failure. They do these things better in France, and they made the experiment there and failed. Against one thing it is safe to warn the playwright—that is, against attempting to write historical drama as such. Let him try producing a good play, and, if it turns out to be historical too, no one will have a word to say. If it is bad, its historical character will not help it. Elizabeth Robins writes on "Evil in the Greek Mythology," and shows how different a part evil plays in mediæval Christianity:

"'From Harz to Hellas, cousins we discover!' cries Mephistopheles. There were in Greece creatures as grotesque, as improbable, as hideous as any to be found in India or in Scandinavia. There were dragons with seven heads, and great giants with but one eye in the middle of their foreheads. Strange beings—partly birds, partly women—haunted hill and valley, and the calm blue sea concealed terrible monsters. At first it seems as if sirens and lamiæ, griffins, hell-hounds, and cyclopes must be the same in every respect as the asuras of the East, or the grotesque demons of mediæval Europe, whom they resemble in outward form. But they are in reality as distinct from them as classic is from Oriental and romantic poetry. Goethe, in pointing out the likeness, has also analyzed the difference between Greek and Northern demons. This dualism has never been so tersely explained as when he makes Mephistopheles, on the mountains of Hellas, miss the smell of pitch and brimstone, to which he is accustomed on the Blocksberg, while he wonders what can be the nature of their hell-fire."

—Another instalment of "Studies in the South" contains a discussion of what is being done for the education of the negro. Mr. Harrison criticises the plan of national aid, which he thinks would be a positive evil. The poverty of the Southern States is not, he says, so great as to render it at all necessary, and it is very desirable that both whites and blacks should be accustomed and remain accustomed to a full local responsibility for the results of ignorance if they permit it. Mr. Harrison, it should be said, is very sceptical on the subject of common-school education. What the negroes need, he thinks, is industrial and moral training. These the public schools do not give. The negroes must, of course, be taught the rudiments of knowledge—reading, writing, and arithmetic. But what they must actually do in life is work, and nothing taught them at school ought to produce a dislike in them for manual labor. They are "serfs," says Mr. Harrison bluntly, and serfs they must remain, and it is mere cruelty to give them an education such as Northern common schools furnish, which "tends very generally to produce in the pupils a dislike of manual labor, and a disposition to regard those who live by it as an inferior class." Alexander C. McClurg contributes a readable war article called "The Last Chance of the Confederacy," and the three serials are carried bravely forward by Mr. Hardy, Mr. Bishop, and Miss Phelps. They are all three full of character. Doctor Zay is the most tremendous woman doctor that has yet appeared in fiction. Swithin St. Cleeve as the lover of science cannot be matched anywhere, and for fastness it would be hard to beat young Kingbolt, of Kingboltsville. Mr. F. H. Cushing's "Nation of the Willows" is interesting and valuable, as everything he writes about the Indians is.

—*Lippincott's* for September opens with an illustrated article describing "An Antwerp Printing House," by Rose G. Kingsley. Amelia E. Barr contributes an article on "Songs that have Made History," such as "Lillibullero," "Ça Ira," and the Marseillaise, but her material is very well worn. A curious collection might have been made of the songs that were popular in our Army and among the rebels during the war, as well as of the songs which it was attempted to nationalize here without much success. As music the successful and popular songs had little value, except in the case of one or two old and familiar tunes. All of them were extremely simple melodies. "John Brown's Body," and "Maryland, My Maryland," and "Marching through Georgia," and "Dixie" were those which probably had most moral military effect; but we fear the result of the examination would show us to be a most unmusical nation. The current instalment of "Fairy Gold," a novel published anonymously, is not at all bad, and there is further provision of fiction in the form of short stories—"Guy's Legacy," by William O. Stoddard, and "Mrs. Witherell's Mistake," by Edward Lassetter Bynner. "Animal Electricians," or in other words animals provided with "stored" electricity, such as the torpedo and the electric eel, are written about by C. F. Holder. Octave Thanet gives an account of a trip "Through Great Britain on a Drag," which seems to be that noticed in the newspapers some months ago as having been taken by Mr. Andrew Carnegie and his friends. Mr. Charles Wood gives an account of his invasion of the "Temple of Heaven" in Peking, and A. Granville Bradley gives some valuable information about a most interesting part of Virginia in an article called "Round about the Peaks of Otter." Louise Chandler Moulton and Mary B. Dodge furnish the poetry of the month in "At War" and "Interchange." In "Our Monthly Gossip" we always find some extraordinary statement. This month it is the suggestion that hospitality is dying out. We should like to be informed where. Is it in Philadelphia, and is the phenomenon connected in any way with protection to American industry?

—Mr. Clarence Cook has a very depressing article in the current number of the *North American Review* on "Architecture in America." The only houses in the country which satisfy him are the "cottages and small houses of the last century" scattered over eastern Massachusetts and "found plentifully in New Jersey." As far as we understand what he says, the reason why these are good specimens of architecture is that when they were built there were no architects in America. "The general excellence that marks the dwellings of any people is a proof of the non-existence of professional architects among that people"; and conversely, "when architects abound the art of building always deteriorates." Again: "It is to architects that we owe all the ugly building that offends us in our large cities and in our country towns and fashionable summer quarters." So far all is plain sailing. Before there were any architects there were, of course, nothing but builders, and it is to the honest, unpretending builder that we owe all the good early Colonial structures that Mr Cook finds so satisfactory. This is something like the view that Carlyle took of the matter, as may be seen in his lamentations over the decay of the art of masonry, in which his father was such a proficient. But in the next sentence Mr. Cook destroys the whole fabric of his argument by declaring that "it is to architects that we owe, nowadays, the few, the very few, buildings on which our eyes can look with pleasure," and he adds that "the work of the professional builders is always in these days an eye-sore." It is easier to follow Mr. Cook when he does not generalize, and when he tells us what he thinks of particular buildings. He has surveyed the field, and has found very little that is good in it. For instance, there are "the churches on the Back Bay lands" in Boston—one "with the foolish frieze of sculpture encircling the lofty, awkward tower, and wholly unintelligible from below," another with "the completest Saratoga trunk" on top of it; for what purpose placed there Mr. Cook does not know, and the Art Museum, "so finikin fine, with its heads of great men, looking out of portholes in the most shipwrecked fashion." The same extravagance we find repeated in the Sanders Theatre at Cambridge and in the Historical Society's building in Brooklyn. The Boston Art Museum and the Memorial Hall at Cambridge are, it seems, "examples of what comes of building getting into the hands of literary, critical men, art students, with their heads crammed full of remembered bits of Old-World architecture, and their portfolios stuffed with photographs of more and more bits." As for the Vanderbilt houses, the two built by Herter and

the third built by Mr. Richard Hunt—what are they? The art of architecture, it seems, "has not received many worse blows in this country" than have been given her by these three houses. Of Mr. Hunt, Mr. Cook says he "has certainly loaded earth with some of the most ungainly among all the ungainly structures that make our streets such a misery to any one who cares for good building." He "spoiled quiet Beacon Street" by the erection of what Mr. Cook cautiously says he "believes" to be "the ugliest house that has ever been built this side the Atlantic"; and he built the Lenox Library, too, "with its silly pediments and blank monotony of wall." No wonder such a man as this should have built the third Vanderbilt house, "a patchwork made up of bits." This is certainly a gloomy picture; and the worst of it is that there seems to be no chance for anything better, for reform must come either from builders or architects or students of art, and for all three classes Mr. Cook has the profoundest contempt. After reading the article we can only say, Alas! alas! there is no hope. Other readable articles are "Tornadoes and their Causes," by T. B. Maury, and "Earth-Burial and Cremation," by Augustus G. Cobb. Mr. Cobb quotes an eye-witness as giving the following pleasant account of the spectacular effect of crematory funeral: "When, in obedience to his own dying request, I saw the door of the cinerator taken down, its rosy light shine forth, and his peaceful form, enrobed in white, laid there at rest amid a loveliness that was simply fascinating to the eye, and without a glimpse of flames or fire or coals or smoke, I said, and say so still, this method, beyond all methods I have seen, is the most pleasing to the senses, the most charming to the imagination, and the most grateful to the memory."

—The Norwegian Edmund Neupert, now on his way to America for the purpose of giving concerts in our larger cities, is a pianist of the first rank and a composer of considerable merit. He is in the prime of life, having been born on the first of April, 1842. He received his first lessons in music from his father, Hermann Neupert, a music-dealer and teacher of the pianoforte in Christiania, Norway. He played in public concerts at the age of seven with marked success, and in 1858 he was sent to Berlin, where he received further instruction from Professor Kullak. Here he soon became a favorite in the best musical circles, and at the age of twenty-two he appeared in the "Singakademie," and was received with favor. By invitation of Gade he became a teacher in the Copenhagen Conservatory of Music in 1866. He has repeatedly given concerts in the largest cities of Germany and Scandinavia. In 1880 Neupert was called to a position in the Musical Academy of Moscow, Russia, where he was greeted with great applause. After the death of Nicholas Rubinstein, at whose request Neupert had gone to Moscow, he returned to Christiania, where he has established a music school. If we except Erika Lie, who is a famous interpreter of Beethoven, Neupert is unquestionably the most brilliant piano virtuoso the Scandinavian countries have produced. Among his compositions his six "Improvisations" on Norse themes are perhaps the best known and most popular. His "Études" are also frequently found on concert programmes.

—In an interesting essay on the connection between Arthur Schopenhauer's philosophy and personality, in the July *Rundschau*, Professor Paulsen certainly proves that Schopenhauer's peculiar philosophy was the direct outcome of his private convictions, and that theoretically as well as practically he was the pessimist *par excellence*. He was the most distrustful of human beings.

"He believed in no man's honesty, not even the commonest, every-day sort. Just as he feared that his own mother and sister wanted to take advantage of him, so he did in the case of all his friends. A friend of his youth, a Frenchman, who had shown sincere devotion for him, was asked by Schopenhauer for advice concerning a projected investment in a French life-insurance company. His friend dissuaded him, and offered to invest part of the capital in his own business. Schopenhauer never answered the letter, but wrote on the margin: 'Do you smell a rat?' (*merkt Du was*). For a similar reason he received an extremely painful rebuke from his publisher, Brockhaus. After having sent him the manuscript of the first edition of 'Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung,' he could not shake off the suspicion that Brockhaus wanted to defraud him of his payment. He accordingly wrote him a tolerably impudent letter, adding that he understood the firm to be generally unreliable as far as payment was concerned. Brockhaus asked him to name a single instance in which he had failed to meet his obligations, saying that otherwise he could no longer consider him a man of honor. Schopenhauer had to swallow the reproach, and Brockhaus broke off all further connection with him."

—His valuables were so carefully hidden that in spite of the Latin direction contained in his will it was difficult to discover them. After his second journey in Italy he kept his account-book in English, and important business notes he wrote in Latin and Greek. In order to be safe from thieves he wrote deceptive labels, calling bonds *arcana medica*, keeping coupons in old letters and among sheets of music, and gold coins under the inkstand in his writing-desk. Altogether, Schopenhauer knew well how to take care of his own. A large part of his money, as well as that of his mother and sister, was invested with a commercial house in Dantzic, which in 1819 became insolvent. All the creditors lost seventy per cent. of their claims; Schopenhauer alone, by skilful threatening and bullying which would have done credit to any lawyer, managed in a few years to recover his capital with interest added. Schopenhauer, like most eminent men, seems to have inherited a fair share of his temper from his mother, one of the prosiest of novel-writers, who exchanged with her son such genial epistles as the following: "You may dine with me on my reception evenings provided you can abstain from your troublesome disputing, which always puts me out of humor, as well as from all lamentations over the stupid world and human misery, which never fail to give me bad dreams, and you know I like to sleep well."

LECKY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—II.

A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Vols. III. and IV. London: Longmans; New York: Appletons. 1882.

THE key to Mr. Lecky's theory of our Revolutionary struggle may be found on page 113 of vol. iv.:

"The American people, though in general unbounded believers in progress, are accustomed, through a kind of curious modesty, to do themselves a great injustice by the extravagant manner in which they idealize their past. It has almost become a commonplace that the great nation which in our own day has shown such an admirable combination of courage, devotion, and humanity in its gigantic Civil War, and which since that time has so signally falsified the predictions of its enemies, and put to shame all the nations of Europe by its unparalleled efforts in paying off its national debt, is of a far lower moral type than its ancestors at the time of the War of Independence. This belief appears to me essentially false."

While, therefore, Mr. Lecky sympathizes, on the whole, with the results of the Revolution, and pays a hearty tribute to the character of some of its leaders, the general tone of his book is that of depreciation at once of the American people of that day, and of the acts of aggression which led to the Revolution.

Nothing is easier than to make a plausible showing on at least the first of these. In any popular movement the good and the bad are so intermixed that it depends entirely upon what eyes we look with, whether we approve or condemn. The reader of Macaulay wonders how a revolution carried through with such venality and half-heartedness as that of 1688 can have been a "glorious" revolution. What meanness and hypocrisy one meets at every turn in the revolution of 1640. Mr. Lecky eulogizes the spirit and character of the American people in the time of the Civil War; but the noble army of contractors, the chronic grumblers, and the venomous Copperhead, gave occasion to lamentations and discouragement quite equal to any that he quotes from the correspondence of Washington and Adams. Times of revolution bring out all the heroism of a people, but they also place its low and evil traits in a glaring light.

When we pass to the other question, the provocations to the Revolution, and its justification, it is certainly true that the oppression exercised by England was not of the kind that drives men to madness. But is not this fact, in view of the almost unanimous feeling that existed at first against separation, even on the part of those whom Mr. Lecky calls "demagogues" (Otis, the Adamses, etc.), the clearest evidence of the loftiness of spirit with which the colonists entered into the struggle? It was only the assurance that they were contending, not for threepence a pound on tea, but for the principle which lay at the foundation of English liberties, that could have inspired them to a resistance which seemed so desperate. The American Revolution finds its fullest justification in the present policy of the British Government in dealing with its colonies—a policy forced, we may say, upon the mother country by the success of the American Revolution.

Excellent as is Mr. Lecky's analysis of the causes of the Revolution, he wholly fails to appreciate, or at least to bring into due prominence, its relation to the colonial system. This subject it is, we believe, Mr. Bancroft's merit to have first elaborated, but, after all, Colonel Barré's speech, familiar to every schoolboy, contained the gist of it. It was urged, and Mr. Lecky urges, that the contributions called for from the American colonies were far from being their fair proportion of the expenses incurred by the war from which the colonies had so largely profited. And this is very true, if we could consider the colonies as really forming part of the British Empire, and the war as waged in their behalf. But it is manifest that this was not the case; that the colonies were planted and administered as pure dependencies, for the sole profit of the mother country. Of course all prosperity which fell to the lot of the mother country could not fail to redound in some degree to the benefit of the colonies; but this was no part of the plan. From the passage of the Navigation Act of Charles II. (that of Cromwell was conceived in a different spirit, and treated the colonists as *Englishmen* of equal rights), the colonies were systematically forced to make their industry subservient to the interests, not of *England*, but of English manufacturers and merchants. Mr. Lecky says (vol. iii., p. 372) that the restrictions upon manufactures were "of no great consequence to a country where agriculture, fisheries, and commerce were naturally the most lucrative forms of enterprise"; but nothing is more certain than that, except for these restrictions, the natural inventiveness and enterprise of the New Englanders would

have made manufactures a "lucrative form of enterprise" long before the Revolution. With good reason, the Americans felt that it was an impertinence to require them to contribute to the expenses of the Government when they not only were unrepresented in its counsels, but were treated by it as only a source of profit. Moreover, if it was right that the colonies should be taxed for the benefit of the Empire, it was right that they should be made an integral part of the Empire; and this step should have come first. No doubt it would have been a matter of great difficulty to arrange the details of such a union —perhaps it would have been impossible. The first great attempt, Franklin's scheme of union, in 1754, failed; but, at any rate, wise statesmanship would have made fresh efforts, and would have been willing to wait indefinitely, rather than insist upon raising money by taxation from a community which stood in no organic relation to the British Empire except that of subjection.

Compared with the injustice of the colonial system, the legal argument as to the right of the Crown or of Parliament in the colonies is of very secondary importance. No doubt, the colonists did shift their position from time to time, as the inherent injustice of the system became more strongly impressed upon their minds. It was at first only internal taxation that they resisted; then external taxation; then the right of legislation. This was inconsistent, perhaps; but, after all, they proceeded by logical steps. Nothing would have satisfied them in the long run —and nothing ought to have satisfied them—except either an integral union with the British Empire or such complete administrative independence as is now enjoyed by Canada and Australia. As, therefore, they understood the injustice of their economical relations as clearly as Adam Smith and Turgot, so they, by a prophetic instinct, led the way to the present colonial policy of Great Britain. We are told that even at that time the British colonial policy was far more liberal and just than any other. No doubt; and no wonder the routine British statesmen could not comprehend the attitude of the colonists. So much the more must we honor their clearness of view and their readiness to devote themselves for a principle which is now recognized and unquestioned.

Mr. Lecky's failure to appreciate the importance of the colonial system as a cause of the Revolution gives to his whole discussion a certain one-sidedness in tone. He believes that the Americans were right, and that their triumph was the triumph of constitutional liberty. He sees this clearly now, in the light of events; but he cannot understand how the American leaders could see it a hundred and twenty years ago. The English statesmen—except Burke and a few others—thought it clear that the colonies should contribute to the burdens of the war; and it seems to him strange that the colonists should have thought differently. The result is a curious inconsistency: the *opinions* are generally favorable to the American cause, the *tone* generally unfavorable. The Boston Massacre affords a very good illustration of this. After an account at considerable length of the unreasonableness and insubordination of the people of the colonies, and especially of Massachusetts (vol. iii., p. 397), the so-called massacre is described, and its effects dwelt upon, in exciting the passions of the people and alienating them still further from the mother country. The impression given is almost that of a reign of terror; and when we read directly after of the trial of the soldiers, their defence by Adams and Quincy, their acquittal, and the complete acquiescence in this acquittal by the American people (including the election of Adams as representative for Boston), one cannot but feel that the previous account was somewhat exaggerated, or, at any rate, that the author fails to understand the real sentiment of the community. And when he proceeds to ascribe this result solely to the "humanity" of the American people, we feel that he totally misapprehends the situation. It was a far nobler thing than sentimental unwillingness to shed blood: it was a sense of justice—a readiness to understand the requirements of the law and to acquiesce in them.

We have pointed out what seems to us the principal defect in Mr. Lecky's view of the American struggle, in his failure to go behind the mere question of law and to comprehend the position of the Americans as a people. In his account of the War he has brought out with great fulness—possibly with some exaggeration —the weakness of the American cause, the strength of the loyalists, the lukewarmness of the majority of the inhabitants, the shortcomings of the administration. It would almost seem as if he wished to show, as M. Taine has shown for the French Revolution, that the movement was pushed through by a resolute and unscrupulous minority. But an essentially democratic country like America, in which local self-government was carried to its furthest point, cannot be compared with a centralized despotism like France. No doubt, as Mr. Sabine and others have shown, the strength and respectability of the loyalist element were much underrated in the first years of the Republic; but we think it certain that in most of the colonies a large majority was in sympathy with the Revolution.

The military history, as might be expected in a work of this character, is the least complete part of the history of the Revolution. On the other hand, the political and financial portions are very well handled; the sketch of the powers of the Continental Congress (vol. iv., p. 33) is especially good. We find on page 12 of vol. iv. the strange statement that in 1776 "Congress, without absolutely superseding [Schuyler], gave the supreme command to Gates, who was by birth a New Englander." Schuyler offered to resign at this time, but his resignation was not accepted by Congress; it was a year later that he was superseded by Gates, who was an *Englishman* by birth. Again, on page 63, it is said that Carleton was, in 1777, superseded by Burgoyne. Here, too, Carleton had offered to resign, but was left in his original command in Canada, while Burgoyne advanced to the South. Charlestown, near Boston, is regularly called "Charleston," and Dickinson is spelt "Dickenson."

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Mrs. Duff. By Joseph N. Ireland. With Illustrations. [American Actor Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. 188.

Great Artists of the American Stage: a Portrait Gallery of the leading Actors and Actresses of America, with Critical Biographies. By Alfred Trumble. New York: Richard K. Fox. Part I. 8vo, pp. 73.

Un Dossier: "La Fiammina" contre "Odette." Par Mario Uchard. 1882. Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.

Mémoirs de Samson, de la Comédie-Française, avec un portrait dessiné par G. Jacquet. 1882. Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern. 12mo, pp. xxi.-338.

L'Odéon: histoire administrative, anecdotique et littéraire du Second Théâtre-Français. Par Paul Porel et Georges Monval. Paris: Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern. Vol. I. (1782–1818). Pp. 355.—Vol. II. (1818–1853). Pp. 397. 1876, 1882.

Vor den Coulissen. Original Blätter von Celebritäten des Theaters und der Musik. Herausgegeben von Josef Lewinsky. Zweiter Band. Berlin: A. Hofmann & Co.; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1882.

Mr. Joseph N. Ireland is honored by all students of the history of the theatre in these United States as the author of the admirable 'Records of the New York Stage,' the two ample and accurate volumes of which come down to the end of 1860; and they cannot but wish that Mr. Ireland had preferred rather to give them a third volume, covering the score of years and all the changes between 1860 and 1880, than to tell anew and at length the story of the life of a single actress, even though she were as great an artist as Mary Duff. It is a curious commentary on the prevailing ignorance of the highly honorable history of the earlier American stage that the general reader, however fond he may be of the theatre, probably never heard of Mrs. Duff before. Hence Mr. Ireland's assertion that she was a great actress, the equal of Fanny Kemble and Charlotte Cushman, and unsurpassed by any who have come later, excepting only Rachel and Ristori, will take most persons by surprise. No one, however, who is versed in American histrionic memoirs can doubt that this assertion is well founded. Mrs. Duff was a great actress. As a woman she held on our stage a position like that held by Cooper as a man. But Cooper was a man, and with careless strength held his own to the end of his life; so it happens that some memory of him survives, though his biography is still unwritten. Mrs. Duff, was a woman lacking in self-assertion, and with a large family, and at the height of her powers she left the stage and hid herself in religious seclusion; so that recollection of her artistic powers naturally faded away. It is well that Mr. Ireland has taken such great pains to trace her career. His investigation has been thorough and his narrative is simple and straightforward. There is in it none of that convenient omission and ignoring of dates which make many theatrical biographies most exasperating. There are lists of parts acted by both Mr. and Mrs. Duff; there are two portraits of each; there is a facsimile of Mrs. Duff's autograph, and there is a view of the Federal Street Theatre, Boston, in which Mrs. Duff had many of her greatest triumphs. It may interest some not specially interested in the stage and in stage folk to be told that she was the elder sister of the Miss Elizabeth Dyke whom Tom Moore married, and that Mr. Ireland thinks it was Mrs. Duff, then Miss Mary Dyke, to whom the poet was first attracted, and to whom he addressed the well-known lines:

"Mary, I believed thee true."

A word of special praise is due to the very full and unusually accurate index provided by the editor of the series.

Mr. Trumble's pamphlet contains brief biographies of thirty actors and actresses seen of late years on the New York stage, accompanied by wood-cut portraits engraved from photographs; and it is apparently a reprint from some weekly paper. The photographs have been well chosen generally, and they are engraved boldly, if not delicately: most of them are good likenesses, though there are a few hopeless caricatures. The biographical sketches are not ill done, though they contain little that is new. In the main they are fairly accurate, but we observe a few unfortunate slips, like that on page 19, where Miss Clara Morris is said to have made a hit in the "Geneva Cross," in which the chief part was acted in reality by Miss Rose Eytinge. Misprints are also more frequent than they need be. "Coleman" for Colman, and "Monte Christo" for Cristo (both on p. 21), "John Hollinshed"

for Hollingshead (p. 34), "Sangarelli" for Sangalli, and "Woolcroft" for Moorcroft (p. 47), etc. We believe that the assertion (p. 60) that Mr. Bret Harte derived his play "Two Men of Sandy Bar" from his novel 'Gabriel Conroy' is wholly unfounded. But altogether Mr. Trumble's work is better than might be expected from its rather glaring and gaudy appearance.

M. Uchard's pamphlet is an accusation of plagiarism in due form. In it M. Sardou is charged with having taken the vital situations of "Odette" from "La Fiammina," and M. Uchard remarks that various critics have declared that "Divorçons" was inspired by "Brutus lâche César"—an old play known to the English stage in Charles Dance's very skilful adaptation called "Delicate Ground." M. Sardou has filed a plea of confession and avoidance: "Odette" is like "La Fiammina," but "La Fiammina" was like earlier plays, and he who seeks equity must come with clean hands. It is the same defence he has made when accused of borrowing the fundamental situation of other of his chief plays. But, in anticipation of this, M. Uchard brings forward a new battery. M. Sardou, he says, is ever complaining of English "adapters"; now, what is he but an adapter himself? And this, in fact, is just what Sardou is—an adapter, a contriver, an arranger, a maker-over of old coats; but so skilful is he and so brilliant is his new gilt embroidery that it takes a keen eye to detect the trick.

Although he was one of the most artistic and consummate comedians of the French stage, Samson is perhaps best remembered now as the trainer of Rachel. It was he who planned Rachel's best work; hers was but the unequalled execution. It is therefore with not a little disappointment that we find that Samson's memoirs break off abruptly just after Rachel came within his circle, and just as he was about to set forth in detail his relations with her and his opinion of her character and genius. We learn more of the way in which they toiled together over a part from M. Legouvé's lecture on "Samson et ses Élèves" than from these pages. But if we get little new light on the workings of one of the greatest histrionic geniuses of this century, we have none the less an interesting picture of the early struggles of Samson himself, both pecuniary and artistic. He was very slow in making his way, but he was sure. Not only had he no great natural advantages, but he had positive defects to overcome by force of will and by dint of hard work. Worse than all, he was timid—distrustful of his own powers and terribly afflicted with stage-fright. Yet he began in a small provincial theatre, and he ended the first comedian of the Théâtre-Français, a teacher at the Conservatory, and the instructor of Rachel, Mme. Allan, Mme. Plessy, the Brohans, and of many others who now hold a foremost rank on the French stage. Such a life was worth living, and the story of such a life is well worth reading.

The Odéon, one of the most important and one of the honorable theatres in Paris, is fortunate in its historians. M. Porel is an actor of marked ability, and he has for many years been attached to the theatre whose annals he now publishes; while M. Monval, who was also an actor at the Odéon when this book was planned and when the first volume was published in 1876, is now the archivist of the Comédie-Française and the founder and editor of *Le Moliériste*. When the third and final volume appears, the Odéon will have a history worthy of its reputation, for the work before us is exactly what a book of this sort should be. It does for one theatre of Paris what Mr. Ireland in his 'Records' did for all the theatres of New York; and the French book is very like the American in its method and in its merits. For some years after the erection of the building, the Odéon was occupied by the Comédie-Française, which there gave the famous and long-deferred first performance of the "Mariage de Figaro" of Beaumarchais, on Tuesday, April 27, 1784. At the Odéon, again, in 1824 and 1825, Weber's "Freischütz" and "Preciosa," fearfully mangled, were first presented to the Parisian public; and in 1827, the English actors, headed by Charles Kemble and Miss Smithson, began to introduce English tragedy to the French and to lend the mighty aid of Shakspere to the then slowly-gathering Romantic movement. The next year, Victor Hugo's first acted play was performed there and damned out of hand. It was an "Amy Robsart" imitated from Scott, and produced as though it were the work of M. Paul Foucher, the poet's brother-in-law. In 1843 and 1844 began, still at the Odéon, the reaction against the Romanticists by the so-called School of Common Sense, with the "Lucrèce" of Ponsard and the "Ciguë" of M. Augier; and here, finally, the first play of Alfred de Musset met with a noisy reception, and the first play of M. Octave Feuillet met with one scarcely less boisterous.

There are many humorous incidents narrated with due effect in the course of the history, but none is so comic, perhaps, as a little slip of the author's in printing the name of Mrs. Cowley's comedy as the "Bell's Stratagem," and in translating it accordingly—"Le Stratagème de la Cloche"! This is almost equal to the famous rendering of Cibber's "Love's Last Shift" as the "Dernière Chemise de l'Amour"! It remains to be added that this mistake is almost the only one we have noticed in the two volumes, and we can also report that each volume has an excellent index.

'Vor den Coulissen' is a collection of some forty articles, written by as many theatrical and musical celebrities. It is a second venture, the first volume consisting chiefly of sketches and essays by actors, while in the present issue musical artists and composers predominate. While it is creditable to the theatrical profession that so many of its members should give evidence of a considerable degree of literary culture, it must be confessed that, on the whole, the book is a disappointment, and does not keep the brilliant promise of its table of contents. One naturally expects much enjoyment from "Recollections of Schubert and Beethoven," by Franz Lachner; from "Reminiscences of My Life," by Flotow; from "A Meeting with Heine," by Friedrich Kücken; from "Jenny Lind," by Sir Julius Benedict; but the principal benefit to be derived from reading these tempting productions is an abiding conviction of the truthfulness of Sydney Smith's new beatitude. They all give evidence of having been made to order, and are correspondingly flat and bald. In the four articles just mentioned there is but a single passage worth quoting—a letter of Heine to Kücken, enclosing some new poems which the composer was to set to music. It may be necessary to mention that Kücken is a playful North German expression for chicken. The letter is as follows:

"My Dear Kücken:

"Here are some eggs for you to hatch; don't cackle over them too long, and let me hear from you soon. Yours, H. HEINE."

Kücken asked Heine why he did not write his articles in the French periodicals in French (of which he was a perfect master), instead of writing them in German and having them translated by Alexander Weil, the well-known author of Jewish village tales. Heine answered: "It is said that I write a good German style, and I should hate to spoil it. Weil does the business well, and I pay accordingly."

One of the most serious contributions is Rubinstein's proposal for the establishment of sacred opera, which may be defined to be a dramatic oratorio, or an operatic miracle-play. The distinguished pianist considers the entire species of the oratorio objectionable, and is greatly disturbed to see the grand personages of the Bible represented by gentlemen in dress-coats and white cravats, and ladies in extravagant evening dress. He would have such themes represented dramatically, with all the accessories of costume and scenery. While he rejects the popular notion that there is any sacrilege in producing sacred subjects on the stage, he would make such a concession to a widespread prejudice as to have a theatre specially devoted to this new kind of entertainment. This project has been his hobby for a quarter of a century, and he has made numerous efforts to carry it into execution, applying for aid in divers quarters, but always in vain. The Grand Duke of Weimar, to whom he suggested the idea, was of opinion that it could only be carried out in a large city; Mühler, the Prussian Minister of Public Worship, thought it might be applicable to subjects taken from the Old Testament, but not the New, and did not consider that the state should concern itself with such an undertaking; Dean Stanley advised that it be tried as a popular entertainment in a booth at a fair. The nearest approach to success was in this country, the chief obstacle being the lack of the musical talent to produce the entertainment. Undaunted by all his failures, Rubinstein has composed two sacred operas—"Paradise Lost" and "The Tower of Babel"; and is writing four more—"Cain and Abel," "Moses," "The Song of Songs," and "Christ."

There are some amusing passages in a description of a concert tour in the Caucasus in the winter of 1879–80, undertaken by Désirée Artôt, her husband, Mariano de Padilla, and the pianist Sternberg. In Kizliar, Mme. Artôt, who relates the story, was terrified when she stepped upon the stage and beheld the audience, clad, some in furs and some in immense shawls, wearing high bearskin caps on their heads, girt about with broad belts which had a big knife and a brace of pistols stuck in them, and holding lances in their hands. This audience manifested its applause by bellowing like wild beasts. Although programmes had been distributed, not a soul stirred when the concert was over. The artists were frightened. Mme. Artôl sang a few more airs. Still the audience remained seated. Her husband sang a few more airs. The audience howled with delight, but made no motion to go home. Then M. Sternberg sat down at the piano, and played without interruption till three in the morning. In another place, a half-savage fellow bought a ticket for five rubles. After the second number of the programme he walked out with tears in his eyes, went to the ticket-office and laid down a fifty-ruble note. "What is that for?" asked the manager. "For my ticket." "But you paid for your ticket." "Oh, no, sir," shaking his head; "I should be ashamed of myself to hear such great people for only five rubles."

An Amsterdam manager, A. van Lier, tells a good story of Marie Seebach, who played a star engagement at his theatre in 1855. On the way from Amsterdam to Leyden the actress lost her jewel case, containing valuables to the amount of 20,000 thalers. Her despair may be imagined, and it was with the greatest difficulty that she could be prevailed upon to go upon the stage that evening. The manager succeeded in recovering the lost treasure, and in doing so incurred an expense of thirty-eight guilders. When pay-day came he desired to deduct this amount from what was coming to Seebach. "See here, my friend," she said, "our agreement was to go

halves on this trip; I'll pay nineteen guilders, and you can pay the other half."

The longest article is a lecture delivered in Florence by Salvini, and treats of Hamlet, Macbeth, and Othello. Salvini's views of Shakspere are not unknown to American readers, and it is not necessary to examine them here; but it is curious to note what a singular blunder so clever a man may commit. He gives several reasons, none adequate, for the innovation he introduces, in the final scene of "Othello," of cutting his throat, instead of stabbing himself, as other actors do. One of the reasons is this speech of Othello:

> "I took by the throat the circumcisèd dog,
> And smote him—thus."

He argues from this that Shakspere intended that Othello should cut his throat. Now, leaving out of view the stage direction, "Stabs himself," which may be an unauthorized interpolation, and admitting that the word "smote" may be ambiguously translated in the Italian version, it would be interesting to have it explained how it is possible to cut the throat of a man whom one is holding by the throat. It would be, to say the least of it, an awkward and complicated operation, while to plunge a dagger into the breast of a man so held would be a natural and impulsive action.

It will indicate the cosmopolitan character of the book to mention that besides Salvini's contribution, it contains a lecture delivered at Edinburgh in November last by Henry Irving, on "The Stage as It Is," and a sketch of the German stage in New York, by Adolf Neuendorff, the manager of the Germania Theatre, who does not even mention the rival establishment, the Thalia Theatre—more successful, if not more important, than his own. The sad fortunes of the German opera in New York are briefly narrated by Mr. Max Goldstein, formerly the editor of a musical journal in this city, but now living in Berlin.

Guide to Moosehead Lake and Northern Maine. By Lucius L. Hubbard. 3d ed. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 1882.

Paddle and Portage. By G. W. Steele. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1882.

It is an odd fact that the art of getting away for a little from the complexities of modern life has more than kept pace with the development of those complexities. We have Horace's word for it that in his day Care scaled the brazen-prowed trireme; while every sportsman nowadays knows that Care never yet ventured to put foot in a birch canoe. It is much to be feared, however, that she will go with the crowd the moment the birch canoe becomes fashionable, and for that reason there are many people who are sorry that it ever occurred to Mr. Hubbard to write the guide-book whose title we give above. The thing being done, however, the jealous lovers of the Maine woods must reconcile themselves to the fact, and are at least bound in honor to admit that if their secrets must be revealed, it could not be by a more faithful hand. Mr. Hubbard's third edition shows unwearying work. A considerable amount of new matter has been added, dealing in particular with the extreme northern and northeastern parts of the State, and an additional map has been made which covers the headwaters of the St. John and Aroostook Rivers. The two beautifully printed maps now included in the Guide represent a prodigious amount of the most careful labor. A slighter addition, but one which will be welcome to amateurs, is to be found in the two pages of illustrations of the foliage and bark of the six most familiar evergreen trees. A feature which we shall hope to see further developed in later editions is the explanation of the meaning of Indian proper names, in which northern Maine is very rich.

Of quite a different character is Mr. Steele's 'Paddle and Portage,' the alliterative successor of his 'Canoe and Camera.' The new book purports to be a narrative of adventures on the trip from Moosehead Lake, Me., to the Aroostook River. These adventures are made to do service to their utmost capacity, the most effective of all being a moose-hunt in which no moose was seen, and the inflation by the guides of the rubber beds of the luxurious tourists. The narrative serves, however, as a thread upon which to string unnumbered stories and jests, of which material the writer appears to have so large a supply that one cannot help regretting that he should have found it necessary to repeat upon page 50 and illustrate over again by the engraver's art his jest upon the "wet and dry process of photography," from page 77 of 'Canoe and Camera.' Mr. Steele's nimble fancy should have been kept under some control for the sake of people who know the things he is writing about. He himself is, of course, perfectly well aware that his Indian guide, Thomas Nicholas, does not talk Indian English in real life as he does in Mr. Steele's book. He probably knows that no guide would draw up a canoe into such a place as one is seen to occupy in the illustrations upon pages 52 and 101, unless it were for the especial purpose of making a falsely effective foreground for a picture. He cannot believe in his own heart that even a party of novices without a guide would arrange for a carry as is shown in the monstrous illustration on page 43, where one may see a canoe placed upon a sled, another laid directly above that, with no other support, and two men seated, in absolute indifference to consequences, upon the upper canoe. And at any rate, whatever may be the impression which Mr. Steele is willing to convey in regard to his own knowledge of wood-lore, he ought not to represent his "comrade adventurer," Colonel G., who has a sportsman's reputation, as jerking a trout "which weighed above two pounds" high into air with a rod that bent "like a whip-lash."

A map prepared to accompany this book would naturally be a careful presentation of the country through which the trip was made. Instead of this, we find a map of all northern Maine from Moosehead Lake up. The region of the author's trip is given with much less detail than in Mr. Hubbard's new map, while the rest of the map abounds with errors. Towns and houses are placed on the wrong bank of rivers, or are removed miles from their true situation (see on the St. John River Savage's, Baker's Mills, Fort Kent, Edmundston, and the Edmundston block-house). Even for Moosehead Lake, the map is grossly wrong. Deer Island is placed far from its real position, and two islands are put down to the southwest of it which have no existence. Mount Kineo itself is twisted out of shape, and even the Kineo House is placed where it is not. The simple secret of all these errors is the fact that Mr. Steele copied his map, with scarcely a change, from the very inaccurate and now antiquated State map.

The style of the book is in admirable keeping with the illustrations and the map. The author finds it well to use italics thrice in a single page of preface; to use the word stimulate in place of the word produce; to speak of horses' snouts, etc., etc. A single sentence will illustrate the peculiar glow of his manner. Its meaning, as appears later, is that the Colonel and Mr. Steele took their guns and went off to shoot a partridge or two for their first supper. But Mr. Steele uses no such commonplace language. Under his pen this simple occurrence becomes: "And the Colonel and I, seizing our rifles, sauntered forth with sanguinary strides to decrease the population of the forest game in the interest of our first meal."

Notes Preparatory to a Biography of Richard Hayes McDonald, of San Francisco, Cal. Compiled and edited by his Eldest Child, Frank V. McDonald. Vol. I. Honour thy Father and thy Mother.—Ex. xx. 12. Cambridge: University Press. 4to, pp. xvii.–119.

The enormous size of the vegetable products of the Pacific Coast would appear, from this sumptuous volume, to have an analogy in the cultivation of the domestic virtues in that favored section. Mr. F. V. McDonald has already published three genealogical works on his father's family, and one on his mother's, and will have another quarto volume of 'Notes Preparatory' before arriving at his ultimate task of a Biography of his father, all the main incidents of whose life and a large number of the petty are related in the work before us. But why do we say ultimate? Dr. R. H. McDonald is still living, and it is not intimated that the Biography will be postponed till his death. When that event occurs, filial piety will certainly prompt another tome or tomes in memoriam. A small library will thus take the place of the modest memoir which, east of the Rocky Mountains, usually discharges a man's obligation to honor his father and his mother, even when they have been persons of eminence. Dr. McDonald's distinction consists in his having been the pioneer druggist in California, and in his being now the President of the Pacific Bank. From his predecessor in that office, ex-Governor Burnett, we have lately had some very interesting autobiographical 'Recollections'; and if his example has become a tradition and regulation of the bank, it is clear that that institution must be reckoned among the more important literary agencies of the land of gold.

Governor Burnett, however, was content with 448 pages duodecimo, and candor compels us to say that had Dr. McDonald written about himself in the first person, not only would the story have been much more valuable, but it would have occupied, it is safe to infer, scarcely one-quarter of the space allotted to it by his son. This defect of second hand is perhaps nowhere felt more than in the chapter relating to Dr. McDonald's practice among the Mormons at Nauvoo at the time of their expulsion. The editor, on his part, has taken considerable pains with this episode, whose relative importance in any rational biography of his father he has tacitly signified by giving in an appendix forty pages of extracts from various works on the Mormons. But still he has not succeeded in making a real contribution to the subject as his father might have made, and as Governor Burnett did make in recording his experience with the sect during its earlier lodgment in Missouri. The hardships of the overland journey in 1849, Dr. McDonald's first partnership in the business of dealing in emigrants' outfits, and squatter and gambling lawlessness, furnish occasion for graphic descriptions, and this has been well improved. We can also praise the interesting foot-note on page 84, which explains why Sacramento fell behind in the race with San Francisco. The editor is old enough to speak from personal recollection of the time when the American River had not begun to be filled up with silt from the mining sluices; and this incident in the development of California is worthy of a place in the late Mr. Marsh's 'Man and Nature.'

To a foreign reader Dr. McDonald's career will probably appear more eventful than to an American. He was a native of Kentucky, and his early years were passed in that State and in two adjoining, until the gold fever caused him

to embark, with a thousand other dissatisfied, invalid, or ambitious spirits, in the quest for laborious ease. He did not perish by the way, nor in the struggle for existence at the end, and his face shows him to be a typical American of the Western variety. We should hardly have supposed another volume necessary for the "preparatory notes" on his "family relations," his "life as husband and father" and as a "man among men" in the State of his adoption. But there can be no limit to filial reverence, and the means to gratify it in print seem in this case to be also illimitable. The numerous family portraits, on wood and steel, and the singularly chosen illustrations, of which "Indian Summer" may be taken as a specimen, leave no doubt as to the pecuniary backing of this unusual enterprise. As to the genealogical part, this line is doubtless traced from Brian McDonald who settled in New Castle County, Del., and died in 1707. It is here stated that he was from Wicklow, Ireland, had been one of the supporters of James II., and, above all, that he was descended from the Mac Donnells of Leinster, a branch of the Lords of the Isles. Pedigrees are proverbially problematical, but we never feel sure that the Irishmen believe in their own pretended records. Lists of names without evidences of any description, without a single point on which to fix a distinguishing mark, are as worthless as the columns of a herd-book. But as we have not yet read the fuller genealogy also issued by Mr. MacDonald, perhaps we do him less than justice.

We cheerfully comply with the editor's request to mention that the work has been placed in the leading libraries of the country and in the British Museum.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Tight Squeeze; or, The Adventures of a Gentleman as a Professional Tramp. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Cook, B. F. History of the Twelfth Massachusetts Volunteers (Webster Regiment). Boston: Twelfth Regiment Association.
Craik, Georgiana M. Fortune's Marriage. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
DeBeer, T. H., and Irving, Elisabeth J. The Literary Reader. Part 2, Nineteenth Century. 2d ed. Kullerburg: Blom & Olivierse.
Delbrück, B. Introduction to the Study of Language. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xxxvi. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 31, 1882.

The Week.

COLLECTOR DANIELLS, of the Oswegatchie District, has just been removed, in the middle of his term, without cause, which is not what the civil-service doctrines of the President's Message led us to expect, but is quite consistent with the general contempt displayed by the Stalwart faction for their own professions on all matters connected with the civil service. Moreover, it will continue, like all political abuses, until it meets with punishment at the polls. Collector Daniells was, we believe, an officer without reproach, and his removal is, according to the local papers, meant as "punishment" for Congressman Parker for going to Albany to lobby against the reëlection of Conkling and Platt, and for the State Senator and County Assemblymen for "carrying out the wishes of their constituents in the matter," and for divers other persons supposed to be Mr. Russell's patrons or backers. But then as long as such occurrences are resented on these grounds solely or mainly, we shall have no improvement. If we object to the arbitrary removal of an officer because it "punishes" some politician, we acquiesce in the whole spoils system. The real objection, and the only one that will hold water, to turning officers out of their places without cause is, that it is an offence against the people of the United States, and injurious to their business. As long as Senators and Assemblymen can be "punished" by removals, it will be done, when their enemies get into power, as part of the little game which political factions play with each other.

The humor of Hubbell's performances as an assessor of officeholders is heightened by the fact that the practice seems to be spreading among all who in any way "influence" appointments. Mahone, of Virginia, for instance, having had the Federal patronage in Virginia placed at his disposal, seems to think that this gives *him* the right of assessment. Accordingly he has issued a circular assessing the Virginia officeholders five per cent., in addition to Hubbell's two per cent., making a "voluntary contribution" of $84 on a clerk's salary of $1,200—an enormous sum to take from a poor man for any purpose, without authority of law. There is no good reason now, under the spoils theory, why individual members of Congress should not assess officeholders for whom they have procured places, or indeed sell their "influence" openly for a fixed sum to be used in procuring their reëlection. It is, however, pleasant to witness the rapidity with which the system is running into wild and ridiculous excess. Congress must interfere to stop it, as it is assuming the character of simple plunder, against which officers will have to recoup themselves, as in Turkey, by fraud and embezzlement. The demand of the Michigan Democrats, in their platform, that the practice be made felony, is really neither untimely nor extravagant, whether it be sincere or not.

Like Mahone, Cameron's State Committee ferrets out all those who owe their appointment to Pennsylvania "influence," warns them of "what must prove a great battle with the Democratic party," hands them the hat, and assures them of its belief that they will esteem it "both a privilege and a pleasure" to drop in not less than the two per cent. aforesaid. "Such voluntary contribution," the Committee facetiously remark, in the now stereotyped phrase, "will not be objected to in any official quarter." But it is high time the public were told, from the only official quarter worth taking into account, at what percentage his objection will begin; for though there is a considerable margin between seven or even four per cent. and one hundred, President Arthur must be aware that the principle of these exactions would justify an indefinite encroachment on the salary of the political appointee. If fifty per cent. would not trouble his conscience from a moral and legal point of view, four per cent. should be quite enough to shock his feelings as a kind-hearted and sympathetic man.

Although the Bank of England's posted discount rate remains 4 per cent., the actual discount rate in London advanced during the week to near the posted rate. The Bank of Belgium put its discount rate up to 4½ per cent. Exchange at New York on London advanced during the week to near the gold-exporting point, and $300,000 gold was actually shipped. The exports of domestic merchandise from this country were very large during the week, but this had little influence on the market for foreign bills, for the reason that in the drawing of bills these exports had been anticipated. The foreign-exchange market may, however, on any day decline sharply, and there is no fear of any significant gold exports. The Treasury continues to take in more money than it pays out, and some currency has been sent during the week from New York to interior cities. Altogether, however, the statement of the New York banks for the week was less unfavorable than was expected; they still hold a surplus reserve of $1,131,025, where a year ago they lacked $2,568,025 of the 25 per cent. reserve required by law, and the rate for demand loans did not rise above 5 per cent., except momentarily. The United States Treasury officials were busy during the week in exchanging 3½ per cent. bonds for the new 3 per cents, and it is expected that the Treasury will shortly issue a call for the redemption of $15,000,000 more 3½ per cents. The news respecting the harvests continues encouraging, and everything promises a sound and profitable autumn trade. The passenger agents of the trunk-lines early in the week agreed upon a schedule of differential rates between Chicago, St. Louis, and Cincinnati, and New York and Boston, to take effect September 1. On the same day, also, the advanced rates of the Southern Railway pool go into effect. The new trunk-line from Buffalo to Chicago, which parallels the Lake Shore, and which is entitled the New York, Chicago and St. Louis Railway was opened for business during the week. At the Stock Exchange it was a week of declining prices, until near the close, when a part of the decline was recovered.

It seems that the prohibition agitation in the West is alarming both the Republican and Democratic managers at Washington. In some of the Congressional districts the temperance organizations are working against both parties, and upsetting all calculations. They have no doubt been greatly encouraged by their recent success in Iowa, where a constitutional amendment forbidding the sale of liquor has been passed; and there are plenty of indications, of which the most recent is that furnished by the Convention which adjourned last week at Chicago, that they will soon make their demands heard very plainly at Washington. The Chicago Convention adopted a good many resolutions which have nothing to do with temperance or prohibition; but its real object was to organize a national party, for the purpose of securing the absolute prohibition of the manufacture and traffic in liquor. The two resolutions which relate to this subject are as follows:

> We declare in favor of the following national principles and measures, to be incorporated in the national Constitution and enforced by Congress and the Government:
>
> I. The prohibition, as public crimes, of the importation, exportation, manufacture, sale, and supply and taxation of all alcoholic beverages.
>
> II. The prohibition of tax, license, regulation, or legal sanction in any form of them, or any other public crimes.

It will be seen that the legislation which this plan calls for is very comprehensive. It is not merely that the Prohibitionists demand that the Constitution should be amended so as to make the manufacture and sale of liquor a crime, but they would prevent also the raising of any revenue from it, and propose to strike at the roots of all state license laws, which would, of course, be simply void, after the adoption of the amendments, as being in conflict with the Constitution.

We have looked in vain, however, through the proceedings of the Convention for any indication that the Prohibitionists perceive that the great difficulty with which they have to contend is not legislative. What they undertake to do is not merely to pass laws to prohibit, but actually to break up, the business. Yet the means required to do this are seldom or never discussed by them. It is assumed at all the conventions that making it criminal and subjecting those who engage in it to statutory penalties, is all that is asked. Fifty years ago it may have been fair enough to assume this; but after all the experiments that have been made, and all the failures that have resulted, it can hardly be considered so any longer. Liquor is sold as openly in Maine to-day as it was before the Maine Law was heard of, and in Massachusetts, where a special constabulary was orga-

nized for the purpose of keeping the bars closed, the work was only accomplished for a time. The public would not endure the stringency of the law, and repealed it. In the Western States which have adopted constitutional amendments on the subject, the traffic goes on, according to the latest accounts, much the same as before. It can hardly be that the Prohibitionists are really satisfied with this state of things, and their determination to make the matter a national issue shows that they are not. But as they are going into national politics, it is highly important that they should consider and let the public know what precise means they intend to take to carry out their scheme. When they have got their constitutional amendments adopted, they have still to meet the old difficulty of enforcement. The question is something like that of "abolishing polygamy." Would they employ troops? Would they break up all liquor-shops by means of a national police, and throw the "rum" into the streets? What would they do?

At a Boston session of the Tariff Commission Mr. H. O. Houghton, of the publishing firm of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., gave some novel reasons for objecting to any reduction of the twenty-five per cent. duty on books. Authors, he said, "are likely to reside at the centres of the manufacture of books," and, "if the duty were removed, the manufacture of books for this market would largely be in Germany and England. This would compel the residence of even American authors to a very large extent abroad. We all know how much any person is influenced by the locality in which he resides, and this fact cannot fail to show itself in the character of the books written by such authors. The readers of books in this country are very largely young persons, and our institutions, both political and religious, and our modes of thought, are radically different from those abroad. The effect, therefore, of removing this duty would be, primarily, the manufacture of American books abroad; secondarily, their teaching principles of politics and religion and modes of thought alien to the theory of our institutions." It is easy to see that the effects of the removal of the duty would not stop here. As soon as a new generation of Americans became thoroughly steeped in "modes of thought alien to the theory of our institutions" the next step would be to attempt to undermine these. European modes of thought would be fatal to their permanence, and Europeanization of America is inevitable if the duty on books is not maintained. Thus not only the future of letters in the United States, but that of freedom and progress throughout the world, hinges upon the retention of the duty on books. Now that the danger is pointed out, it will, we suppose, be avoided; but some means ought to be taken to insure its being kept permanently in view. Mr. Houghton's argument ought to be preserved, and the young should be made familiar with it as early as possible. All children are taught that vigilance is the price of liberty, but the maxim is open to the charge of vagueness, which could never be brought against Mr. Houghton's substitute that the price is simply a twenty-five per cent. duty on books. Nothing short of twenty-five will do, it should be remembered. Ten, or fifteen, or even twenty would be equally fatal, and we cannot afford to run any risk about freedom.

The renewed discussion as to the character of Mr. Conkling's legal practice can hardly be altogether satisfactory to his clients. It seems as if no certain conclusion could be arrived at about it. When he abandoned politics and returned to the bar, some lawyers maintained that he had as lucrative a business as any man in New York, and it was stated that a leading firm had offered him a guaranteed income of $50,000, his refusal of which was a pretty sure indication that he counted on making more. Other lawyers maintained that he had not a client in the world, and, moreover, was no lawyer, and that when he appeared in court and attempted to argue a point of law he cut such a ridiculous figure that the whole court had great trouble not to roar with laughter. A dispute as to whether a man is a leader of the bar or is unfit to argue a case, is a very singular one, and we do not remember one like it in the history of his profession. The dispute now as to the character of his practice is not less singular. There is no doubt that he was retained by the Elevated Railroad to make an argument before Governor Cornell on the Tax Bill, but the reason why he was retained is involved in mystery. According to Jay Gould, the Governor asked that he be retained because otherwise his (the Governor's) mind could not be satisfied on certain constitutional points. On the other hand, the Governor's organ declares that Mr. Conkling was retained by Jay Gould to bribe him. Mr. Conkling's friends say, of course, that this, with a man of his lofty integrity, is impossible. But for all that the effect on his practice cannot be good. When there is some doubt as to the nature and extent of a man's practice, to have the judge before whom he argues suddenly denounce him for attempting bribery, must be disheartening to clients. If they like bribery, they must wish it to succeed; if they dislike it, they cannot be pleased at having their lawyer accused by the judge of trying to corrupt him. No firm would like to guarantee $50,000 a year to a lawyer whose practice produced such queer results.

The Free-thinkers have been holding a national convention at Watkins Glen, in this State, and a very considerable body of delegates was assembled, representing most of the Northern and some of the Southern States and Canada. The subject of establishing a Free-thought university was brought up for discussion, and a committee, with "Bob" Ingersoll at its head, appointed to see what can be done toward establishing such an institution. That the Free-thinkers should imagine it to be an easy thing to establish a university of this sort would not be unnatural, because in this country, as a general thing, there is nothing, except starting a newspaper, which is so simple. The United States fairly swarms with institutions of learning of this kind, the very names of which are unknown to almost everybody but those who have graduated at them. We have ten or a dozen universities to every one in England, France, or Germany. These institutions, however, have generally been connected with religion in some way. Some of them were originally, like Harvard and Yale, denominational in character, and gave the Church a share in their government; all of them have recognized religion in some way. The attempt, therefore, to set up an agnostic or infidel university is different from those which have been made heretofore. It must be, of course, an institution designed for the education of youth as well as for the propagation of atheistic opinions. If we understand their platform, it is that the great hindrance to the moral elevation of the race at present is the Bible and a belief in God, and consequently one great object of the university must be the establishment and preservation and inculcation of a true atheistic morality. The idea is a novel one, and, however true and sound it may be, the experiment will be watched with jealousy and suspicion by the religious world, and even by a large part of the free-thinking world. The free-thinking parent's view of religion generally is that, however little foundation there may be for it, it has the great advantage in education of supplying a simple and intelligible foundation for morality, and this he likes to make sure of for his children. Now the Free thinkers propose to supply morality by destroying religion; in fact, they insist that this is the only way to make sure of morality. It will be curious to see what new means they will take to secure their end.

The judicial investigation of the Keely-motor secret has come to a very extraordinary end. The company, which has spent some $150,000 to enable the inventor to carry on his experiments, applied to the courts to make him disclose the nature of his invention, and patent it. William Boekel was agreed upon by all concerned as the man to receive the secret, and he has now filed his report. He declares "unhesitatingly" that Mr. Keely has discovered a "new force or motive power," which he also describes as "a substance evolved by him through the instrumentality of his structure." This substance, he says, is a "vaporic" or "theric" force, and "possesses properties peculiar to itself," and "wholly phenomenal in character"; in which respect it seems to resemble the language used to describe it. He adds that Mr. Keely has so far perfected his invention as to entitle him to take out a patent. Still, the subject involves "the study and application of vibratory forces," and is one requiring "time, patience, and closest attention, both on the part of the inventor and investigator, to enable the one to perfect its utilization, or either to give such technical description thereof as to meet the requirements of the law, as the condition of obtaining valid letters patent," and he does not yet feel that the time has come to make the application. The stockholders, therefore, seem to be in much the same position as they were before they filed their bill. They might, of course, insist that some time should be fixed within which a patent should be applied for; but no estimate of this can be made without some knowledge of what the "force" is, and the resources of language do not seem to be adequate to convey this from one mind

to another. Mr. Boekel has as rich a vocabulary as any scientist in the world, and yet what he says is unintelligible. This is a difficulty which the framers of our patent laws never anticipated.

We trust that the report of the meeting of the trustees and subscribers of the Irish "Skirmishing Fund," which appeared in the papers on Monday, will fall under the eyes of Sir William Harcourt, the British Home Secretary. If it does, it cannot but bring him a peace which he has not known for a year or two. It might also bring relief to the numerous English writers who have been demanding the interference of the United States Government with the Irish advocates of dynamite in this country. O'Donovan Rossa has now long been a shape of dread to the British Home Office. He has been often referred to in Parliament as an excuse for all sorts of interferences with the liberty of the subject in Ireland. When the Parnellites or the Radicals objected to any proposed curb on the Irish press or the Home Rule orators, Mr. Forster or Sir William Harcourt used to put them down by reading a passage from the works of Rossa, or from the columns of the *Irish World*, which sent a tremor through the English benches, and made all further debate seem idle. It is true that Rossa's threats have been very dreadful, and we have no doubt he would have liked to execute them; but it now appears that he never was willing to spend any money on them. The "Skirmishing Fund" was for some time in his hands, and much of it disappeared in that interval, and none of it, it would seem, was put into warlike preparations of any kind. Two thousand dollars went, he says, toward the construction of a "ram" for the destruction of the British Navy, but he declines to state how far the work was carried forward for this amount, and there is much reason to believe that it was spent on "stores," and particularly on rum, for her prospective crew. He acknowledges, however, that he spent $2,000 more on "the funeral of O'Mahony," which we think a moderate amount, considering how attractive funerals must be to a man of Rossa's festive nature. He managed to turn over about $90,000 to new trustees who were appointed to take charge of the fund, under the pressure of indignation excited among the subscribers by the continuance of British commercial prosperity, so to speak, under their very noses.

These trustees, in their turn, have now been called on for an account, and have none to render. It is impossible to say whether there is any money left, or, if spent, what it has been spent on. The subscribers are accordingly very angry, and there was some talk at the meeting of inflicting "capital punishment" on the trustees; but pending this, a committee was appointed to get an explanation from them. It is but reasonable to suppose that the money which these amusing charlatans raise and squander is collected from the later emigrants. It is hardly possible that any of the Irish who have sense enough to earn and save money, give twice to any of these funds. The Fenian funds were all grossly misappropriated, and the lesson must have been sufficient for one generation. The "Skirmishing Fund" must have come from a new batch of simpletons. It is on their behalf, rather than on that of Great Britain, that our Government should interfere, if at all, with the performances of Rossa and the *Irish World*. It is quite certain that neither is disposed to waste good money on rams or dynamite in a city which contains so much good whiskey and such fine provision markets as New York.

The insubordination and threatened strike of the Irish constabulary is a new and serious phase of the Irish trouble, and is likely to rob the Ministry of a good deal of their well-earned holiday. The force numbers nearly 12,000 men, and has really constituted the garrison as well as the police of Ireland for fifty years, and does work which it would take three times the number of regular troops to do. Moreover, although the men are all Irish, and almost all Catholic, their fidelity to the Government has never until now been shaken; and, strange to say, they have until now managed to keep on good terms with the people, although constantly aiding the sheriff in carrying out evictions. Their duties during the past two years have been exceedingly trying, involving in some districts all the hardships of active service in the field; and yet they have not flinched or murmured. These services have been recognized, first, in the peculiarly English way, by having the word "Royal" stuck on to the name of the force, and then by a vote of extra compensation. The pay has also been increased, but this was due to the increased difficulty of keeping the ranks full. What is the cause of the trouble now pending is not very clear. As the men were apparently satisfied with the money bonus, it seems as if there had been some bad management in the way of arbitrary acts or overbearing language on the part of superior officers. After the first revolt had been quieted, an apparent attempt to single out six of the ringleaders for a mild sort of punishment again roused the ire of the men, and resignations on a large scale are going in; the police on duty in the city of Limerick have abandoned their posts, and a general strike is threatened.

The crisis thus created is, perhaps, as serious as anything the Government has had to face in Ireland within fifty years. It cannot now concede very much, because concessions to an armed force, extorted by a strike or mutiny, would, of course, be fatal to all discipline in the future. Moreover, it is exceedingly doubtful whether, if the present constables were dismissed, it would be possible to fill their places with Irishmen who would be worth much as police. Only inferior men would accept a kind of employment which had become surrounded with popular odium, and any men who took it would take it with the consciousness that they had their employers in their power. A police force animated by this feeling would, of course, be worthless and worse than worthless. In default of Irishmen, it might be composed of Englishmen; but their appearance would probably excite so much hostility that when scattered in small parties all over the country, their time would be taken up in the protection of their own lives. The trouble may be got over for the moment, in spite of the pains which the Home Rulers are doubtless taking to egg the men on into desertion, but it will only be got over, as we have said, with serious injury to the discipline of the force, which is the same thing as saying that it will only be postponed. It is trouble which, apparently by a wise dispensation of Providence, is always in store, and is sure to come, for any Government which prolongs greatly the experiment of meeting popular disaffection with armed force, whether the force be native or foreign.

Sir Garnet Wolseley, feeling his way along the railroad toward Tel-el-Kebir, on Thursday moved out with about 2,000 men a distance of seven miles, and, after some skirmishing, found himself in front, he says, of a force of about 10,000 men, largely brought up from Tel-el-Kebir by train. In spite of the disparity of numbers, however, he thought it best to stand his ground, and appears to have played at long bowls with the enemy all day, suffering only a few casualties. On the following day Wolseley attacked a camp of the enemy at the Mahsama Station, on the railroad, about half way to Tel-el-Kebir, and appears to have completely routed them, taking five guns and seventy-five railroad cars laden with provisions, and inflicting considerable loss in men. As this was done mainly with the cavalry, the horses of which are not yet in condition, it speaks ill for the assistance Arabi is getting from the Bedouins. If stories told about the way they have been flocking to his standard were one-quarter true, he ought to have now a swarm of admirable light cavalry, which would have rendered the operation at Mahsama impossible, and the march across the desert, which Wolseley says the infantry bore so very well, difficult, in the present condition of the English horses. Arabi's time to strike a blow was during the days of confusion following the British landing, and he has let it slip.

He has, however, in spite of the loss of Fehmy Pasha, his military adviser, who is a prisoner in the hands of the British, attempted to make up for his supineness during the last fortnight by striking a blow at Kasassin, about ten miles east of Tel-el-Kebir, but has been repulsed with the loss of eleven guns. That this has been his best effort is shown by the loss of the British, which, though only 120 men, killed and wounded we presume, is the largest the Egyptians have yet been able to inflict in one affair. Whether Arabi would have done any better if Wolseley's move to the Canal had not taken him by surprise, it is, of course, useless to speculate. He will probably now be driven into Cairo, if he does not escape into Tripoli from Alexandria. That the rising of the Nile will do him much good is an error, because he is no more aquatic than the British, and cannot keep an army together in an inundated country. The greatest danger now is that he may serve Cairo, which has some priceless treasures, both archæological and architectural, as he served Alexandria, by giving it up to his defeated army.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 22, to TUESDAY, August 29, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR has been spending the week in pleasure at Newport, R. I., where he has been the guest of ex-Governor E. D. Morgan. On Wednesday he attended a grand review at Fort Adams. In the afternoon there was a reception at Governor Morgan's residence. On Thursday the Presidential party visited the Torpedo Station at Newport, and was shown the appliances of modern warfare. There was a reception at Oaklawn in honor of the President on Friday, and a formal dinner at Governor Morgan's in the evening. He gave a one-hour reception at the Ocean House on Monday, and on Tuesday attended a private dinner.

Assessment agents of the Hubbell Congressional Committee visited the departments at Washington last week, and systematically "worked" them for election contributions. The chief clerks were visited, and permission was asked to call on the clerks. When this was granted, the agents, who have complete lists showing who have and who have not subscribed, called on the delinquent clerks and asked for two per cent. of their salaries. This demand was generally complied with in cash or a promise to pay on the next pay-day. A second circular letter has also been addressed to delinquent officeholders in other cities, asserting that the Congressional Committee "cannot hope to succeed in the pending struggle if those most directly benefited by success are unwilling or neglect to aid in a substantial manner." Federal officeholders from Virginia are also receiving a circular, calling on them for a contribution of five per cent., to support the Readjuster movement in that State. The regular Republican Committee of Pennsylvania has called upon those Government employees at Washington who secured their appointments from Pennsylvania for two per cent. of their salaries for the State campaign.

In the anti-Cornell struggle which is going on among the politicians of this State a great deal has been effected during the week. The sentiment against the Governor's renomination has increased with great rapidity. Still, the majority of the delegates elected by the district conventions to the State Convention seem, thus far, to favor him. The Governor has had a conversation with a representative of the New York *Times*, which was published on Saturday, and in it some of the charges against him are partly explained. He admits that the Albany *Journal's* article against Mr. Conkling grew out of a conversation of the editor with him, but he denies that he ever said that Mr. Conkling had attempted to bribe him. He adds: "I do say that I did believe, and had every assurance, and I believe still, had I been pliant to the wishes of Messrs. Gould and Conkling in the matter of the Elevated Tax Bill, I should have, if not their support, at least not their opposition." As to the charge that he borrowed money from the American District Telegraph Company, while one of its officers, he admits it, but asserts that it was secured by District Telegraph stock worth double the amount, and was soon repaid. He denies the charge that he managed the "blind pool" dishonorably, and declares that although made up on paper, it never went into effect. James W. Wadsworth, a Representative in Congress from western New York, is prominently mentioned as a suitable candidate for the Governorship.

Tammany Hall's attitude in the approaching campaign in this State is a question of considerable importance. Mr. John Kelly said, in an interview on Wednesday, that it was as yet undecided whether or not they would send delegates to the regular Democratic Convention at Syracuse. He continued: "What treatment such a delegation would receive at the hands of the Democratic Convention no one can tell; but this much is certain, that Tammany Hall is stronger now than it was a year ago, and unless these selfish rulers who now control the machinery of the Democratic party wilfully abandon all hope of victory, they will admit the Tammany delegation, or at least afford them some recognition. . . . If we do not decide to send a delegation to Syracuse, or if we send such a delegation and they are not received, then we shall hold a city convention, and probably endorse the ticket nominated by the Anti-Monopolists."

The National Prohibition Convention met in Chicago on Wednesday. About 300 delegates were present. An animated debate occurred over a set of motions to add the names of certain women to the committees. All were laid upon the table, except the motion to add Miss Frances Willard to the Committee on Resolutions. The session was concluded on Thursday, after the adoption of a platform declaring in favor of the following principles and measures to be incorporated in the national Constitution: Absolute prohibition of the manufacture or sale of all alcoholic beverages; the abolition of polygamy; the abolition of all forms of official patronage; compulsory education; preservation of public lands; abolition of monopolies; and regulation of railroads. The woman-suffrage question was remitted to the party in the several States.

At the Democratic State Convention in Michigan, on Wednesday, a proposition for fusion with the Greenbackers was carried, and half of the eight nominations were given to their representatives, including the Governor. Josiah W. Begoll was nominated for Governor, and Eugene Pringle for Lieutenant-Governor. A platform containing civil-service reform and free-trade planks was adopted. The River and Harbor Bill, in so far as it made appropriations for objects not of national importance, was disapproved.

An Independent Republican ticket has been nominated in Maine, and a platform adopted which demands a reform of the civil service, faithful execution of the liquor and Sunday laws in the State, strict economy in the expenditure of public money, and the reduction of taxes. It opposes Machine politics of every form.

A Trade and Labor Convention, held in Philadelphia on Monday, endorsed the Greenback nomination of Mr. T. A. Armstrong for Governor.

In Texas the Republican Convention opened with 410 delegates, on Wednesday, 250 of whom were negroes. A platform was adopted pledging the support of the party to the Independents.

The Missouri Republican State Committee have decided not to call a Convention, but a call will be issued independent of them in a few days.

The Arizona Republicans held a Territorial Convention on Wednesday, and nominated Judge De Forest Porter as delegate to Congress. The platform favors smaller Indian appropriations, and approves of disarming the tribes.

The Democrats of Delaware have nominated C. C. Stockley for Governor.

A large number of Congressional nominations have been made during the week. There is a split in the Republican party ranks in a Louisiana district, in which Senator Kellogg is one of the candidates, and in Congressman Houk's district in Tennessee. Hannibal C. Carter, a negro, has declared himself a "Straight-out" Republican candidate for Congress in the Second District of Mississippi, against Chalmers, the Independent.

It is asserted by a respectable negro voter of Alabama, and confirmed by a white lawyer, that the story of a plot of the negroes of Choctaw County to murder all the whites in the county is a fabrication, put in circulation as an excuse for the hanging of a negro who was an active Republican.

The American Association of Science opened its annual session in Montreal on Thursday. The attendance of delegates from all parts of the United States and Canada was very large. The retiring President, Prof. George J. Brush, delivered an address on "The Progress of American Mineralogy." Dr. Dawson, of Montreal, is the new President. Four hundred of the delegates made an excursion to Quebec on Saturday.

The American Forestry Congress held a session in Montreal during several days last week. It adjourned on Wednesday, to meet next year probably at St. Paul, Minn.

A Convention of Free-thinkers was held at Watkins Glen, N. Y., during the week. Among the business transacted was the adoption of a decalogue, and the appointment of a committee to consider the matter of the establishment of a Liberal University somewhere in the United States, and to report at the next annual meeting.

The Tariff Commission held sessions in Boston for several days last week. Representatives of many industries appeared before them and presented pleas for the regulation of duties.

In the Star-route trial at Washington the arguments are drawing to a close. On Wednesday Mr. McSweeny concluded his facetious argument for the defence. On Thursday Mr. Merrick began his address for the prosecution. In his opening remarks he demanded the conviction of the Dorseys, Miner, Vaile, Rerdell, and Brady, but frankly expressed a doubt as to Turner's knowledge of the secrets of the conspiracy, and his consequent guilt. His argument was one of the most effective of the trial. He concluded on Monday, and was succeeded by Mr. Wilson for the defence.

The drawing for the allotment of the new three per cent. bonds was begun at the Treasury Department at Washington on Friday.

Mr. Chandler, Secretary of the Navy, continued his tour of inspection of the Navy-yards along the coast, in the *Tallapoosa*, during the week. Newport was visited on Wednesday. He formally accepted Coaster's Harbor Island for the United States on Saturday.

Rains in the West have improved the corn prospects, but have created considerable anxiety for the safety of the wheat yet in shock. An expert who has investigated the corn crop in Nebraska says that, if permitted to mature, it will be the largest ever produced there.

Fishery Inspector Kiel, of Kingston, Ontario, has stopped Americans fishing in Canadian waters, on penalty of having their boats seized.

Every effort is being made to prevent the spread of yellow fever in Texas. A sanitary cordon from Corpus Christi to Laredo is being enforced by the customs authorities. The Post-office Department has issued orders for the fumigation of all mails in that district. There is a decrease in the number of new cases at Matamoras, Mexico. At Brownsville there are more than 100 victims of the disease. One case has appeared at Pensacola, Fla.

Doctor Woodward, of the United States Army, one of President Garfield's physicians, is in very bad health in Europe, and has received no benefit from his trip.

Doctor Bliss, President Garfield's chief physician, has presented a bill to the Board of Audit, which has charge of the expenditure for the President's illness, for $25,000. He estimates that his services cost him fully $15,000 in loss of practice during the time he was attending the President, and thinks that he should, in addition, receive reasonable compensation for his professional services.

Ex-Governor Sprague, of Rhode Island, prevented the purchaser of "Canonchet," his mansion, from taking possession, on Friday, by having a force of armed men posted at all the approaches to the grounds.

There was an explosion and fire in the Erie Railway Company's elevator, at Buffalo, on Thursday night. Five lives were lost, and more than $400,000 of property and grain destroyed.

Forty persons were drowned at Ben Ficklin, Texas, on Thursday, by an inundation.

Richard B. Garland, who killed a young man named Addison, in a lovers' duel, near Lunenburg, Va., recently, was acquitted of the charge of murder on Thursday. The jury only deliberated about fifteen minutes.

A picnic held at Chicago on Wednesday, for the purpose of raising funds to build a monument to the memory of John Brown, was a failure in a pecuniary point of view. Only 300 persons were present, including Mrs. Brown.

William Boekel, who was agreed upon by the Keely Motor Company and John W. Keely, of Philadelphia, to receive the inventor's secrets, has filed a report in the Court of Common Pleas in that city, in which he asserts that Mr. Keely has undoubtedly discovered a new force or motive power, and that it possesses properties peculiar to itself and wholly phenomenal, and therefore requires much time and patience before it can be mastered. He will continue his investigations until he is able to construct one of the motors without the assistance of the inventor.

The Rev. George W. Musgrave, D.D., LL.D., one of the most prominent clergymen in the Presbyterian Church, died in Philadelphia on Thursday, at the age of seventy-eight. He was a trustee of Princeton College and a director of the Theological Seminary. He was one of the most earnest supporters of the movement which resulted in the reunion of the Old and New-School Presbyterians in 1870.

Charles Mallory, the well-known shipbuilder and shipping merchant, died suddenly at his home in Mystic, Conn., on Saturday morning, at the age of eighty-five. His property is estimated at $1,000,000. His son is the head of the firm which controls the Mallory line of steamships, of this city.

FOREIGN.

General Wolseley has carried on the campaign in Egypt during the week with great activity and gratifying success. By Wednesday evening the British forces held the Suez Canal throughout its entire length. On that day the water in the fresh-water canal at Ismaïlia began to fall perceptibly, and it soon became apparent that Arabi had diverted its course. A notice was immediately issued requesting economy in the use of water. Nineteen Greeks who were pillaging in the Arab quarter there were arrested on Wednesday, and ten were shot. On Thursday General Wolseley began a rapid march from Ismaïlia into the interior. A false report was telegraphed to Alexandria, on that day, that Tel-el-Kebir, with 2,000 prisoners, had been captured. While the Household Cavalry were on the march, on Thursday, they were shelled by the enemy with some effect. Sunstroke has caused a number of deaths among the British soldiery. A despatch was received by the British War Office on Friday, from General Wolseley, giving the details of an engagement at Magfar on Thursday, in which he held his ground the whole day against 10,000 Egyptians. His force numbered 2,000. He said: "I advanced this morning before daybreak with the Household Cavalry, two horse-artillery guns, thirty mounted infantry, 1,000 men from the York and Lancaster regiment, and the marines. After some skirmishing I took possession of the dam which the enemy had constructed across the canal between the villages of Magfar and Mahuta. During the operations two squadrons of the Household Cavalry charged the enemy's broken infantry very gallantly. I soon found that the enemy were being largely reinforced from Tel-el-Kebir. All day long I have had an Egyptian force of 10,000 men, with ten guns, in my front and on my right flank. The precision of the enemy's artillery fire was very good, but fortunately they fired common shell nearly all day, and when they did fire shrapnel their fuses were badly adjusted. Our horses, having been recently on board ship, were not in condition to gallop much. The two horse-artillery guns were served with pluck and ability. Our casualties have been slight." On Friday evening he again telegraphed that he had pushed on again at daybreak. He said: "The force at my disposal this morning was the First Division and all the English cavalry, with sixteen guns. My intention was to pivot on my left at the dam we took yesterday, and swing round my right to take the enemy's position in the flank and drive them into the fresh-water canal, sending the cavalry completely round their position to occupy the railway in their rear, and, if possible, capture their engines and rolling stock. This operation was very well carried out. The enemy seem so demoralized, and so averse to await the attack of our infantry, that it is possible they will not make the determined stand I anticipated before we reach Zagazig. The Guards, under the Duke of Connaught, made a very trying march yesterday across the desert." The enemy's loss is estimated at about 400.

A new Egyptian Ministry was formed on Monday, with Sherif Pasha as President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Riaz Pasha Minister of the Interior, Haidar Pasha Minister of Finance, and Omar Lufti Pasha Minister of War. Ramses and Mahsama were occupied on Friday by the British. The engagement was not serious. The total forces now in the Ismaïlia district, under General Wolseley, are about 11,000 men, 2,500 horses, and twenty-seven guns. Mahmud Fehmy, Arabi Pasha's chief engineer and military adviser, was captured on Sunday, at Kasassin. The British troops are rapidly advancing, and an early attack on Tel-el-Kebir is expected.

On Monday evening a body of Arabs attacked the British position at Kasassin, and were repulsed with heavy loss. Eleven guns were captured.

In the neighborhood of Alexandria the military activity has not been so great. Intrenchments were thrown up on the extreme right of the enemy, across the sands toward Lake Abukir, as a protection against a flank movement by the British. Several hundred Bedouins entered Ramleh on Thursday and plundered a number of houses. The absence of balloons for military purposes is much felt in the neighborhood of Alexandria. Sultan Pasha received information, on Thursday, that a strong feeling exists among the people of Upper Egypt against Arabi, because of his exactions. There was an unexpected hitch in political matters at Alexandria on Saturday. Riaz Pasha, who was summoned from France by the Khedive to engage in forming a new Ministry, refused to take office if the Chamber of Notables is to be restored, as he considers that institution unsuited to Egypt.

About 3 o'clock on Sunday afternoon the Egyptians on the left bank of the Mahmudieh Canal, near Alexandria, were shelled by guns of the Waterworks Hill. The British man-of-war *Minotaur* also shelled the Egyptian outposts near Abukir, and forced a retirement. At Meks the Bedouins appeared in force, and continued to raid the village during the night, murdering the inhabitants.

At Abukir fort on Wednesday, an officer and twelve men from the Austrian gun-boat *Nautilus* were sent ashore, under the supposition that the English were in possession, as a white flag was flying. They were immediately made prisoners. They were released on Saturday, on condition that they would not reveal anything they had seen.

It is rumored that Arabi Pasha accuses M. de Lesseps of having deceived him with false promises, so as to be able to sell the Suez Canal to the English, and that he has set a price on De Lesseps's head.

Cairo is still quiet. The Committee of Vigilance sits daily. All the members, except two, support Arabi.

The Nile began rapidly rising on Wednesday, and the inundation of low points is proceeding. A blockade of the Egyptian coast was established on Friday.

The hesitation of the Sultan to sign the military convention with England is said to be principally due to the receipt of threatening letters from Syria, Arabia, and Egypt. On Wednesday the Sheikh-ul-Islam held an interview with Lord Dufferin, in which the latter explained that he had received instructions from his Government to sign the draft of the military convention as agreed upon, on August 18, by himself and Saïd Pasha. This explanation, it was understood, helped to clear the situation somewhat. The Porte on Wednesday withdrew its objection to the exportation of mules from Smyrna for British service in Egypt. It was reported on Thursday that Germany had advised the Sultan to come to an understanding with England in regard to the military convention, as coöperation with that nation was the only means of defeating Russia's plans. But Saïd Pasha and Assym Pasha advanced fresh demands on that day, to the effect that the Turks should land at Alexandria, and that the proclamation relative to Arabi, instead of declaring him a rebel, should summon him to submit to the Khedive. On Friday Lord Dufferin informed Saïd and Assym that his Government was prepared to waive the demand that any movement of the Turkish troops must be first approved by the British. Saïd Pasha then suggested that the Turks should make Alexandria, which the English would evacuate, their base of operations, while the British base should be Ismaïlia.

Saïd Pasha went to Therapia on Sunday evening, and informed Lord Dufferin that the Turkish Council of Ministers had resolved to publish the proclamation against Arabi, and to accept the military convention with England, conformably with Lord Dufferin's proposals. The text of the convention was drawn up and agreed upon on Tuesday. It will probably be signed within a few days.

A fight between Greek and Turkish troops, over disputed territory, occurred on the Thessalian frontier on Wednesday. Four Greeks and eight Turks were killed.

Fearful rioting has occurred between Hindoos and Mohammedans at Salem, in the Presidency of Madras, India. Mohammedans were tortured and killed, their houses burned to the ground, and their principal mosque destroyed. Troops have restored order. One hundred and fifty Hindoos and three Mohammedans have been arrested.

Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, in a speech at Belfast on Wednesday, when the Mayor presented him with an address of welcome, said it would be idle to deny the existence of personal danger in the task of governing Ireland. The remedy against outrages was to have a tribunal which could be trusted to do justice. Those who expected agrarian murders to cease suddenly were expecting an impossibility. The fixed policy of the Government was to distinguish between criminal and political acts. Against the former they were determined to wage unrelenting warfare. Mr. Trevelyan's remarks were received with cheers.

Earl Spencer, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, has declined to interfere with Judge Lawson's course in the case of E. Dwyer Gray.

Charles James Kirkham, one of the chiefs of the Fenia conspiracy, and a writer of tales, poems, and political essays, died near Dublin, Ireland, on Wednesday, at the age of fifty-seven.

A committee is forming in London to arrange for placing a bust of the poet Longfellow in Westminster Abbey.

The Emperor of Russia has sanctioned the statutes of the Moscow Society for developing the cotton industry in Central Asia.

"VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS" AND THE REPUBLICAN PARTY.

JAY HUBBELL has issued another assessment circular to those who have paid no attention to the first. In this he manifests his surprise at "the failure to respond" to the first one, but suggests that it may have been due to what he calls "the pressure of other cares." He concludes by expressing the hope that the return mail will bring him "a voluntary contribution equal to two per cent. on your annual compensation." The impudence of all this is, of course, what strikes one at first on reading it. In any other walk of life than politics, a second circular from a man who had asked you for two per cent. on your income, as a "voluntary contribution" to something in which he was interested, expressing his surprise at not having heard from you, and again mentioning the amount he expected to receive from you, "by return mail," would lead to his receiving a pretty stern rebuke in very uncomplimentary language. But, "inside politics," nothing seems absurd, or ludicrous, or impudent. Politicians like Hubbell now neither blush, nor laugh, nor even wink, and you could not explain to them in a year why it was funny to threaten or rebuke a man for not giving you "a voluntary contribution."

It is not their stupidity, however, which is interesting in the present case so much as the accounts they give of the condition of the Republican party. This last circular, emanating, be it remembered, from a Congressional Committee, announces that we are "on the skirmish line of 1884, with a conflict before us of great moment to the Republic, and that a repulse now is full of danger to the next Presidential election." Nevertheless, it says that the Committee, at a crisis so momentous, "cannot hope to succeed in the pending struggle if those most directly benefited by success are unwilling or neglect to aid in a substantial manner." No such confession as this has come from any official quarter certainly in the twenty years during which the party has been in power. What it means is that the hold of the Republican party on the votes of the majority, and therefore on the Government of the Union, will be seriously weakened, unless the officeholders pay two per cent. on their salaries to a fund to be expended by men who render no accounts, and in whose honesty nobody has much confidence. The Congressional Committee actually avows that it no longer counts on the devotion of the voters to the principles of the party, or on the confidence inspired by its past administration of the national affairs, or even on the old-fashioned favorable comparison between it and the Democrats. It has no reliance now except on voluntary contributions of two per cent. on their salaries from "those most directly benefited by success." In other words, the Republican party, put in power by the burning enthusiasm of the best portion of the American people for a great idea, and kept in power for twenty years, by their passionate conviction that in its hands alone was the national salvation sure, can now only be maintained by a round sum in cash. It has been handling some billions of public money, but its life now depends, it seems, on its being able to raise a few thousands from its own employees.

It appears, too, according to the Congressional Committee, that it is no longer the party voters, or the nation at large, who are "most directly interested in the success" of the party, but the 100,000 poor men who draw salaries from it. To Hubbell and his confederates the party is interesting simply as the source of a certain amount of money; and they think that nobody's devotion to it can any longer be counted on with certainty, except those who get something from it in cash monthly. It seems as if it was audacity which led them to lay all this before the voters. But it really is not: it is the stupidity of men trained under the spoils system to look on the public funds as primarily the reward of electioneering dexterity, and only secondarily as a means of getting the public business transacted. This, too, probably accounts in a large degree for what seems so surprising—the constant protestations of their innocence put forth by Brady and Dorsey. They very likely cannot persuade themselves that their frauds were really frauds, in view of the services which they think they have rendered the party in its canvasses.

When we take the admissions of these Hubbell circulars in connection with the Arrears of Pension Act and the River and Harbor Improvement Act, it must be admitted that the younger voters of the party, at all events, have abundant food for reflection. The solemnity of the occasion is heightened by the spectacle of the Massachusetts Republican delegation, Senators and all, having to submit explanations, with which their constituencies are anything but satisfied, of their conduct in helping to pass an enormous job over the President's veto. Ten years ago this would have been considered an amazing phenomenon; it does not now seem to excite much surprise in inner party circles. But there must be change, and purification, or there will be a revolution which will leave the Hubbells with no one "most directly interested in success" to levy on. No party can stand in this country on a purely money basis, and no party which has lost the moral confidence of the voters can be saved by "two per cent. of your annual compensation."

THE MONOPOLIST AND THE STRIKER.

JAY GOULD, when conversing with reporters, is almost always what is called "a well-spoken man." In fact, he gives much evidence of containing the materials of one of those philosophic observers, called Sages, who receive interviewers in the comfortable homes to which they retire in their old age, and explain to them the true nature and bearing of the various political and social phenomena of the day. In an interview with a *Herald* reporter on Saturday last, touching Governor Cornell's troubles, he defined his position toward political parties and politicians almost in the language of the Sage.

"'I am,' said Mr. Gould musingly, 'independent of either party in politics. I have large interests at stake in this country. Nearly all my money is embarked here in various enterprises, and all I want is honest government. I am being continually 'struck,' as they say, by politicians.' Pointing to a nest of drawers, he said, 'Those pigeon-holes are filled with the demands, the threats, the entreaties of politicians—men of all parties and no party, Republicans, Democrats, Anti-Monopolists. If you were worth a million dollars and a directing agent in some corporate interest, you would soon find out and understand the force of what I mean.'"

We presume that, with one little exception, this is a strictly accurate account of his attitude. The little exception is to be found in the assertion that all he wants "is honest government." Here Mr. Gould erred, though probably not intentionally. He has not often occasion to use the term "honest," and probably never has examined closely the sense in which other people use it. He has observed, however, that they always apply it to something they like and approve of, and has probably come to suppose that what they mean by it is something agreeable or advantageous to the person using it. Accordingly, what he doubtless has in mind when he says he desires "honest government," is government favorable to the execution of such financial or industrial schemes as he may for the time being have on foot.

This, there is no doubt, he has steadily pursued during the whole of his remarkable career. It is now over twelve years, indeed, since he revealed his political philosophy to a committee of the New York Legislature, by admitting that when necessary he bought up or gave money indifferently to whichever party was likely to be most useful to him in business. In every Presidential campaign of late years, he has always contributed liberally to the side he thought likeliest to win—indeed, in 1876, was a prominent worker in the Republican Committee rooms. In the last campaign he began, we believe, with great confidence in Garfield's triumph, but, seeing reason a little later to change his mind, made a handsome contribution to "carry Indiana" for Hancock. There is nothing very extraordinary in this. If Gould did not believe that the best party was the party most likely to be useful to Gould, and did not ostentatiously support it for this reason, he would not be Gould, but some one else. It was his steady refusal to acknowledge that there was a right and wrong side to things, independent of the pecuniary return they brought in, which first made him known to the world, and his defiance of the popular prejudice has worked so well for him that he is not likely to abandon it.

It would be doing him great injustice (or more than justice, if any one likes the phrase better), if we said that he is now, such as we see him—one of the great political and financial forces of the day—the product solely of his own moral or immoral ideas. The truth is that he may be said to have sown his own seed. The manure which made him such a splendid growth was furnished by the politicians or "strikers," as he most truly and candidly observes. Neither Gould nor any other monopolist would be what he is—that is, the dread and envy of the stock market and the terror of the produce exporter—if he were not made aware of the extent of his power

and tempted into the abuse of it by the efforts of needy political adventurers, and blackmailers, and managers, to "strike" him, or, in plain English, to extort money from him. We have no doubt whatever that "those pigeon-holes" to which he pointed do contain enough to give even a high-minded and generous and upright man a profound contempt for the whole class known as politicians. It is not surprising if, in the case of a man like Gould, they give him a contempt for human nature itself, and make him look on professions of political morality as simple cant. All notedly rich men in every country have experiences, which are both comical and melancholy, of the capacity for begging and blackmailing which is distributed through every community. There are thousands of persons of both sexes who seldom hear of a man's coming into possession of a great fortune without unblushingly asking him to gratify, not wants only, but simple desires or caprices.

At mere rich men, however, such politicians cannot get. It is only when they represent, or are largely interested in, large corporations, and these come to have need of legislation, or become liable to suffer from legislation, that the political striker sees his opening, and begins to "assess." He has been providing, or trying to provide, himself with funds in this way now for the last fifty years. He began to levy his tolls in this State as soon as charters of incorporation began to be valuable, and would have converted the State government into a sink of corruption but for the passage of the general act which enables corporations to be formed without his permission. His performances in the same line by means of special legislation and the tinkering of city charters are well known, but his direct attacks on commercial corporations have now to be confined to taxation. What he does in these ways is, however, we imagine, trifling compared to what he does by private threats and applications.

The evil, too, is growing as the corporations grow in number and magnitude. Their need of friendly legislation is a great mine for the striker, but not so great as their exposure to hostile legislation. It is, indeed, an outgrowth of the assessment system, or directly connected with it. Party managers have long been in the habit of assessing Government contractors, as well as Government employees, on the general principle that everybody who derives any direct pecuniary advantage from the Government is bound to contribute money to the party in power. Such a principle, of course, easily and indeed naturally covers the case of those who seek favors from the Legislature, or whom the Legislature might damage. Every member of Congress in this case has the power of contributing to the result on one side or the other, and so has everybody who "owns" a member of Congress, and every "worker" and "henchman" who helps to nominate him, and exerts any influence over him. The number of those, therefore, who are able to establish claims, however shadowy, on the Monopolists' favor is very large, and they are pushed with childlike frankness. If the Monopolists, indeed, were to publish the contents of "those pigeon-holes," we are inclined to believe that we should be surprised at their moderation, and ready to acknowledge that their rule over us is, on the whole, gentle and merciful, considering what their views of human nature must be.

THE MERCHANT MARINE OF ITALY.

Of all the European states, Italy alone has shown in recent years any decided decadence in her merchant marine. Mr. Wells, in his treatise on the American merchant marine, makes mention of this fact, and states that between 1869 and 1879 the decrease in Italian shipbuilding was officially reported at eighty per cent.; and, during the same period, no fewer than 50,000 men connected with Italian shipbuilding and navigation were obliged to seek other employments; and, further, that the decrease for the year 1879 alone amounted to 529 vessels. This decrease, however, appears to have been due to the long period of depression which acted upon the foreign commerce of Italy between 1874 and 1880, and cannot be taken as an indication of the normal condition of the Italian marine. In other words, the causes of the decrease were in great measure of a temporary nature, and were due to the general economic condition of the country. In the last year there has been a marked improvement, and an increase has occurred in the steam tonnage, which was before the weakest point of the Italian merchant navy; for while it possessed in sailing vessels a tonnage of more than 1,000,000 tons, the tonnage of its steam vessels, which had never exceeded 30,000 tons, at present amounts to upward of 110,000 tons. If, then, with the return of prosperity, the merchant navy also shows signs of activity, and even of increase, where is the need of resorting to any such costly expedient of fostering shipbuilding and the navigation of vessels, as has been adopted on such a large scale in France in the form of bounties or premiums—an expedient which has been more than once proposed in this country, and which still finds favor among a certain class who desire to produce by artificial means what should and can be brought about by natural causes?

In 1880, when public attention had been directed to the condition of the merchant navy, a committee of the Italian Chamber of Deputies was appointed to examine into the condition of the mercantile marine, the causes of its decadence, and the remedies for the situation. The action of France in entering into a very extensive system of bounties exerted a strong influence in this inquiry, and has materially colored the conclusions of the Committee. After sitting for more than a year and a half, the Committee has just made its report, which, together with the testimony taken, fills four large volumes, and appears at a time when the conditions which called it out have entirely changed, and have given place to a new set of conditions. Still, the results of the inquiry are by no means devoid of interest, for they clearly show that what is needed in Italy will apply with almost equal truth to the United States. In short, apart from some special causes, it is a false and vicious fiscal policy that prevents in both cases the development of an industry which would at first sight appear to be specially adapted to the nations in question.

Thus, it is a well-established fact that steam vessels are superseding sailing vessels, yet little attempt is made in Italy to keep up in this point with the rest of the world. Again, iron vessels, though more expensive in the first cost, are in the end cheaper than wooden vessels. But, while Italy possesses marked advantages for the construction of wooden vessels, as yet the number of her iron-ship builders is very small. Thus there is no large force of skilled labor for constructing iron vessels. The orders for such vessels are so few that there has been no occasion for erecting and maintaining extensive shops and ship-yards, for all the needed materials may be obtained from England, where iron and coal are cheaper; and this, too, in spite of the far lower wages of Italian labor. This roundabout way of procuring such materials entails expense and delay. As the law now stands, iron vessels constructed in other countries, and all materials used in the construction of vessels, are admitted free of duty; but, notwithstanding these advantages, it is asserted that the tariff policy effectually prevents the manufacture of such materials on a large scale within the country. Moreover, the system of taxation employed in Italy is such as to discourage the investing of capital in steam vessels, and even to favor the construction and maintenance of sailing vessels. For while a sailing vessel pays but a light license duty, which is proportioned to the value of the vessel, a steam vessel must pay a tax of thirteen per cent. upon the revenue derived from her, and this, too, whether engaged in the home or foreign trade. Again, the stamp duties on the papers necessary to the construction or sale of a vessel are so heavy as to discourage dealings in vessels, and there is a tax on maritime insurance. The Commission also directs attention to the fees of Italian consuls in foreign ports as an onerous charge on shipowners.

The Committee, however, does not stop with merely recommending a reduction of these taxes and charges on the mercantile interests of the country, but, captivated by the example of France, it proposes an even more extensive system of bounties on the construction of vessels, and premiums on their navigation, than was adopted by that country. For example, while not favoring bounties on the construction of sailing vessels, it would allow the premiums of navigation to vessels engaged in a coasting trade in the Mediterranean, whereas those of France are intended specially to encourage ocean voyages. It proposes a bounty on all steam vessels constructed in Italy, proportioned to the tonnage of the vessel and the power of her machinery. Of the expense to the state of this system of bounties there is a somewhat startling discrepancy in the estimates made by the various members of the Commission, the annual charge on the treasury being variously placed at five, six, eight, and ten million lire. If the example of France can serve as any guide, it is very likely that the last figure will be reached, if not exceeded.

It is doubtful, however, if the recommendations of the Commission will ever be carried into effect, unless another marked decrease in the number of vessels in the Italian mercan-

tile navy should occur. For at least a year must elapse before the Government can act upon the report, and in that time a further improvement may take place, and all necessity of any such factitious aid to the mercantile interest may be done away with. Should it, moreover, become recognized that the burden of a foolish and ill-advised fiscal policy is one of the prime causes of a decay of the merchant marine, and that Italy is not alone in possessing such a policy, then a revival must follow under a natural and unrestricted system. The causes of decay are of an artificial nature, and it is because they are artificial that there is any hope of reviving the merchant marine, and of maintaining it in the face of foreign competition. Bounties, premiums, and differential duties are barbarous methods of attaining a like end; but they are costly, and, like cologne, will but cover a bad smell that only needs the application of common soap to remove.

SCIENCE AT MONTREAL.

MONTREAL, August 26, 1882.

MONTREAL is welcoming for a second time the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and with generous hospitality. The older members recall the fact that in 1857 the Association met here under the Presidency of Alexis Caswell. This year the well-known geologist Principal Dawson is the presiding officer. The attendance is large, especially from the United States. Among the men of note from across the ocean the most conspicuous are Dr. W. B. Carpenter, the physiologist from London (whose younger brother, Philip, no longer living, is still honored in Montreal for his scientific attainments), and the Rev. Dr. Haughton, of Trinity College, Dublin, whose versatile mind has been directed to a great variety of interesting questions—mathematical, mechanical, geological, and mineralogical. Besides these may be mentioned Dr. Valdemar Kovalevski, Professor of Geology in Moscow; Dr. Rae, the Arctic explorer; Dr. Koenig, of Paris, the investigator in sound; and Mr. Fitzgerald, a Dublin physicist. Herbert Spencer's coming has been announced, but he is no longer expected. Two of the former Presidents—W. B. Rogers and L. H. Morgan—have died within the year, and the faces of some of the older members, who are still active in their scientific careers, are missed from the assembly; but there is a strong and well-trained body of young men who have already come to the front, and are winning honors in fields both new and old. Without a count, it appears that the colleges of the Western States are particularly well represented, and that comparatively few of the professors in the older Eastern institutions are here, though among this number are some of the very foremost workers—Dr. Asa Gray and Professor James Hall, for example.

The interest of the meeting has its central point in McGill College, where ample facilities are afforded for every kind of business pertaining to the meeting. The Principal of the college, Dr. Dawson, is the President of the Association, and the occasion is rendered still more noteworthy by the completion of a new college building—the Peter Redpath Museum for Geology and Natural History—a commanding edifice which gives dignity of appearance to the unpretentious group devoted to the other purposes of the institution. Near by is the elaborate Gothic structure of the Presbyterian Theological College, some of whose rooms are occupied without any "conflict" by the teachers of science.

To the general observer the opening day was the most interesting of the session. First came the ceremonious introductions, when the dignities of Church and State met the dignities of science upon the same platform and interchanged courtesies. Dr. Sterry Hunt, in behalf of the local committee of Montreal, gave on this occasion an admirable introductory address, and Principal Dawson, on taking the chair, made an excellent plea for the recognition of the trained young men, not yet widely known, but deserving of generous encouragement. The most liberal hospitalities of a prosperous city were extended to the guests from a distance.

In the evening, notwithstanding rain, a large hall was filled to hear the annual address. The retiring President, Professor Brush, of New Haven, selected a theme in his own department, and treated it like a master. His discourse was a good illustration of the tendency of scientific men to limit their work to a special line, and to avoid general observations upon the fields which they have not personally tilled. What is lost in one direction is thus gained in another: for breadth we have depth, and what *is* said is spoken with authority and not by an echo. Mr. Brush was honored by the Association with the place he holds against his own protests; and his friends may strongly suspect that he was not eager to give the formal address which the Association exacts of its chosen head. But there was nobody in the Congress, and not more than one person in all the land, so competent as he to review the history of American mineralogy, and to point out the requisites for the further prosecution of the science. This was his subject.

He began with a notice—which must have surprised nearly all his hearers—of the state of inquiry respecting the mineral resources of this country early in this century. It is hardly credible that in this recent period the most intelligent observers were so inadequately informed respecting the problems which most deserved to be investigated. In a very appreciative spirit, and yet in calm and judicial terms, he next referred to the four pioneer mineralogists of America, to whom much of the later science is due—Archibald Bruce, of New York; George Gibbs, of Newport; Parker Cleaveland, of Bowdoin College; and Benjamin Silliman, of Yale College. Touching but lightly on their personal history, he pointed out how the initiation of a journal of mineralogy by the first-named, the remarkable collections of the second, the able treatise of the third, and the power of the fourth in lecturing and teaching, gave an impulse to their favorite studies. There were indications, in this part of the address, of the care with which the speaker had studied the dawn of American mineralogy, and his selection of four types of investigators was felicitous and instructive.

He then proceeded to the second quarter of the century, and showed the aid which came to the science from private munificence, Governmental surveys, and the opportunities of communication afforded by the *American Journal of Science*, and also from instruction in mineralogy and the formation of cabinets. Here he made an entertaining allusion to what he called "the first summer school of science"—a flotilla of canal-boats, which Amos Eaton, with the financial aid of Stephen Van Rensselaer, conducted through the Erie Canal, teaching his class of students to observe and describe all the natural phenomena of that water-way when the route was new. Dr. Gray afterward mentioned that Joseph Henry was among the pupils in that Eaton flotilla.

Then the speaker, as if the whole country were his cabinet, rapidly called attention to the developments made in the field which our mineralogists have worked, to the geographical distribution of American minerals, to the discoveries which have been made since the early days referred to, and to the variation of American from European species. He did not miss the opportunity to fire a passing shot at the disposition hastily to describe new species; there was a tone of regret in his voice when he said that, relatively, there were fewer mineralogists now than there were sixty years ago, and that more of the old-time spirit of true research was needed in these days.

Mr. Brush refrained from the mention of living American mineralogists, with the single exception of Dana, *facile princeps*, but he mentioned that in an appendix to his address there would be printed, both as a warning and an encouragement to investigators, the names of al the proposed new American species and of their sponsors

Perhaps a few words more should be added on the latter part of this address. A marked feature of American minerals, said Mr. Brush, is the grand scale upon which crystallization has taken place—common mica in sheets a yard across, feldspar where a single cleavage plane measured ten feet, prisms of beryl four feet long—and so in general much larger crystals than those obtained from European localities. Another noteworthy fact is the occurrence, in abundance, of some of the rarer elements as constituents of the minerals found. For example, among the rare earths, glucina, zirconia, etc.; lithium occurs in our lithia micas, and spodumene, containing from five to eight per cent. of lithia, occurs by the ton in at least one locality. Among rare metals which form metallic acids, columbium, the first metal new to science discovered in America, is found from Maine to Georgia. Many other examples were given, including the rare metal tellurium, which is found in Colorado in one locality, where masses of twenty-five pounds have been taken out. Yet only a small portion of the United States has been thoroughly explored, and we are far behind Europe in the variety of minerals obtained from our mines. The careful inspection of quarries and mines is much to be desired, rich sources for minerals, where valuable material is in danger of being buried out of sight. If our trained mineralogists would oftener go into the field, and if our wealthy amateurs would aid in exploring American localities as freely as they engage in importing costly specimens from Europe, they would do much to foster science.

The address closed with a brief defence of the place which should be accorded to mineralogy as a science, independent of chemistry and geology, but "interdependent" with them, and also with physics.

In the afternoon of Wednesday the introductory addresses were given by heads of the nine sections into which of late the Association has been divided, and as these nine heads are Vice-Presidents of the Association, it is a current joke to speak of them as the nine capital Vices of American Science. It is a bad arrangement which gives so many of these addresses at the same hour, for they are of general interest, and almost every attendant would be glad to hear more than one of them. If the Secretary, Professor Putnam, who is admirable in all his arrangements, could hereafter secure the delivery of these papers in one room, at successive half-hours, I am sure he would reward the speakers with larger audiences and would give the hearers much additional pleasure. I listened to a capital written address, by an eminent man, whose views were entitled to great respect and were on a subject of universal interest, but he spoke to a baker's dozen, and saw his address attributed next morning in the newspapers to another gentleman who was not present at the delivery.

The address in the Mathematical and Astronomical section was read for its author, Professor Harkness, of the Naval Observatory, on the Transits of Venus. It was an historical and, to a moderate extent, a critical review of what has been hitherto done in the observations of such transits, with particular reference to the results attained in 1874 and to those which are to be expected in 1882. Dr. H. C. Bolton, of Trinity College, gave a review of the recent work of the Chemical section, and then took for his theme the history of chemical literature, especially in its early aspects. Mr. E. B. Elliott, the statistician of Washington, introduced the work in Economic and Statistical Science by a statement of the province which this new section is designed to fill. In Physics the speaker was Professor Mendenhall, of Columbus, O., who was formerly in Japan, and he made an address on the methods to be pursued in teaching physics in colleges. Professor W. P. Trowbridge, of Columbia College, in the section of Mechanics, made a strong plea for the promotion of experiments in mechanics, in close connection with theoretical studies. He dwelt upon the extraordinary demands now made by the public on engineers, and gave many illustrations of what experiment has done, and instances of what it may do in the future, to determine problems of profound importance. In the Biological section, Dr. W. H. Dall, of Washington, gave an account of what has been accomplished in this country toward a knowledge of the biology of the molluscs. In the related section of Histology and Microscopy Professor Tuttle, of Columbus, O., questioned the propriety of a special microscopical section, and in the section last to be named, the Anthropological, a paper by Dr. Daniel Wilson, of Montreal, was read on some of the physical characteristics of certain native tribes in Canada.

I shall not attempt to repeat the titles of papers which were subsequently read. As nine sections are simultaneously in session, no one can hear more than a small portion of what is presented, and a great deal of time is lost by going from one hall to another. This is part of the embarrassment of abundance. A great deal of curiosity was manifested to hear Mr. A. Graham Bell on the use of an induction balance in detecting the presence of metal in the human body—a line of inquiry into which he was brought by the attempt to discover the position of the ball which destroyed the life of President Garfield. The students of natural history gathered round Dr. Asa Gray with enthusiasm as he reviewed the history of the study of the American flora, with sketches of the original work of Michaux, Pursh, Torrey, etc., with some mention of his own labors, and with instructive hints as to that which remains for younger botanists to undertake. The Geological section is always well attended, and the communications of Hall, Dawson, and Carpenter gave importance to its meetings this year. Besides these speakers there was Dr. Rae, with a valuable account of his Arctic explorations, and Commander Bartlett, of the United States Coast Survey, with a wonderfully interesting résumé of the results he has reached within the last two or three years in the study of the Gulf Stream, as to its currents, its depth, and its temperature. Professor Dwight, of Vassar College, brought before the section a new collection of fossils which he has discovered in a locality hitherto unnoticed near Poughkeepsie. In the Physical section the most remarkable paper was that of Professor Rowland, describing the new gratings which he has made at the Johns Hopkins University for the study of the solar spectrum. He exhibited the results obtained by these gratings in photographs of the spectrum, which far surpass any that have hitherto been made. The ethnologists listened to an account of some personal observations upon the inner tribal life of the Omaha Indians which have been made by Miss Fletcher during her residence among them.

These are but notes of a few papers which attracted general attention; those which were of interest to special workers were quite as numerous as ever.

It is always entertaining to hear the conversation of those who attend these annual congresses as to their value and their deficiencies. Some of the best scientific men in the country are very shy of them, believing that science is to be promoted by hard work in quiet hours, and that its results are to be communicated to learned bodies and placed on record in careful memoirs, rather than announced to popular assemblies and reported in the newspapers. There is no doubt that the gaining of momentary applause is a very unworthy motive to inspire intellectual exertion, and many a capable person is impeded for life by yielding to the insidious temptation to be popular and to be talked about. There is also no doubt that many second-rate productions are brought forward in such assemblies as this. But there is another side to the matter. The opportunities which are afforded to the scientific men of this country and of Great Britain, France, Italy, and Germany, by their annual summer conferences are very great. Acquaintances are formed among those who are working in the same line, the younger men have easy access to those who have won renown, the older men discover the youths who are of promise; many a call to a professorship, many an appointment on a scientific investigation, has turned on such introductions as these meetings afford. The specialist who is in danger of becoming narrow, is liberalized by contact with other workers; early information is obtained of inquiries not yet enough matured to be published; suggestions and counsels are freely interchanged. Probably the professors at Harvard and Yale, and the residents of New York and Washington, and other great cities, do not need for themselves, to any great extent, the facilities which these conventions afford, for they live all the year among active workers; but those who are far away from their co-workers, remote from sympathy and light, are quickened more than can be estimated by such gatherings as this. Doubtless also the local scientific activity is increased in every community where the Association meets by the presence of so many who are wise and bright. I am confident, too, that young men are often led to enter upon scientific pursuits by the magnetism of personal examples with which they become acquainted in just such a gathering as this. As an educational force the advantages far surpass the drawbacks. A shrewd observer has just said in my hearing that some of the best impulses in American society proceed from these great conventions of the friends and promoters of science.

The generous and informal hospitality of Montreal has received grateful recognition on all sides. Excursions have been arranged to Ottawa and Quebec, to which hundreds of persons are devoting Saturday; private houses have been freely opened to guests; the Local Committee on one evening, Principal Dawson on another, and the Art Association on a third, offered evening entertainments. Public lectures are promised by Dr. Carpenter on Deep-Sea Soundings, and by A. Melville Bell on Visible Speech. The number of persons enrolled as in attendance is more than eight hundred.

PACIFIC FRANCE.

PARIS, August 12, 1882.

A CURIOUS transformation has taken place in France since 1870: this country, once so fond of war, has become intensely pacific. The memories of the invasion cannot be forgotten: the hostages taken from their quiet homes and conducted to the distant fortresses of Germany; the soldiers quartered for months in the cities and villages; the daily requisitions of hay, bread, meat, cigars; the terrible contrast between the organized order of the invaders and the disorganized state of a country deprived of all legal government and reduced, as it were, to its own primitive elements—such things make a deep and lasting impression upon the minds of a laborious and quiet population. Then, after the period of the invasion, came the period of reorganization: the Prussian military laws were copied, as if the germ of victory was in a military law; compulsory, universal military service became the order of the day. The country accepted this terrible necessity, but an army recruited from all parts of the population is very different from an army of volunteers. Every young man pays his debt, as the saying is, to his country: but he is very apt to think that after having spent some time amid the tedium of barrack life, the debt is paid. He returns to his family and his occupation with delight, and the idea of being recalled is a nightmare to him. I do not at all pretend that if our reserve men were recalled, they would not all hasten to their regiments—I am convinced that they would. They go to the manœuvres with the greatest alacrity; they are, as a rule, orderly and law-abiding; but they have, not unnaturally, the feeling that they ought not to be recalled without a very adequate reason, without an actual national necessity. They are not deficient in national honor, but they are ignorant of general politics; they live in their provinces, and their horizon does not extend across the frontiers of France.

The new France—the France of universal suffrage—became warlike during the Second Empire, because it had virtually abdicated into the hands of the Emperor Napoleon III. He had a sort of trust, which he fulfilled to the country's satisfaction for a certain length of time. I remember seeing once Napoleon III. at the beginning of his reign (not long after he had said, "L'Empire, c'est la paix!") at a representation of Rossini's "William Tell." There is a scene in which young Arnold, tempted to follow the fortunes of the Austrian, discusses with Tell; he sings to him,

"La gloire remplace aussi la liberté."

I remember seeing Napoleon III., who was generally very cold and without enthusiasm, applauding this sentiment with great energy; so much so that everybody looked at him. He had destroyed liberty—he felt that he owed something to a great country: he intended to feed us with glory. France had her share of glory in the Crimea and in Italy, but then came the useless wars, and next came the final reverses. The country had followed Napoleon III. to the end, but as soon as fortune left him, she left him also. The present electoral body is composed of the generations which form the active army, the reserve of the active army, the territorial army, the reserve of the territorial army. All the men, in fact, between twenty and forty, know that if France had a real war, they would have to leave everything and to fight. Such an electoral body cannot be warlike—it must be pacific; all the more so because there is an almost exaggerated sentiment throughout the country as to the great efficiency of the forces which

would be likely to be brought against France in time of war.

The Tunisian war, which was the first serious military affair of France after 1870, caused some consternation in the country, but this sentiment of uneasiness did not last long. The country was told that it was no war at all. The population of Tunis is very docile, much more so than the population which fought for many years against France in Algeria. The new Governor, M. Cambon, who is a man of merit, is administering as well as he can with the many difficulties which were created for us by the Treaty of Bardo, and which are created every day by the capitulations, and by the pretensions of the foreign consuls. France would have done much better to annex Tunis immediately than to sign the Treaty of Bardo; the international financial commission greatly embarrasses the reorganization of Tunisian finances. Time, however, will settle many questions. Nobody thinks any longer of Tunis except, perhaps, the Italians; they will some day or other console themselves with Tripoli.

The Tunisian affair gave a start to public opinion in France. The then Minister of War would not make any mobilization; he would not even call out the men who are called *disponible* (that is, the men of the active army who in ordinary times serve only six months, who can be called by a mere decree of the Minister of War, without any vote of the Chambers, and who number, in five classes, about two hundred thousand). He was obliged to undo all the regiments, to take soldiers here and there, and to make of them regiments *de marche*, which were totally wanting in homogeneity.

The Egyptian affair required very different means. It was at first the intention of the French Government, when M. Gambetta was Prime Minister, to make an expedition with England on what may be called common terms, as France and England once made the Crimean War. There was to be complete identity in their military as well as in their diplomatic action. Before these plans were completely matured Gambetta fell from power, not on the Egyptian question, but on that of the *scrutin de liste*. His successor had a difficult task: he was conscious that the country was not in favor of a war policy; at the same time, he did not wish to break all the diplomatic threads of the negotiations with England. After a long period of hesitation, which has been too well described in a long despatch from Lord Granville to Lord Dufferin, he tried to subdivide the Egyptian question, and to cut it, so to speak, in two. To England alone was reserved intervention in the valley of the Nile, the landing at Alexandria, the expedition against Cairo, and the settlement of the internal difficulties of Egypt. France and England were to work hand-in-hand on the Isthmus of Suez; they were to protect together the independence of the Isthmus, and to defend the Canal, if necessary, against the Bedouins and the forces of Arabi Pasha. This was a sort of military continuation of the old financial condominium; it was not war, it was probably merely an occupation. M. de Freycinet had a double object: he would say to France, "We are not undertaking anything difficult—a few ships and a few regiments simply will suffice; we are not beginning a military expedition to the Delta." He could turn to Europe, and say to her, "I am your guarantee against the ambition of England. The French flag will float over the Isthmus of Suez together with the English flag. I will in this way assure the independence of this great commercial road, which has become so essential to Europe and to Asia, which is a sort of common road uniting the two largest fractions of the human community. It is idle to speak theoretically of the neutrality of the Suez Canal if the English are alone to show themselves at Suez, at Port Saïd, at Ismaïlia. The presence of a few French soldiers will be worth any amount of protocols."

This policy had, of course, its dangers as well as its advantages; the dangers chiefly were felt by the French Chamber. The small credits required by the Government for the little expedition to the Isthmus were rejected by an overwhelming majority. To be sure, in this majority were all the friends of M. Gambetta, who has been all along in favor of a much more active policy than M. de Freycinet's, and would have, if he could, sent not 4,000, but 40,000 men to Egypt. There is no doubt, however, that the temper of the Chamber was misunderstood by M. de Freycinet; that it was for peace absolutely, and that all the talk about the influence of France in Egypt seems to this Chamber mere empty talk. Such a state of things, such a callous indifference to what once occupied constantly the attention of the French Government, seems almost scandalous to all the diplomats of the old school, to all those who belong, in any capacity, high or low, to the Foreign Office, to all our consuls abroad, and, more than that, to the few men in our Chambers who still live on tradition, whether these men are Republican or Royalist.

I take Gambetta as an instance. He is the leader of a great Republican faction, but he has been brought up in a certain atmosphere of traditions. Such men as M. Waddington, who once made a long journey in the East, have a distinct idea of the value of the words "French influence in the East." The great majority of the Deputies elected to the present Chamber by universal suffrage care no more for Egypt than if Egypt were in the moon. They have their own concrete notions about taxes, about land, about civil law, about a hundred things; they are many of them lawyers, educated in the routine of provincial life; they do not know the first word of foreign affairs, and they know that their electors know even less. So it happens that negotiations are conducted by ambassadors of the old type, by clerks of the Foreign Office, who know every treaty which has been signed for the past two hundred years; and when the result of this elaborate and skilful work comes before the Chamber, the Chamber destroys it in an hour. This new and extraordinary state of things will in the end produce a certain sort of diplomatic isolation of France. Why should foreign Cabinets concern themselves with the Penelope's work of our diplomats? This isolation will not be without some advantages; for, as the Duc de Broglie well said the other day in the Senate, a great country is felt by its absence as well as by its presence. Negative forces are still forces; and the French Democracy is perhaps more clever than it is aware in letting all the Powers of Europe entangle themselves in difficulties which it ignores. The time may come when the memories of the late war will be effaced, and when French Democracy will feel its claws like a young lion. The present generation will, in all likelihood, not see that day.

WUERZBURG'S TRI-CENTENNIAL.

WUERZBURG, August 4, 1882.

NORTHERN Bavaria offers an unusual number of attractions to the Continental tourist this summer. In Nürnberg there is the great Industrial and Art Exposition, which opened in June and will close in November; in Bayreuth the festival performances of Wagner's "Parsifal" cover the period from July 26 to the end of August; and in Würzburg we are now in the midst of the celebration of the three-hundredth anniversary of the University, which is one of the best frequented in Germany, the average number of students in each semester being about 1,000. The city has been most gayly decorated for several days, there being few houses, and in the finest streets barely even a window, without a flag or a bunch of flags. Statues have been covered with wreaths, and flaglet-encircled poles erected in the public squares, connected by long green garlands. The greatest variety prevails, as well as tasteful arrangements, for we see the colors of the German flag, black-white-red, contrasting with the Bavarian white-blue, the Franconian red-white, the Würzburger red-yellow, and the various colors of the students' clubs or "corps," suspended from the windows of resident "Philistines" who once studied at the University. Most luxuriously adorned are the public buildings, all at the city's own expense, as the State Government refused the appropriation of ten thousand dollars which were asked for the worthy celebration of the jubilee, including also the renovation of some parts of the old, dilapidated University buildings. The Government even refused one-half the sum asked for, but consented to place the interest on this sum at the disposal of the Faculty for the assistance of meritorious students. The funds for the festival were accordingly made up of voluntary contributions from all parts of the country, added to the 20,000 marks which the city itself contributed. As far as I can gather from the contradictory accounts, it was through the influence of Staatsminister von Lutz that the money asked of the state was granted in the form of scholarships, instead of being added to the festival funds; and for this manœuvre it seems he was punished by the Faculty, who defeated by a large majority the proposal to confer on him an honorary degree. Indignant at this refusal, the local Liedertafel (vocal society) elected him an honorary member; and thus the matter was amicably arranged.

It must not be inferred from these incidents that the Bavarian Government is stepmotherly disposed toward its second-largest University. On the contrary, large sums are annually contributed toward its maintenance, and even now a handsome building in connection with the botanical department is in process of erection. It is to the scientific and medical departments that the greatest attention is paid, as the majority of students are of the latter. During the last semester there were in the medical and pharmaceutical department 594 students, in the law department 148, in the theological 168, and in the "philosophical" (natural science, mathematics, philology, philosophy) 166. The University possesses a library of over 250,000 volumes, excellent laboratories, interesting artistic, zoölogical, mineralogical, and biological collections, an astronomic observatory, and a botanic garden. The predominance of the medical department is accounted for by the existence of the admirable Julius Hospital, which was founded by the same bishop who in 1582 founded the University, and to whom a fine statue has been erected in the Julius Promenade by Schwanthaler. This hospital is one of the largest and wealthiest in the German Empire, its property being valued at more than 9,000,000 marks. It has room for 700 persons, and gives the students excellent opportunities for clinical practice.

Besides these advantages and the corps of seventy-two instructors, including some famous names, there are other things that attract students to this city. Würzburg has about 53,000 inhabitants (7,000 Protestants and 2,000 Jews), and is therefore fourth in size of Bavarian cities, Munich having about 200,000 inhabitants, Nürnberg half that number, and Augsburg over 60,000. The older part of the city, like Nürnberg, presents a thoroughly mediæval aspect,

while the modern additions are suggestive of the handsomest new streets in Munich. The royal Residenz, with its Doric colonnades, 312 rooms, and 947 windows, situated in the midst of an elegant Anglo-French park, with a large open square in front, is one of the most imposing sights of its kind in Germany. The city itself, with all its towers, can best be viewed from the Marienberg, on the left side of the Main River, which is crossed by a curious narrow bridge almost four centuries old, and "adorned" with twelve statues of male and female saints. The Marienberg was formerly the residence of some of the eighty-two bishops who have ruled over Würzburg. It is now used as an arsenal and barracks—institutions which have in size and significance gradually usurped the place of cloisters, although of these, too, several may still be seen in this vicinity, four for monks and two for nuns. The visitor to the citadel is allowed to pass through several massive doors and underground passages until he is received at the top by a guard who hands him over to a captain, by whom he is assigned a subordinate officer who, for a small fee, shows him the building, the best views, and the ravages caused by the Prussian bombardment in 1866, 235 years after the Swedes had taken the fort with all its immense treasures, which enabled them to continue their devastation of Germany.

A still more extensive view is obtained from the Steinberg to the left, commanding attractive hilly surroundings, and a glimpse up and down the river, but by no means so picturesque as Bayreuth or Heidelberg. Of the Steinberg every inch is occupied by vines which yield the famous Steinwein—like the Leistenwein from a neighboring hill, equal to the best Rhine wine. This is a matter of some importance to Würzburg, for it makes one of the greatest differences between itself and the capital, which it otherwise copies. In Munich there are few places where a glass of good wine can be had, while here every tavern and beer-house keeps it at a reasonable price. If the present festive time may be taken as a specimen, it would, nevertheless, seem that the Würzburgers drink fully as much beer as their brethren in Munich. Immense quantities of "Festbier" were especially brewed for this occasion, and kept on "Lager" for seven months; and yet fears were entertained that the supply might give out before the festival was over, in accordance with a prophecy made some time ago by an old gypsy woman, that at this festival a calamity would happen greater than the world had yet seen. I doubt, also, if the students here drink as much wine in preference to beer as they should, in accordance with Bismarck's maxim that wine should become the national drink of the Germans, because beer makes them stupid and phlegmatic. Not content with drinking beer all night, the typical student devotes the best morning hours to it, and not infrequent are the cases where such a Frühschoppen, or morning-beer, begins at 10 in the forenoon and ends after midnight. During the jubilee days the past and present members of the various corps, as well as non-society students, announce their daily places of meeting for a Frühschoppen in the morning papers; and for this Frühschoppen the majority prepare themselves by a glass of Apollinaris or Cognac, to obliterate the effects of the preceding night's debauch.

It cannot be said that this constant drinking improves the physiognomy of the students. Refined, aristocratic faces, such as are frequent among Harvard students, are rarely seen here; and the fact that there are no tailors in Germany who can cut a suit does not improve their general appearance, any more than their ugly scars gained through silly mediæval absurdities. It is curious to see so many old men in Würzburg this week wearing the red-white-blue or green caps of the corps to which they once belonged. Oddly inadequate as these caps are for protection against the sun or rain, there is no harm in them. They enliven the aspect of the streets and afford much innocent amusement to tourists in much-frequented places like Heidelberg. In other respects, too, the Würzburg corps student does not differ from other German students. He is rarely seen without a cane and a dog, which is invariably treated with great consideration. He lives in a little room in a poor quarter of town, and makes love to the pretty daughter of his hostess; pays four times as much for his beer as for his dinner; disturbs everybody at midnight by his howling, and for this offence hates the policeman with all his soul; carefully avoids lectures except shortly before examination or to shun his creditors, who seek for him everywhere except in the lecture-room; and, finally, calls every one who is not a student or who does not approve of all his idiosyncrasies an "old Philistine."

But I must return to my centennial festivities. Invitations had been forwarded to the King and various members of the aristocracy and Government, to the rectors or representatives of German, English, Scotch, French, Dutch, and Scandinavian universities, technical high schools, academies of arts, lyceums, gymnasia, etc. All these guests were received at the station and assigned lodgings in the houses of professors and others on the day preceding the festivities, Monday, July 31. On Tuesday morning there were services in the Catholic and Protestant churches and the synagogue. The Catholic service included a mass by Cherubini and a Te Deum by Vogler and a festival sermon by Dr. Hettinger. In the afternoon there was a "garden festival" and ball. On Wednesday morning the principal ceremony took place. All the invited guests assembled in the University Church, where an historical address was delivered by the present rector of the university, Dr. Wislicenus. This was followed by the presentation of honorary degrees to various German and foreign notabilities, among whom may be named Professor von Sybel, Professor Ihering, Dr. Siemens, of London, Sir John Lubbock, Professor Huxley, Alexander Bell, M. Charcot, and M. Ranvier. In the afternoon a banquet was given to all the invited guests, at which speeches were made by Duke Carl Theodor, Minister von Lutz, and others. It cannot be said that any of these speeches displayed such fine wit and eloquence as we are accustomed to at our Harvard dinners; they consisted mostly of empty phrases about Alma Julia, the festival, and the King, contrasting in this respect with the rector's address in the morning, which was really admirable.

All these proceedings of the first two days were only for invited guests. On Thursday came the great public event which brought thousands of strangers and many special trains to the city—an historical procession. Preparations for this had been made months ago, some sixty operatives, for instance, having been engaged for weeks on the 700 archaic costumes alone. The procession was to begin at 9 in the morning, but as it rained was postponed till 3 in the afternoon; and a better hour could not have been chosen, for it was the beginning of the only few hours of continuous sunshine known in these regions for almost two weeks. The promptness with which the hour of starting was kept was probably more due to the fear of another shower than to anything else. At 2 o'clock all the chosen streets were thickly lined with people, among whom were not a few peasant women in their great-great-grandmothers' bell-shaped costumes, who might easily have joined the procession without being accused of the crime of anachronism. The procession was headed by some of the guests on horseback, followed by a herald, twelve trumpeters, three standard-bearers, and the festival committee. Then came an historical group representing Würzburg and its inhabitants just as they were three hundred years ago, all the trades and industries being represented in appropriate costumes and with various signs and symbols indicating their occupation.

Twenty-nine trades altogether were to be counted in the procession. I cannot stop to describe them all, but can only call attention to a few of those which attracted special attention because they had wagons on which their work and workshops were exhibited—the carpenters engaged on an unfinished building; the gardeners, in whose floral chariot sat a young girl on a throne of flowers; the fishermen, with a sort of ship for a wagon; the gilded chariot, with allegorical figures impersonated by young girls representing the city. These groups, like those following, were at regular intervals separated by brass bands. Before the gilded chariot just mentioned came a group of fifty-four girls of good families, arrayed in the becoming dress of their ancestors three centuries ago. Some of them seemed rather embarrassed at being the focus of so many eyes, and their cheeks were burning red; but others were apparently so well pleased with their costume that they retained it when they appeared in the evening at the banquet halls. The same was the case with the tradesmen, who all mingled with the people in the evening and gave the streets the aspect of a masquerade. The second historical division embraced soldiers, huntsmen with their dogs, students in elegant array, citizens and patricians, a merchant's wagon with military guard, etc. The professors, the invited guests, and the students with special corps standards borne on horseback, constituted the remaining groups. It took the procession over an hour and a half to pass a given point, and it was 7 o'clock before the groups separated at the Residenzplatz. The "cellar festival," a sort of civilized bacchanal, which was to have taken place this same afternoon, was postponed till to-day, but as it is raining it will probably again be deferred, as well as the torchlight procession projected by the students for this evening.

Correspondence.

ERRORS OF THE CENSUS.—II.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a former communication mention was made of certain errors in Table I *d*, on page 5 of the Census Volume containing the Statistics of Population, and of contradictions between Table I *m*, on page 17 of the same volume, and the map showing the curves of mean annual temperature. In the present letter, attention will be called to errors and contradictions in the maps, tables, and discussions of the density of settlement at different periods.

The volume under consideration contains, among others, a series of ten maps, one for each Census year. These maps show, in five degrees of density, the distribution of population at the time of each enumeration. The first degree indicates a population of from 2 to 6 to the square mile, the second from 6 to 18, the third from 18 to 45, the fourth from 45 to 90, and the fifth 90 or more to the square mile. The population of all cities having 8,000 inhabitants or more is excluded in calculating the density of settlement. These cities are designated on the maps by circles of solid color, in size proportional to the population of the city intended to be represented. For

the purpose of illustrating more fully the distribution of population in 1880, there is a map in ten sheets, which shows such distribution in ten degrees of density. This map is on a larger scale than the one for the same year in the series already described. I shall, for convenience, refer to the larger map as the "section map." Following the method of the Census volume, I shall call the degrees of density above described classes or groups of settlement. These explanations seemed necessary to make clear my meaning in much that follows.

In the first line at the top of page xxv, it is said that group 3 is the "predominant" one in Maryland. In the very next paragraph, it is said that Maryland is one of the States in which group 4 is "found in excess of any other." On pages xxvii and xxviii, Table X gives the area of each of the groups in each State and Territory in 1880. According to this table, of the 9,860 square miles of land surface in Maryland, 3,000 square miles were in group 3, and 6,860 square miles in group 4. The map for 1880 seems in this respect to support the table, the area in No. 4 on the map being very decidedly greater than that in No. 3. The mention of Maryland as one of the States in which group 3 is "predominant" is, therefore, incorrect.

On the same page (xxv), it is stated that, in New Jersey, group 5 is "in excess of the sum of all other groups." The settled area of New Jersey, according to the table (X, pp. xxvii and xxviii), was 7,455 square miles. Of this area, 3,065 square miles were in group 5, 2,440 square miles were in group 4, and 1,950 square miles in group 3. The sum of 2,440 and 1,950 is 4,390. "The sum of all other groups" in New Jersey, according to the table, is 1,325 square miles "in excess" of group 5—which flatly contradicts the statement quoted from page xxv.

In the fifth line below Table IV, on page xxv, the following sentence occurs: "It should also be noted that in the decade previous the increase of No. 2 was comparatively slight." Mention had just before been made of the decade between 1860 and 1870; the "decade previous," then, must have been that from 1850 to 1860. Table IV, just above, gives the area of group 2 in 1850 at 294,698 square miles. In 1860 this area had increased to 353,341 square miles, the increase during the decade being 58,643 square miles. Now, the area of group 2 in 1790 was 83,346 square miles; in 1880, it was 373,890 square miles. The increase in nine decades was 290,544 square miles; the average increase during each decade was 32,282 square miles. It would from this appear that "in the decade previous the increase of No. 2 was comparatively "*great*. A study of the table and the context will show that the mistake is in the number of the group. The sentence was doubtless intended to read: "It should also be noted that in the decade previous the increase of No. 1 was comparatively slight."

Table X (pp. xxvii and xxviii) places the entire area of Maryland in groups 3 and 4. Both the maps indicate that the great bulk of Baltimore County in that State, besides a small part of Harford and Cecil Counties, is in group 5. The area of Baltimore County is 600 square miles (see Special Census Bulletin on Areas, p. 15); its population in 1880 was 83,336 (see p. 64). It contained no cities or towns of 8,000 or more inhabitants (see pp. 204, 205, 207, 208). It had, therefore, in 1880 a population of 138 to the square mile. The table (X, pp. xxvii and xxviii) should have credited some 500 or 600 square miles of the area of Maryland to group 5.

The map places a section of Georgia to the south of Atlanta in group 5. Now, as the Census volume tells us (p. xxv), group 5 exists only where "manufacturing and trading villages are numerous." We are, of course, desirous of learning the exact extent of this thickly-settled portion of the South; but on turning to the table (X, pp. xxvii and xxviii) it will be discovered that the entire area of Georgia is put in groups 1, 2, 3, and 4. The section map indicates that the very part of the State which the main map places in No. 5 is really in No. 4. The map-maker has blundered: "manufacturing and trading villages" are not yet numerous enough in Georgia to support a population of 90 to the square mile.

The map marks a tract of land lying on both sides of the boundary-line between Kansas and Missouri, as in group 5. The development of the former State has unquestionably been very rapid, but it would hardly have been anticipated that any part of it had in 1880 more than 90 inhabitants to every square mile. That such should be the case seems even harder to understand when another glance at the map shows that group 4 has no existence in the State. One portion of Kansas would thus appear to have a population of 90 to the square mile, and all the rest less than 45. The table (X, pp. xxvii and xxviii) credits 290 square miles of the settled area of Kansas to group 4, and none to group 5, which latter group, according to the table, does not exist in Missouri either. Now, 290 square miles would seem to be about the area of that portion of Kansas which the map places in group 5. The explanation of the contradiction suggests itself: the maker of the map put "V" where he should have put "IV."

We have already seen that the maps purport to mark cities of 8,000 inhabitants or upward by circles of solid color. On the map for 1870, Cumberland, Md., with a population of 8,056 (see p. 204), Frederick, Md., with a population of 8,526 (see p. 205), and Madison, Ind., with a population of 10,709 (see p. 151), are properly designated. In 1880 these cities each had over 8,000 inhabitants, Cumberland having 10,693 (see p. 204), Frederick, 8,659 (see p. 205), and Madison, 8,945 (see p. 151). The first and last-named do not appear at all on the map for 1880, while Frederick is represented by a hollow circle such as is used to mark places like Meridian, Miss., whose population was 4,008 (see p. 235), and Prescott, Arizona, whose population was 1,836 (see p. 99).

The case of Raleigh, N. C., is still more curious. In 1870 its population was 7,790 (see p. 284). In 1880 it had 9,265 inhabitants (see p. 284). The draftsman "has left undone that thing which he ought to have done, and has done that thing which he ought not to have done." On the map for 1870, Raleigh is represented by a circle of solid color, on that for 1880 by a hollow circle.

There is a strange and very serious error in the map for 1870. That map indicates that in that year there was not a city west of the ninety-seventh meridian with 8,000 or more inhabitants. In point of fact, there were eight cities whose population exceeded 8,000. Their names, population in 1870, and the authority for that statement of population, are given below:

Name of City.	Population.	Authority.
San Francisco, Cal.	149,473	Page 109
Oakland, Cal.	10,500	" 107
Sacramento, Cal.	16,283	" 109
Stockton, Cal.	10,066	" 109
San José, Cal.	9,089	" 109
Portland, Oregon	8,293	" 304
San Antonio, Tex.	12,256	" 341
Salt Lake City, Utah	12,854	" 352

This blunder cannot be considered an unimportant one. The map conveys to a person looking at it an entirely erroneous impression of the social and industrial condition of the western half of the country in the year 1870.

I do not pretend to have mentioned all the mistakes in these maps and tables. Space will not allow me to speak of all that I have discovered, and I have no reason to doubt that there are many that have escaped my somewhat hasty examination. In my next letter I hope to point out errors in some of the other maps and their corresponding tables.

JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, MD.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE STAR-ROUTE PROSECUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 17th inst. you say: "Mr. Carpenter's address to the jury on Monday was one of the most impudent harangues ever delivered in a court of justice. He denounced the Attorney-General for appearing in the case, and denied that it was possible that the President could have instructed him to prosecute."

There is, sir, an error in the foregoing which should not have occurred in a public journal professedly conducted upon principles of impartiality, and aspiring to a place above the level of mere sensationalism. I did no injustice to the Attorney-General. In manner and form, I treated him with the respect due to his reputation and experience. I did suggest, and truly, and as I had a right to do, that his appearance in the case was without precedent in our history; but if you will examine the report of my argument as it is printed, you will not fail to discover that the word "denounce," as applied to the remarks in question, is not appropriate.

The Attorney-General of the United States, in the prosecution of a cause in an inferior court of criminal jurisdiction, can have no other status than that of assistant of, or substitute for, the regular prosecuting officer. There surely have been cases of more importance to the public than the one here considered—cases to which the United States was a party—in no one of which did the Attorney-General see fit to appear. Aaron Burr was tried for treason, and, in two instances, persons charged as the assassins of Presidents have been held to answer, and yet no Attorney-General deemed himself called upon to interpose. I did take the liberty to infer from this exceptional and most significant circumstance, that there was an underlying, undisclosed motive in the proceeding. I did suggest that the prosecution was a political rather than a judicial affair. I did deny that the President had any rightful authority or influence in determining the result; that he had, either personally or vicariously, standing or voice in the tribunal; that he was, in any sense, a judicial officer; and so I still deny. I hold, moreover, that any intervention of his in a judicial proceeding, whether by direct action or informal influence, would be a usurpation of power denied to him by the Constitution, and an outrage upon the party against which it is exercised. I did contend that the duty of the jury was to found its verdict upon the evidence, and that all other matters should be rigorously excluded from their consideration; and, as this is in accordance with a principle as old as the common law, I fail to discover the justice of your criticism.

The journalistic mind of the United States has become so enlisted for the conviction of the defendants, that it seems to have parted with what power of discrimination it previously possessed. As if the safety of the republic, or the respectability of the American people in the eyes of the rest of mankind, depended upon such conviction, it has been inclined to approve of whatever agencies or influences might be employed to insure the desired result, irrespective of their legitimacy. If the reprobates—as it deems them—of the Star-route connection cannot be brought to face their deserts without a departure from the forms and maxims which have hitherto obtained as conservative of the rights of the accused, let

there be such departure. It has become a custom of the press to characterize the deportment of the prosecuting counsel as all that is mild, ingenuous, and conciliatory, while that of the defending is described as all that is rude, acrimonious, and dictatorial. The addresses to the jury upon one side are represented as eminently candid, impartial, and veracious; those upon the other as exceptionally ill-tempered, ambidexterous, and sophistical. There has not been this difference. The dividing line between urbanity and incivility has not been coincident with that between the defence and the prosecution. The defence has thought it matter of imperative duty to animadvert with some severity upon the palpable enlistment of Executive authority and influence as a factor in the prosecution; and, if examples were needed to demonstrate its right so to do, they could be cited in abundance. I do not expect to silence the thousand tongues of error clamoring through the press in all parts of the country; but, in consideration of the character of the *Nation*, I have ventured to offer so much by way of vindication and correction.

Very truly yours, R. B. CARPENTER.

WASHINGTON, Aug. 26, 1882.

[The Attorney-General must be allowed to judge whether a case calls for his appearance in it or not. There is nothing improper, *per se*, in his appearance in any case, and it is certainly not open to the counsel for the defence to object to it because it is "unprecedented." The case itself is unprecedented. No other has occurred in which a leading officer of the Government has been charged with swindling the Government on an immense scale, in collusion with a United States Senator and the Chairman of the National Committee of the party in power. Such a charge is far more serious and more dangerous to the state than either treason or murder, and from its very nature more difficult to prove, and therefore needing more attention from the law officers of the Government. Moreover, the President's former relations, both political and personal, with Dorsey and Brady, make it imperatively necessary that he should leave nothing undone to satisfy the public that he honestly and earnestly seeks to have them brought to justice. There has been a great deal too much "abuse of the plaintiff's attorney" in the case already.—ED. NATION.]

THE IRREPRESSIBLE CONFLICT IN OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The writer of the brief notice of Senator Sherman's Mansfield speech in your last issue seems to understand but imperfectly the situation in Ohio. The pith of that paragraph lies in the oft-repeated statement that in such matters as temperance public sentiment is higher than law, and that public sentiment tends toward "tolerance."

The temperance Republicans of Ohio—and all agree that they constitute the moral strength of the party—do not seek for laws in advance of public sentiment. What is the gauge of public sentiment? The ballot. We ask that the sense of the people be taken on this great question. If a majority of the voting men of Ohio want free whiskey, and a Sunday given to debauchery, we shall submit, and wait until public sentiment can be elevated. But if a majority are ready to vote for restrictive enactments, that is the sign that public sentiment sustains such laws. You may be sure astute politicians like Sherman and Foster would not embarrass their party with this question if they did not know that there is public sentiment behind it.

But this public sentiment "has its fits and starts, and always develops itself in the way of tolerance." These fits and starts occur in reference to all laws. It is safe to say that throughout the country one-half the actual violators of law go "unwhipt of justice," screened, to some extent, by a kind of public sentiment. In regions haunted by the late lamented Jesse James public sentiment, with a certain large class, "tolerated" robbery; but that public sentiment tends toward such tolerance, who can believe? No one has proposed to interfere with a man's having wine or whiskey on his own table—that is his undisputed right. But drunkenness all civilized nations recognize and punish as a crime, and we venture to affirm that public sentiment will be less and less tolerant of that as man advances. So of the drinking den. There may be in Europe, or may once have been, liquor-sellers of the type of the wily Miss Napier in 'Robert Falconer,' but their date is out. The liquor-dealers with whom we have to do are simply bent upon their gains, and they are the great corrupters of the public morals. Society must be reformed by moral means, to be sure, but it was demonstrated in the Washingtonian movement, as often since, that moral means can only win a partial and insecure victory, unless sustained by law. The strongest public sentiment will not suppress or control your saloonist, unless it is crystallized into law, precisely like the sentiment against robbery.

Now, the saloonists of Ohio have had things their own way and scorn control. The regulations imposed upon them have been few, and purposely devised in such a way that they could not be enforced. There are no such restrictions as are prevalent even in Germany. Governor Foster (and he is not even an abstainer himself) publicly declares that "the traffic goes unrestrained, . . . and as a consequence there is hardly a family relationship in the State but counts at least one victim to this horrible traffic. . . . And the action of the liquor-dealers raises the question as to whether the (existing) law shall be enforced or not. They openly defy the law."

Is not here an "irrepressible conflict"? Will public sentiment ever tolerate such a condition of affairs as the Governor has described? It is refreshing to lay aside the petty and personal squabbles which so generally characterize State politics, and take hold of a real issue, one promising to check this business, which is the cause, according to Governor Foster, of nine-tenths of the crime and poverty of our State. Shall we not by so doing rob the low politicians of one great source of strength, and do our part toward ushering in that political millennium of which the *Nation* is the herald?

Very respectfully, WM. G. FROST.

OBERLIN, O., August 21.

DECAY OF THE FIGHTING PASSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was much interested by your comments upon Mr. Nadal's statements in regard to the "fighting passion," as shown in Byron's heroes, for example; a passion the manifestation of which is known to be greatly diminished in our time, and especially in this country.

While admitting the "commercial" element of which you speak as a powerful factor in bringing about our national amiability, may I ask if there are not other reasons quite as effective in the suppression of individual resentment, which result from the conditions of modern democratic society? First among these conditions perhaps is more a complete organization, by virtue of which protection from injury, and avenging of insults, are lodged with officials. A man accustomed to pay taxes for the protection of public and private safety is less likely to risk resisting an attack from a ruffian, by force of muscle or use of pistols, than he is to call for the police, or to seek his revenge in the law-courts. In other words, his personal injury is atoned for by legal remedies.

Again, has not the general use of fire-arms introduced an element in personal encounter which handicaps terribly the attempt to revenge one's honor? Prowess, as opposed to powder, is at but sorry odds; and brave men nowadays seem to have acquired a habit of appealing to common sense, if there is room for any appeal at all in an attack upon life, property, or one's good name. It is difficult on other grounds to account for the tame submission of large companies of men to the command of one masked villain with a revolver — circumstances in which the instinct of commercial shrewdness would be little involved, as even the most sanguine of "commercial travellers" would have but slender hope of effecting a trade with the threatening ruffian.

With these and other kindred causes operating in our social life is to be remembered, in regard to the great mass of the population, the obliteration, not so much of individual resentment, as of the *individual himself*, in the nineteenth century. More than of old, men hesitate to do the spontaneous thing. They are more self-conscious; they look to see what others are doing; they intrench themselves in the security of the crowd, of which they form a part. One hardly ventures to affirm that the high organization which gives compactness and power to the whole body, may diminish vigor of character in any one of the component parts. Yet, at our present stage of development, it would seem as if some such cause accounted partly, at least, for what Mr. Howells has called "our greatness as a nation and our weakness as a people."

S. W. W.

BEVERLY FARMS, August 21.

Notes.

GEORGE H. ELLIS, Boston, will issue next month an American edition of Miss Frances Power Cobbe's new work, 'The Peak in Darien.' The name is derived from the last essay, of which the alternative title is, "The Riddle of Death."

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, promise, in their "Philosophical Classics," 'Schelling's Transcendental Idealism,' by Prof. John Watson, of Queen's University, Kingston.

Judge Tourgée's paper, *Our Continent*, has purchased and absorbed *Potter's American Monthly*.

Dr. Edward Eggleston's papers on "Life in the Thirteen Colonies" will begin in the November *Century*. They will be curiously illustrated.

The second part of vol. iii. of the Proceedings of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences contains a paper on the "Inscriptions on the Davenport Tablets" (supposed aboriginal relics), by Professor Seyffarth, which will confound the persecutors of the Chinese in this country. From some of the letters on these interesting stones he concludes boldly that "it is self-evident that America must have been populated by the next [nearest] nations, of course by the Japanese, Coreans, and Chinese." The Academy lost last December its devoted President, Mr. Joseph Duncan Putnam, and the third and concluding part of this volume will be entirely occupied with a memorial tribute to him.

A curious survival is the Official Catalogue of that German General Exhibition of Public Hygiene and Life Saving at Berlin which broke down last spring in consequence of the burning of the main building. It is a thick duodecimo, and, what with its lists of exhibitors and their articles and its advertisements, it has an obvious value even without the show. The Exhibition will be revived next spring, and the publishers, Messrs. Theodor Fischer and Julius Springer, promise a new catalogue in due season.

The leading articles in *Le Livre* for August are of an even and excellent quality. L. Derôme paves the way for bibliomaniacal competition for "first editions" of the tragic poet Crébillon, who has hitherto been, he holds, too much neglected in this regard. M. Eugène Muller, of the Arsenal Library, tells with much learning of the lucky find of three unpublished letters of Voltaire's, addressed to the Comte d'Argenson in 1754, seeking his protection against the possible unhappy consequences of the unauthorized printing of the 'Abrégé de l'Histoire Universelle.' These letters were discovered in a copy of Voltaire's 'Annales de l'Empire,' presented at that time to the Count, and form a series with one published by Beuchot in his great edition of Voltaire's complete works, and erroneously supposed to have been addressed to the Count's nephew, the Marquis de Paulmy. The entire episode is very interesting. Pleasant reading, also, is M. Eugène Forgues's contribution to the papers on the book-illustrators of the present century, his subject being Gigoux, who still survives, a venerable figure but little bent with years. As usual in this series, specimens are given of the artist's designs (to 'Gil Blas') and his portrait—a very French face—capitally reproduced from a crayon by himself. In a lighter vein is M. Ch. Collet's "The Old-Bookseller Achaintre and the Medical Student," but not uninstructive withal.

The August number of the *Journal of Dramatic Reform*, issued by the Dramatic Reform Association, of Manchester, England, contains an essay on the "Morality of the Drama," and an account of the Shaksperean examination for public elementary schools, instituted by the Association last year, and to be continued annually. The play selected for examination this year was the "Tempest," and next year it will be "Julius Cæsar." The *Journal* contains the question paper on the "Tempest," and it does not strike us as very profitable.

Of late there has been a great reform in the literary text-books in use in the better class of French schools. The old-fashioned notes, in which every beauty of the poet was extolled as a marvel, are giving place to more modern ones, in which illustrative citations and quotations explain the text, and to the teacher is left the duty of dwelling on the intrinsic qualities of the style. In a series of "Classiques Français" (Paris: Delagrave; New York: F. W. Christern), M. Pellisson, a graduate of the École Normale, and now Professor of Rhetoric at Angoulême, has prepared school editions of three of Molière's plays which recall the excellent series of Shaksperian plays edited by Mr. W. J. Rolfe. The three in question are "Tartufe," the "Avare," and the "Femmes Savantes"; no doubt others will follow. To each play is prefixed a biographical and critical study of Molière and of his style, succeeded by a special explanatory essay on the play to be read. At the foot of each page are judiciously brief remarks on grammatical and lexicographical points; and longer illustrative quotations and explanations are appended. Altogether, these editions seem to us much better than any in use in American schools—for students, at least, who are sufficiently advanced in French not to need any assistance in translation; and perhaps such students only should be allowed to read Molière.

A second edition of the 'Literary Reader,' part 2, prepared for the higher classes in (Dutch) schools, and for home-teaching, by Taco H. De Beer and Elisabeth Jane Irving, marks the interest felt in the English language in Holland, especially as the work has been entirely rewritten. The selections from English nineteenth-century writers are commendable, but the critical estimates hardly deviate from the generally accepted judgments. The English are followed in the absurd estimate put upon Poe; and in the case of our other literary lights very little deference is paid to American opinion. Emerson as a poet is wholly disregarded. Walt Whitman is classed under "novelists and humorists." We fail to identify the novelist "Passmore Edwards," who is ranked, as a warm supporter of the abolition cause, with Mrs. Stowe and Richard Hildreth.

We have received from Mr. Christern the first number of the *Baltischer Föderalist*, a "political liberal monthly, free from censorship," published at Geneva. As its title indicates, it is to be devoted to the interests of the Baltic provinces, although its rather meagre contents do not make it clear how these interests are to be advanced as distinguished from "liberal" interests elsewhere in Russia. The *Föderalist* is not in sympathy with either Russia or Germany; denounces Ignatieff as well as Aksakoff and Loris-Melikoff; considers Socialism the burning question of the day, yet finds neither Russian nor "European" Socialism suited to its purposes; protests against terrorism and "systematic political assassination," while predicting in leaded type that the Czar cannot possibly escape the Nihilistic attempts on his life, etc., etc.

—In an ancient city like Boston the number of the architectural relics of the past is against the paramount fame of any one of them. Partly for this reason and partly, it is true, from civic neglect, the Old State House has been quite overshadowed by Philadelphia's Independence Hall, a much younger building, and historically a good way in the rear when one examines the beginnings of colonial independence and revolt. The present Old State House, the second structure for public purposes on the same site, was built in 1713, and, though burnt out in 1747, retained its exterior walls. The upper halls, which, with the roof and other external features of the building, have been restored with the greatest accuracy and intelligence at the cost of the city, are now as nearly as possible the same as those in which Otis denounced the Writs of Assistance in 1761, when, as John Adams, a rapt spectator, declared, "Then and there was the first scene of the first act of opposition to the arbitrary claims of Great Britain; then and there the child Independence was born." Other stirring scenes in the same halls, in which Samuel Adams particularly figured as the opponent of Parliamentary usurpation, are described in the scholarly dedicatory address of Mr. Wm. H. Whitmore, of the Common Council, just published as a city document. One of these was the trial and acquittal of Captain Preston and his soldiers for the "Boston Massacre," which had occurred under the windows of the Old State House. Here, too, General Gage was sworn in as Governor of the province in 1774, and John Hancock as first Governor of the State in 1780. From the centre window of the Representatives' Hall Washington reviewed a procession in his honor in 1789. From 1830 to 1840 the city occupied the building for its municipal offices, Harrison Gray Otis being the first mayor to take possession. Mr. Whitmore's address is replete with interest, and may be had, we understand, on application to the City Messenger, Mr. A. H. Peters, at the City Hall. It is being elaborated by the author, who more than any other citizen was the promoter of the restoration, and in time it will be printed in more elegant form, with the aid, we hope, of abundant illustrations. The beautiful halls, now dedicated for ever to the public, are already much frequented from motives of curiosity and reverence.

—Two exceptions may be taken to Mr. Higginson's article on the "Visit of the Vikings," in the current *Harper*: first, as to the credit which this writer gives to Palfrey for having exploded the theory of the Norse origin of the Old Stone Mill at Newport; and second, to his statements of the opinions of the late Professor Diman concerning the Mount Hope Bay inscription. This inscription was first engraved and published in Mr. Miller's 'Notes on the Wampanoag Indians.' As to the first exception, Mr. Palfrey is entitled to no such credit. He simply copied another's work, and he very properly says so, thus: "Many of the facts in this note are taken from a little treatise entitled 'Controversy Touching the Old Stone Mill.'" This little treatise was written by the Rev. Charles T. Brooks, of Newport, where it was published in 1851, seven years before Mr. Palfrey published his history. It contains all that Palfrey gives, but it contains a great deal more. The engraving of the Leamington Mill is in it, copied, as the author says, from a cut in the *Penny Magazine*, for November, 1836. This cut Mr. Palfrey reproduces, with such changes, he says, as a personal inspection required; notwithstanding which, a personal inspection of the two engravings will show them to be precisely similar. The case against the Old Stone Mill is closed, but Mr. Higginson could have much strengthened his paper by a reference to Mr. George C. Mason's conclusive article in the *Magazine of American History* for September, 1879.

—The second exception refers to the very serious misrepresentation of the opinions held by the late Professor Diman concerning the visit of the Northmen. Mr. Higginson says: "But the remarkable fact is that Professor Diman, in giving a memorial address at Bristol, in 1880, after a rediscovery of the rock (in Mount Hope Bay), absolutely ignored its existence, and took pains to say that if the Norsemen ever were in that bay, they left no trace behind them." Professor Diman's oration was delivered September 24, 1880. Mr. Miller's 'Wampanoags' was published November 1, 1880. Mr. Diman knew nothing of the rediscovery of the rock, previous to the publication of Mr. Miller's book, which fact of course explains why he "absolutely ignored its existence." Moreover, the bay to which Diman makes reference is not the Mount Hope Bay where this rock lies, but Narragansett Bay. Immediately on the publication of the book a copy was sent to Mr. Diman, and he wrote a communication concerning it to the *Providence Journal*. In it he used the following language:

"But the feature of this book which gives it its special interest, and which is likely to call the attention of scholars to it very widely, is its incidental reference to the Northmen, and the account it gives of the very curious inscription that has been discovered near Mount Hope. An engraving of this inscription is given in the appendix, and a cursory glance is enough to show that if its genuineness can be established beyond a doubt, it furnishes by far the most decisive evidence that has ever been brought forward of the presence of the Northmen in our bay. The letters bear a much closer resemblance to Norse writing than the inscription upon Dighton Rock, which is now considered by the most competent judges to be the work of Indians. The Mount

Hope inscription is totally different in appearance, and, if we are not wholly deceived in our estimate of its importance, it will lead to a new discussion of the vexed question of the visits of the Northmen to Narragansett Bay."

When Mr. Higginson quotes: "If the Norsemen ever were in the bay, they left no trace behind them," he adds, "This verdict ought to be final." There is another paragraph, however, in Mr. Diman's memorial address which runs as follows: "We may accept without hesitation the claim that they (the Northmen) discovered Greenland, that they cruised along the coast of Labrador and Nova Scotia, and that they pursued their dangerous navigation as far south as Cape Cod and Narragansett Bay."

—The second session of the American Forestry Congress was held in Montreal on Monday and Tuesday, the 21st and 22d instant. The attendance was not large, and only remarkable from the entire absence of all the men to whom the country looks for instruction in regard to the condition and proper management of our forests. Dr. Loring presided in his usual graceful manner. His deportment was fine, and the hall "fairly rang with applause," we are told, at some of his graceful sallies, although, fortunately for his hearers, he did not confine himself very closely to the subject of the meeting. Science, according to the head of the Department of Agriculture of the United States, can do nothing more for forestry. Science has had its say on this subject, and the solution of the forest question must now be left to some other and presumably more effectual agent—the platform, no doubt. The usual amount of startling statistics were presented to the meeting—the number of times the railway-ties in use in the United States would stretch round the earth if placed end to end, and how big a pile of cord-wood these same ties would make, and how much bigger such a pile would be than the pile of wood made every year into matches, and so on—and much vague and general talk about forests was indulged in. The occasion, however, produced a few good papers. Mr. B. E. Fernon's, upon "Conditions of Forest Growth," was suggestive, and showed practical knowledge of the subject. Dr. Mohr, of Mobile, spoke of the distribution of the hard-wood trees of the Gulf Region—a subject on which his wide travels through the Southern States in connection with the Census investigation should have made him an authority. Professor Bickmore, Curator of the American Museum of Natural History of this city, who was to have described the nature and purposes of the really magnificent collections illustrative of the forests of the United States, which New York owes to the enlightened liberality of Mr. Morris K. Jesup, withdrew his paper in order to read it before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, convened in the same city.

—It is well known that 'Faust' was originally published as a fragment in the first authorized edition of Goethe's works, 1787-90. The bookseller Himburg, of Berlin, made the first complete collection of Goethe's writings, which he issued, without the author's sanction, in a very corrupt form. Goethe complained bitterly of the piracy, as the only recompense which he received for this infringement of his rights was the present of a piece of Berlin porcelain. He was led, however, to undertake the preparation of a complete edition of his works, which was published by Goeschen in Leipzig. The seventh volume contained 'Faust: a Fragment,' which was soon issued separately. Copies of 'Faust' in this latter form have become very rare, and Hirzel procured in England the copy contained in his valuable Goethe library, now the property of the University of Leipzig. Two reprints of this early 'Faust' have recently appeared. The one (published at Freiburg im Breisgau) is an exact reprint of Hirzel's copy, line for line, even to the size of the page. The type, punctuation, and typographical errors are faithfully reproduced. The second reprint (Heilbronn) contains a valuable introduction by the editor, discussing the relative value of the various editions that appeared in 1790. Four editions of 'Faust' were issued by the same publisher in that year. The question naturally arises, Which of these is the earliest, corresponding most nearly to the form as it was originally written by Goethe? After a careful comparison of eight texts, Seuffert concludes that the poem first appeared in the seventh volume of the collected works, and was issued separately, possibly printed from the same plates, the signatures at the bottom of the page being omitted, and a new title-page prefixed. The first five sheets were found reasonably free from errors, but the remaining five contained so many misprints that the types were reset, in which operation other mistakes were introduced. These sheets, as revised, were published in a second edition of Goethe's works, which appeared the same year. 'Faust' was issued separately in Leipzig, and, which seems to have escaped the knowledge of the editor, in Vienna. Hirzel's treasured volume, as well as Holland's facsimile reprint, is a copy, not of the first, but of the corrected edition. In the Seuffert (Heilbronn) edition, obvious errors of print are corrected; these changes are, however, indicated in the preface. Marginal numbers refer to the lines of the standard editions of Schroer and Von Loeper. The Holland edition, while thus relegated to the second place in point of time, has an independent interest as preserving the original typography of the first five editions. It may be added, as an illustration of the early indifference of Goethe to the text of his own writings, that he did not retain copies of the original editions of his works; and when he set about preparing a corrected edition, he used in some cases the corrupt text given by Himburg.

—Professor Ernst Haeckel continues, in the July *Rundschau*, his interesting "Letters from India." His sojourn in Ceylon promises to be rich in scientific results, the flora of the island having especially fascinated him. He speaks of the botanical garden of Peradenia, near the ancient "royal city" of Candy, as "the botanist's paradise." This wonderful region has furnished him with subjects for numerous drawings and water-color sketches, which will undoubtedly be given to the public in the full account of his expedition. The botanical garden was laid out by the British Government in 1819, and comprises 150 acres. It subserves not only scientific, but also practical purposes, inasmuch as the planters and gardeners of the island receive from it their supply of seed. At the time of Prof. Haeckel's visit, he met there Dr. Marshall Ward, Royal Cryptogamist of Great Britain, who was sent out by his Government two years ago to study the "coffee-leaf disease," which for a number of years has made such havoc among the coffee plantations of Ceylon. Dr. Ward fully recognized and described the nature of the fungus causing the blight (*hemileja vastatrix*), but failed to discover a remedy. As a reward for his arduous labors, he was severely attacked in the press, especially by coffee-planters; "as if," Prof. Haeckel takes occasion to say, "the hundreds of scientists who are in Europe engaged in similar investigations always succeeded in finding a remedy after recognizing the disease. The experienced physician and naturalist familiar with the facts knows that this is very rarely the case, and that the wonder rather is that there exists any specific at all, such as quinine is against fever." Haeckel found botanizing in Ceylon by no means pure pleasure; for while admiring a magnificent specimen of the oil palm (*elaeis*), he suddenly felt his legs attacked by half-a-dozen leeches (*hirudo ceylanica*), one of the worst of the many zoölogical plagues which infest that island. They crawl with wonderful rapidity up one's boots, boring their way through the stockings. Their bite is not always immediately felt, so that one evening Haeckel did not notice their presence on his body until he saw the blood trickling down his white trousers. The bite is not generally serious, but may sometimes become so. Prof. Haeckel protected himself afterward against them in his excursions by impregnating his high boots at the top with carbolic acid. He, however, made a much more dangerous acquaintance in a large cobra (*naja tripudians*), which crawled through the open garden-door into his bedroom, and was within a foot of him when noticed by his servant. Altogether, his visit to Ceylon did not lack the excitement and pleasure which the mere sportsman is sure to find there. He was, for instance, so fortunate as to kill at the first shot a colossal lizard, over six feet in length, the *hydrosaurus salvator*, so much dreaded by the superstitious natives.

—In an exhaustive review of the new edition of Overbeck's 'Geschichte der griechischen Plastik' (History of Greek Sculpture), in the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung*, the Egyptologist, Prof. Ebers, breaks a lance for ancient Egyptian art as the progenitor of Hellenic art. Contrary to Overbeck, he denies the autochthonic character of the earliest Grecian art, dwelling, with Pausanias and Strabo, on the resemblance between Greek and Egyptian statuary, so noticeable in the head-dress, and pointing out that even the symbolical figures, partly human, partly animal, the existence of which in Greece Overbeck denies, were occasionally imitated by the earliest Hellenic sculptors. Overbeck admits that in Grecian statues the ears were frequently placed too high—a peculiarity universally noticeable in the Egyptian heads of antiquity, and, according to Ebers, to be found in reality among modern Egyptians. Phœnician influence, he says, easily explains the imitation of Egyptian models in Hellas; for the Phœnicians had completely adopted Egyptian art, carrying the statuary manufactured on the Nile to Cyprus and other islands, as well as to the coast of Greece. It is scarcely derogatory to Grecian art, Prof. Ebers thinks, to assume that its archaic works were influenced by Egypto-Phœnician example, as we thus leave intact our conception of the Hellenic sense of beauty and truth to nature. Prof. Ebers intends to treat this subject more fully at a later day.

JOHN BRIGHT.

The Life and Speeches of the Right Hon. John Bright, M.P. By G. Barnett Smith. 2 vols. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.

To a student of human nature, few pursuits are more interesting than to trace out the essential contrast underlying the superficial similarity between the character of Cobden and the character of Bright. Such a comparison is certainly (in spite of the proverb) not "odious," and affords the best means for appreciating and understanding the strong and the weak points of the Quaker statesman, who will always be an impressive figure in the historical portrait-gallery of English worthies. To superficial observation, the two heroes of the free-trade movement appear the Siamese twins of public life,

They had everything in common which it was possible for two politicians to have in common without sacrificing the peculiarities of individual character. Their objects were the same. They both made the freedom of commerce, the maintenance of peace, the development, in short, of industrial progress, the ends of their statesmanship. They both sought to attain these aims by the same means—namely, by orderly agitation, and by appeals to the English democracy. They both, though at one time the acknowledged leaders of the popular party, were never republicans or, even in the Continental sense of the term, democrats. They both sprang from and represented the English middle class; and they were both imbued with the principles, the sentiments, or the prejudices of manufacturers. Hence they were both out of sympathy as well with the nationalist as with the communistic doctrines which, for thirty years, convulsed foreign society. Identity of opinion led to identity of action. On two occasions only, during a long Parliamentary career, were Cobden and Bright found voting on opposite lobbies. While they both lived, they uniformly shared both triumph and defeat. They both rose to fame with the success of the Anti-Corn Law League; they both suffered discredit from the failure to bring over their countrymen to the doctrines of the Peace Society; they both denounced the Crimean War; they both were at once horrified and amazed at the influence of Palmerston; they both were utterly defeated in their struggle against Palmerstonian popularity. As the tide of sentiment which had brought and kept Palmerston in power began to ebb, Cobden and Bright alike regained authority. The one never took office, but he negotiated the French treaty; the other has now been three times a member of the Cabinet, and could hardly be excluded, against his own will, from any Liberal Ministry.

Perfect unity both in opinion and in action has been, moreover, in the case of Cobden and Bright, combined with loyal, complete, and unbroken friendship. When, on the death of his colleague, Mr. Bright uttered in Parliament the few words which conclude with the sentence—"I have only to say that, after twenty years of most intimate and almost brotherly friendship with him, I little knew how much I loved him until I found I had lost him"—every one knew that this language was the expression of the simplest truth. The range of political history may be searched through without revealing one other instance of friendship between political allies so tender and so unbroken as the tie which bound together the two freetraders. It is indeed possible that this closeness and permanence of union between two men, each of whom was endowed with marked individuality, was due to the contrast between their characters; for Cobden and Bright were at bottom as different as two persons can be who adopt the same principles and adhere to the same course of action. Cobden was essentially a thinker. Cobden's rapid intellectual development, the marvellous use he made of every opening for self-education, his restless curiosity, his keen observation, his belief in his theories, his devotion to them, his argumentative prowess in their defence—are the traits which arrest the attention of all thoughtful readers of the excellent biography by Mr. Morley. Cobden's conduct was throughout life governed by his intellectual conceptions. His ideas of progress forced him to labor for their realization. These conceptions became, in a true sense, his religion. Hence he was by conviction, in virtue, one may say, of the faith that was in him, a reformer or an innovator. But the method which he adopted to promote the cause which he had at heart was accidental. He was an innovator by nature; he was an agitator and a speaker by the force of circumstances. Argument was natural to him; but the fact that he argued before assemblies and harangued popular meetings was the mere result of his position. Under different circumstances he might have been an official and an administrator, and have applied his powers of persuasion to convincing monarchs or ministers instead of using them to convince meetings or associations. He was at least as much at home in the negotiation of the French treaty as in conducting the affairs of the League. He was never, in any true sense, a Liberal; he was scarcely a democrat. By nature he was an administrative reformer, connected by moral and intellectual affinities far more closely with ministers such as Turgot than with oratorical statesmen or agitators such as Grattan or O'Connell.

Cobden was, therefore, according to the point of view you take, at once a much less or a much more thoroughgoing innovator than he appeared to the public. He had no taste for disorder or violence; he had none of the revolutionary fervor for change; he had, to judge by his attitude, not only as regards the *Coup d'état*, but also as regards our Civil War, little sympathy with the desire for freedom as distinguished from the desire for rational and orderly government. On the other hand, he was utterly uninfluenced by the Conservative respect for established forms; he had not any desire to keep to the "lines of the Constitution." In plain truth, he had no respect for the Constitution itself. He avowed his preference for the administrative efficiency of the Prussian beaurocracy to the apparent inefficiency of English constitutionalism. Had he ever been in power, he would, we suspect, have been found one of the most efficient, the most daring, and the most restless of administrators. An enthusiastic theorist, endowed with gifts of practical management, will go far greater lengths in the way of change than will the most vehement of orators. Moreover, as we have said, Cobden's theories of progress were his religion. With the fervor and sincerity of his social views is, it may be suspected, closely connected his calmness or neutrality as to what are generally called religious questions. He was, to judge by Mr. Morley's account, a churchman who, like the mass of English churchmen, accept calmly the creed in which they are educated, and as regards their political and social convictions leave this creed altogether out of account. Cobden was, to judge by every sign by which one man can judge another, as good a man as has ever taken part in English public life; but his goodness had little connection with the religion which is, or is not, taught in churches.

No one fact marks so clearly the contrast between Cobden and Bright as the different relation of the two statesmen to their religious creed. Cobden's churchmanship is a matter of very secondary importance. It perhaps preserved him from a special form of sectarian narrowness; it certainly had no other effect on his public life. George Combe's 'Constitution of Man' contributed much more to his moral development than did the Prayer-Book. Bright's Quakerism, on the other hand, is the key to his character. It has colored his convictions, his oratory, his political conduct. No one will ever appreciate Mr. Bright's powers or their limitations who does not remember that the one Dissenter who has since 1662 played a leading part in English public life was by birth, by training, and by sympathy, a member of the Society of Friends. That Quakerism has given to Bright his deepest convictions is, in one sense, patent to every one. His earliest efforts as a politician were directed against the union of Church and State, against capital punishment, against just those features in English institutions which are most opposed to the Quaker theory of life. It is of much more consequence to notice that his eloquence itself derives its special peculiarities from his creed. His oratorical genius was, like every other form of genius, the gift of nature; but the specific character of his oratory has, in two or three different ways, been impressed with the Quaker spirit. Its peculiar beauty is its simplicity, its directness, its massiveness. Let a Quaker be inspired with eloquence, and that eloquence must of necessity resemble the speaking of John Bright. It is, again, to Quakerism that one may to a great extent refer a peculiarity in his speeches which has been more often noticed than understood. Bright has done more than most speakers to affect the convictions of Englishmen. But Bright—in this point utterly unlike Cobden—never argues. He is neither the sympathetic reasoner, such as Mill, who tries at any rate to enter into the position of his opponents, nor is he the cogent logical reasoner, such as Cobden, who meets opponents with an array of clear, forcible arguments, which, if you once grant their premises, constrain an almost inevitable acquiescence in their conclusions. Bright's strength lies not in argument, but in the statement and enforcement of the strong points, and especially the strong moral points, of his case. His speeches against the Crimean War produced in the long run as much effect for good or bad on public opinion as any speeches which have ever been delivered. The fruit they have borne is a good deal more visible in 1882 than it was in 1854 or 1857. These addresses owe their effectiveness not to argumentative force, but to the vividness with which they bring before popular imagination the actual and indubitable horrors of war, the apparent remoteness of the interests for the sake of which soldiers are tortured and slain on the battle-field, and the immense material losses which counterbalance the problematic gains of warfare. To the reasons for and against the war with Russia, nothing is directly added. But hundreds who had never till they had listened to Bright realized what war is, were forced while hearing him to recognize the greatness of its evils, and thus to feel that nothing but the most unanswerable reasoning could justify a civilized or Christian nation for having recourse to arms.

Exactly the same remark applies in principle to his speeches upon reform or upon Ireland. Here, again, what you find is not argument, but the forcible statement of certain facts which, as far as they go, tell in favor of the orator's conclusions. It were easy to find a hundred answers, good, bad, or indifferent, to Mr. Bright's proposals for the extension of the franchise; but no one could read the utterances of the member for Birmingham without feeling, as he had never felt it before, the anomaly of the fact that in a country boasting of its free government the vast majority of the people had no share in what is called popular representation. His numerous addresses on Irish grievances, and his proposals for the remedy of Irish grievances, were and are open to much criticism—constructive statesmanship is utterly foreign to Mr. Bright's genius; but, on the other hand, these speeches and these proposals made it absolutely impossible for any candid man to blink the facts of Irish misery and of Irish discontent. English government in Ireland has failed of the result which it is the aim of all good government to attain: it has not produced prosperity, happiness, or even peace among the Irish people. All Englishmen know that this is so; and that they acknowledge it, is owing in great part to the speeches—one had almost said the sermons—of John Bright. For the point to notice in criticising his character is that

he always has been a preacher, and a preacher of the Quaker type. The very essence of a sermon, as contrasted with an argument, is to appeal and give new strength to moral principles which every one admits—to turn truisms into truths. The essence of Quakerism is to regard the dictates of a good man's own conscience as in some sense the inspiration of the Spirit of God; and the salient feature of Bright's oratory is that he preaches—that is, appeals to prevailing moral feelings and acts, speaks and denounces—with the certainty of a man who has been accustomed to regard his convictions as dictated by the voice of Heaven.

At this point we pass from the nature of his oratory to the very fundamental characteristic of his genius. Cobden was, as we have said, at bottom a thinker. If we might be allowed a misuse of language, we should say of Bright that he was at bottom a "feeler." His convictions rest on feeling or sentiment as surely as the convictions of his friend rested on reasoning. Nor can one avoid the conclusion that Quakerism, which teaches its disciples to consider the dictates of a good man's conscience—in other words, his feelings—as in some sense inspired, must stimulate the tendency to rely on moral sentiment as a sure guide amidst the perplexities of political life. When, on his recent retirement from the Ministry, Mr. Bright explained his action by the necessity of obeying the moral law, he obviously did not perceive the indirect censure which he passed upon colleagues whom he quitted with feelings of deep regret and of undiminished esteem and affection. He did not perceive, further, either the retort to which he at once laid himself open at the mouth of Mr. Gladstone, or the assumption which he tacitly made, not only that international dealings ought to be governed by reference to the moral law (which few persons will dispute), but that the moral rules of private life made for transactions between man and man are at once applicable to dealings between nation and nation. But if Mr. Bright, versed as he is in public affairs, and accustomed to dealings with men, failed to perceive the effect of his words, or the assumptions which his position involved, the failure was assuredly due partly to his being influenced far more by feeling than by thought, and still more to the fact that his attitude was exactly in accordance with the natural and, we may say, inevitable assumptions or beliefs of a Quaker.

Let no one, however, suppose that Bright has always been at a disadvantage as compared with Cobden, owing to his reliance on moral sentiment rather than on a reasoned-out theory of politics. A man may be a thinker, and even a logical thinker, but, if his theories rest upon unsound or narrow premises, they may lead to results far less in accordance with truth than the conclusions of a friend who is guided mainly by sound moral sentiment. On one occasion, at least, Cobden and Bright were all but divided by a tacit, though perhaps not quite acknowledged, difference of political sympathies. Cobden was a very lenient judge of Secession. Bright, from first to last, denounced the republic of slave-owners in the sternest language of political and moral denunciation. In plain truth, he lent his moral support to the armies of the North. It is easy enough to point out the superficial inconsistency between his denunciations of war and his zeal on behalf of a republic engaged in suppressing rebellion by the use of gigantic armies. It is far fairer and more instructive to note that the inconsistency, if such it were, was, in truth, the result of essential moral consistency. The wars which Bright denounced seemed to him to have no moral justification. A war for freedom against slavery was a crusade which roused all his best and strongest moral feelings. No one now doubts that Bright's fervor gave him an insight into the affairs of this country which escaped the penetration of Cobden's logical intellect. The attitude of the two men toward the United States is also connected with another difference between them which it is hardly possible to leave without notice. Bright was far more of a democrat than his ally, and, odd as the combination sounds, he was, and we are convinced he is, far more of a Conservative. Bright sympathized with popular government. He has been in office, but he has never displayed any of Cobden's administrative talent. Hence he unrestrainedly admired the American democracy. Hence, too, he has never exhibited any wish for fundamental changes in the Constitution of England.

Of the influence for good and bad of Bright's democratic conservatism we may write on another occasion. In an estimate of his character, the point to note is its conservative bias. He has, for instance, distinctly repudiated all sympathy with Home Rule, on the strictly conservative ground that two representative Assemblies would be an "intolerable mischief," and that no sensible man can wish for them "who does not wish the United Kingdom to become two or more nations." He has even more distinctly declined to express so much as an opinion in favor of republicanism. As to *opinions* on the question of monarchy or republicanism, "I hope and believe it will be a long time before we are asked to give our opinion; our ancestors decided the matter a good while since, and I would suggest that you and I should leave any further decision to our posterity." The appeal to the wisdom of our ancestors is, in its way, exquisite. Cobden was no more a republican than Bright, but we doubt whether he ever thought of pausing in any reform because our "ancestors had decided the matter a good while since."

RECENT NOVELS.

The "Lady Maud": Schooner Yacht. From the Account of a Guest on Board. By W. Clark Russell. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Desmond Hundred. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

A Paladin of Finance: Contemporary Manners. By Edward Jenkins, M.P. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

A Mere Caprice. By Mary Healy (Jeanne Mairet). Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.

Anne. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Harper & Bros.

Aschenbroedel. [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

An English "Daisy Miller." By Virginia W. Johnson. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Yesterday: an American Novel. Henry Holt & Co.

Antinous: a Romance of Ancient Rome. By George Taylor. From the German by Mary J. Safford. New York: William S. Gottsberger.

Leone. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

"So They Were Married." A Novel. By Walter Besant and James Rice. Illustrated. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

It is hard to say why 'The *Lady Maud*' is not as good a sea-story as the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*.' It has plenty of incident and excitement, and the power of marine and nautical description displayed is just as marked. It is no more overloaded with the technical lingo of the sea than the earlier story, and yet it cannot be denied that it is hardly likely to add much to the author's reputation. The explanation of the inferiority of the story probably lies in the fact that its whole structure is felt to be artificial rather than natural. There was an unconscious art about the earlier story which riveted the attention upon the ill-fated vessel from the moment she left her moorings to the rescue of the survivors of her wreck at the close, and produced the keenest kind of dramatic and human interest. Misfortune and disaster succeeded each other with startling and extraordinary rapidity, and yet it all seemed credible, because everything that occurred had a plausible connection with what had gone before, and indeed seemed to be made perfectly natural by it. There is nothing of this kind in 'The *Lady Maud*.' She was undoubtedly a very fine vessel, and it is melancholy to think that she should have gone to pieces on one of the Bahama Cays, and that the wife of the owner, Sir Mordaunt Brookes, should have lost her life on a voyage which her husband persuaded her into taking for the benefit of her health; and there is a high degree of probability in the part played by the drunken skipper Purchase in the story; and Miss Tuke is a nice girl, with no more of the flirt about her than we feel to be natural under the circumstances. But the reader does not believe in the *Lady Maud* or her passengers. He feels that they have a literary taint which makes them unreal, and that there never was any such voyage or any such wreck, and that all the incidents of it are mere clever inventions of a sailor who has determined to write a thrilling tale, no matter at what cost.

Mr. Russell's power of minute and life-like description of sea-scenes is his most marked gift, and curiously enough, notwithstanding his long experience of the sea, his photographic pictures bring out just the same points in relief which would be apt to strike most vividly the imagination of the greenest landsman. There is in 'The *Lady Maud*' a description of a tropical storm which, for vividness, cannot be surpassed in the literature of the sea:

"But our doubts were soon resolved. We had scarcely shipped our waterproof coats when some rain fell. Each drop was as big as an egg, and though the fall did not last longer than a man could count twenty, yet so great was the weight of the drops that the deck boomed to the fall. Then came a pause, with nothing breaking the silence but the gushing sounds of water sluicing out of the scupper-holes into the sea. I was in the act of addressing Sir Mordaunt when a flash of lightning of the very color of sunlight struck through the blackness; nay, had the sun himself looked out in his full glory, he could not have spread a more piercing, widespread splendor. It was like looking at the yacht and the sea in the light of full noontide. How the eye could master so many objects in that breathless gush of yellow flame I cannot tell, but I could not have seen more had five minutes been allowed me. The masts, the line of bulwarks, the group of men standing motionless near the foremast in a crouching posture, some of them with their hands to their eyes, the whole sea black as ink, leaning its sharp ebon circle against the sulphur-colored radiant heaven—all these things I saw in that one second, and then the darkness was insufferable, thick as dense folds of midnight vapor, not a stir nor moan of air in it, of an opacity that made me pant, as though the black envelopment suffocated me. The flash fell from right overhead, and it seemed that the crash must follow before the blaze went out. This expectation made the two or three seconds of silence that followed appear as long as a minute; but then came the most ear-splitting roar that had ever deafened me. A crash indeed, not a succession of peals, but one stupendous, unechoing explosion, that, smiting the oily surface of the water, boomed away in a dreadful roar, sinking and sinking its cadence until it became a soft melodious echo in the distance."

It is hard to say whether 'The Desmond Hundred' is intended as a novel of American life, or

a religious novel, or both. So far as the plot goes, it might be of almost any country; but the scene is partly laid in New England, and most of the characters are New England people, and the author, whoever she is (for it may be assumed that she is a woman), has a high estimation of New England. Still, the hero of the book is a clergyman, who renounces the woman he loves and allows his brother to marry her, and there is a great deal about religion in the course of the story. Several of the characters, again, are English, and there is something in the tone of the religion and of the love which is not American. The author is evidently very much at home in New England, and the more commonplace New England characters and dialogue in the book are very good. The story opens with the preparations for the reception in a New England village of the popular Dr. Manoah Sampson, who is bringing his wife—*née* Miss Nazareth Pitcher—home. He has been "boarding" at Deacon Flint's, and he is bringing his wife home to "board" with him. The book opens as follows:

"'Be you going to have slapjacks, Celyndy, along with your cream-toast?' asked Mrs. Wood, standing with her arms akimbo, and watching her sister-in-law, who was sifting flour upon a great table quite as white as the flour.

"Celyndy, thus addressed, turned an apologetic little smile upon her hard-visaged relative, and replied softly, 'Well, yes, I guess so, Roxy. The Doctor, he's awful fond of my slap-jacks, and it ain't no trouble to speak of. Easter 'll fry 'em.'

"'Ye—es,' replied Mrs. Wood, meditatively. 'Only, if you'll take my advice, Celyndy, you'll begin with this woman the way you mean to hold out. Ef she sees slap-jacks and toast, and white bread and brown bread, and hot nut-cakes, and four kinds of pie, and pound and loaf, besides sa'ace, and I don't know what all, the first meal, maybe she'll think it's always going to be so, and the Doctor's ten dollars a week ain't a-going to pay for all that—not to have nothing left over, that is.'"

The novel, altogether, is above the average in the drawing of character, but in plot is rather weak, and in places vague.

Mr. Jenkins has apparently drawn the plot of his novel from the history of the Union Générale of Paris. He narrates the invention, rise, progress, and collapse of a great scheme of Catholic finance. Cosmo, the chief promoter of the Crédit Catholique, is an Italian, who comes to Paris, the possessor of a grand financial conception, which is from one point of view a scheme for helping Catholic objects by means of financial combinations of Catholic capital, and, from another, a plan for making through the use of Catholic enthusiasm a fortune for himself. He explains his project in such eloquent and glowing language to Marguerite de Rocheraie, the beautiful and devoted wife of the rich Catholic Marquis de Rocheraie, that she easily falls a victim to his wiles; but his main argument with the "solid men" of the story is simple bribery and corruption. Most of the promoters have large concessions and percentages, which are, of course, kept a secret from the body of the stockholders and from all the promoters who might be inclined to look upon such machinery with distrust and aversion. The scheme is finally floated, and the shares go up at a fabulous rate. Every one becomes enormously rich on paper; a few of the more knowing ones sell out in time, and become rich in reality; and finally a grand crash comes which brings the entire house of cards down about the ears of the great body of dupes, and the few honest promoters are involved in the general ruin.

Cosmo's operations are described by Mr. Jenkins with a great deal of skill. His speech by which he gains the assistance of the Marquise is a masterpiece. In substance the argument by which he wins her over is as follows: He begins with a sketch of the position of the Catholic Church, surrounded by the forces of Antichrist, English Protestantism, Continental atheism, Republican socialism, and, in addition to all the rest, the Jews. All these forces must be met and beaten, and the hardest of all to beat are the Jews, for they embody the motive-power of the modern world—finance. Protestant forms of belief are withering away and drying up under the intense sunlight of science. The Protestant Reformation attempted to create a "rational enthusiasm," and such an enthusiasm is a contradiction in terms; consequently, Protestantism is breaking down. Atheism is an old foe of the Church; but it has been conquered before, and will be again. "Socialism, the negation of all authority, with its modified forms of limited monarchy, constitutional government, republicanism, communism, is only Protestantism carried to its logical extremes." But Judaism is something quite different from all these. It permeates everything, not as a religious force, but because, instead, it offers "not a speculative chance of good things in an unknown eternity, but the enjoyments of the present." The power of the Jews is the power of finance—the power of the purse—which means the power of government, the control of policy, the direction of armies, the influence of the press. The Jew's new promised land is the whole world; he is buying up everything—real estate, railroads, banks, mines, the newspapers, all are passing into his hands. It is the Jew who is the great enemy of the Church. He is undermining religion by appealing to the passions most in vogue—avarice, ambition, the love of pleasure, of possession, of display, of power. And now we come to the grand idea: "The Church was rich—very rich. The wealth of its foundations, of its noble and ignoble capitalists, was prodigious—incalculable; but it was disorganized, and it was not exploited. Wealth, permitted to stagnate, lost its vitality; it was not a benefit, it was a poison. The Jew never allowed money to remain in his pocket; by keeping it moving, he turned four or five per cent. into a hundred per cent. If Catholicism would hold its own in the world—nay, would grasp the power of the world—it must grasp the reins of finance; it must dislodge and conquer the Jew."

Of course, this could only be done by a company—a great combination of Catholic capital, to control the railroads, the mines, the press, the telegraph, public opinion—everything now passing into the hands of the Jews. That such arguments as these might have great influence with a good Catholic woman, when presented by a man of Cosmo's power of statement and argument, is probable enough, particularly if he is reinforced by the support and countenance of the Holy See. Cosmo not only has the Holy Father on his side, but he quietly secures a strong financial backing from a leading Jew firm, the members of which have no more objection to a financial operation in the interest of Catholicism than to any other, provided they have an opportunity to make money out of it. The main interest of the story lies in the effect which the development of the scheme has upon the fortunes of the Marquise, her husband, and a number of other characters representing various Parisian types. This is well told, except, perhaps, that there are too many financial details. How far the life is true to the life of Paris at the present day, is another matter, which, however, is of small consequence in a work of English fiction.

If 'A Mere Caprice' is not a translation, or a close following of some French original, then the writer has a power of reproducing thought and scenes from the French point of view which almost amounts to genius. The "caprice" is the whimsical fancy of a rich, heartless, and idle woman for an orphan girl. Her best motive is revenge upon her husband's relatives, so that it is only natural that upon the discovery that the girl has by her beauty unconsciously won the love of the artist who is the object of her own ardent passion, she ruthlessly turns her out of doors. The moral of the book is high and pure in intention: it is the artist who dreams of "an ideal of tender love, unlike mere fevered passion—love which dares show itself to all; a healthy, honest love, which would not fear the blessed monotony of every-day life, with its work, and rest, and low talks by the common hearth, and the patter of little feet for its home music"; but it is taught only by negatives, and the story grows more pitiful as each struggle of the poor girl is more hopeless. The plot is new enough and exciting enough to compel the reader to follow it to the end, but the book will never be opened a second time; for, well written as it is, there is nothing beyond the plot to counterbalance the painful impression of the catastrophe.

'Anne' will be pronounced a convincing proof that the author's forte is the short story, not the novel. It is, in fact, but a succession of short stories linked together by the presence of the one central figure of Anne herself, but with no logical dependence one upon the other. Change the names, and the successive stages of the wandering plot might each stand by itself. The first half-dozen chapters of the book are indeed remarkable. It was a rare opportunity to have discovered so new a field, in the little lonely military station on the far island of the North. In one sense only a colony, and yet already provided with a past in the traditions of the great fur-trading company and of the deserted mission, its little handful of strangely contrasted people afforded unique material for fiction. The comedy or the tragedy of life there must be on a narrow scale, but it suggests combinations and possibilities quite beyond the common routine of American novels. Miss Woolson has unfortunately given it to us only in a few fragmentary sketches, and carries off her heroine to the very commonplace scenes of city boarding-schools and country boarding-houses, to suffer under the tyranny, equally commonplace, of a grim maiden aunt. Even then there was a chance for fine discriminating work in showing how the world would look to the eyes of a clear-headed girl coming to it from such a simple, unconventional life, but the author only chooses to heap incident upon incident till nothing short of murder will suffice for a climax. That the book will not bear looking at as a whole is a fault not solely of American novels. Too few show careful plan from beginning to end, or in the balance of each part with all others. The admiration excited by Anne's heroic frankness in the court-room is effectually checked by her next appearance as an amateur detective following clews so obvious that no professional of reputation could have overlooked them. Or, again, on moral grounds, it is strange that an author should not see that there can be no sympathy for Helen Lorrington, in spite of her beauty and grace, after the deliberate lie by which her husband is won, and yet that sympathy should be an essential element in the judgment of the other characters.

If 'Aschenbroedel' only were what it is meant to be, it would be a great book. On the surface, it is to portray the contrasts of life in the city and in the country, but, deeper, it is to show the difference between intellectual and refined tastes as inherited traditions, and as adopted because it is "the thing." This evidently covers the whole field of modern society, but one must not only have known it, but must also be able to choose with discrimination from its infinite va-

rieties, and to describe them accurately and pointedly. In the present book the unskilled author has made a story droll from its very naïveté. The little heroine's longing for the beautiful unknown world of books and art is embodied in a wish to "have the *Nation* and the *Pop. Sci.*" (*sic*). Her mentor and guide is a lady "very distinguished and aristocratic" in appearance. "She just writes for her own amusement, and publishes to please her friends." She regards the quiet New England village as "a social grave" from which she must rescue Aschenbroedel; and, "smiling an opaque, reflective smile," she assures her: "You ought to write. It would be the greatest resource to you, and you could not fail of making a success."

'Aschenbroedel' is throughout a misnomer. There is not a single point of likeness between the stories. A much-involved love affair comes to nought, and an *ami d'enfance* arrives at the last moment; such a picture of a hero that one feels defrauded by his being kept out of the way so long. "His elegance of manner and distinction of appearance were but incidental to the power of his presence, and he suggested a reserved soul who sat within, wrapped in the garments of sober manhood, who watched and controlled all that went on about him, including his own outward manifestation." Yet this is the best the author can do to express the admiration of the heroine on the very first day of his reappearance: "Fair women turned upon him with graceful expostulation, . . . while he sat smiling upon them with a whimsical annoyance that reminded Alice of the gay *insouciance* of her game-cock at home when attacked by a flock of turkey-gobblers."

It was not wise of Miss Johnson to bring her never too careful work into such close comparison with Mr. James's skilful execution. She can put a story together very prettily, with gay bits of color and flitting shadows here and there; but this sort of thing requires a subtler weaving than hers. The solemn brevity of the dedication, "To American women," suggests that she thinks herself breaking a lance in their behalf. It would have been more to the purpose if, instead of writing what no one can call anything but an "extravaganza," she had gathered from fiction already existing the proof that Daisy Miller is one of a class universal in modern life, and not a special American type. Given high animal spirits, with quick intelligence, with the tempting opportunities of beauty and wealth, but without training and without wise control, and the result is the same, to whatever language the pretty lips frame themselves. The word *wise* is used wittingly, for not even the most formal French restraint without steady judgment to direct avails anything: it only puts off the evil hour. Daisy Millers are frequent in English fiction. Lady Eveleen de Courcy, in Miss Yonge's 'Heir of Redclyffe,' twenty-five years ago, was not the first of the line. Miss Austen's clear eye had marked her long before. Nor will Marjorie, in Mrs. Walford's 'Troublesome Daughters,' be the last. What is wanted now is some one to show us what becomes of them a little later. They will do the world little harm if, like Mr. James's heroine, they put an end to themselves by an obstinate rashness. The severe moralist will say they are to be found in the querulous invalids of middle age, or the foolish mothers of more foolish daughters; but a more hopeful critic will find not a few of them redeemed by sincere affection (it need not always be for a lover), and becoming the simply dutiful woman, whose lot is perhaps of all the happiest. Moreover, since our British cousins are proving themselves capable of taking the broadest caricature *au grand sérieux*, Miss Johnson should have taken far more pains with the side-lights of her picture: the aunt's horrified little shrugs amount to nothing. But there is no part of Mr. James's story more carefully worked out than the portrayal of the scandal and the grief the wayward girl brought to the American visitors in Rome. That is the testimony from fact, not from personal opinion, that good society in America neither encourages nor permits such conduct.

It is not easy to pass judgment upon a book like 'Yesterday,' on account of the absence from it of what religion has taught us to think the highest motives. The theory of life in it recognizes no higher responsibility than that of man to man, no punishment for sin beyond the immediate and obvious ill-consequences to the wrong-doer, and no repentance beyond the unresisting endurance of those consequences: "Who dares to break a law should have courage enough to bear the law-breaker's punishment." This would seem to be a low plane, but the book has a positive moral interest as a picture of what life may be made upon it, or more, how a life may even be redeemed; how one mistake, one great sin it may be, need not bring utter ruin, though a man had no better faith in him than this. The story leads over delicate, even dangerous ground, but throughout conduct is judged with a temperance and a justice that command respect in spite of the lower motives. The rattling pace of the opening chapters should not repel the reader, and he will find himself repaid by the picture of an actor's life from a novel point of view. Grace Delahay, the heroine, is an ennobling example of the restraining influence of a fine-souled woman even when her direct efforts are thwarted, and her only opportunity is the silent witness of steady, pure living.

Mr. Taylor's romance is another attempt to read that enigma of antiquity, the story of Antinous. His solution is stated simply enough: "How a healthy nature was ruined by companionship with a diseased one—is the history of Antinous and his Cæsar." To work out such a solution requires the insight of genius—it could be no surface-work; but we are given only a succession of incidents, loosely connected and narrated without enthusiasm. The book is purely conceived and purely written, as we commonly use the word; but the view generally taken is a degrading one. Nor is this true only of the heathen world. The early Christians are described in their dissensions, their weakness, their excesses, at wearisome length, while their faith, their devotion, is, not passed by—that would have been but a fault of omission—but somehow dishonored, belittled. It is the infelicity, the injustice, of such books that it is so much easier to describe the bad than the good. It is open to question whether the day for such attempts at reproduction is not wholly past. Time was when something of "the grand style" still lingered in fiction. The last generation had 'Aurelian' and 'Zenobia'; but in a day when a romance or a novel must be, for the general reader, all incident or nothing, the old Roman world supplies too little variety of material without drawing upon stores too unfamiliar to all but scholars, in any feeling of reality. 'Hypatia' owes its power to the glowing fervor which urges the Christian arguments against what is really modern thought, though clothed in terms of heathen philosophy; but all later attempts of the kind seem to us cold and lifeless.

'Leone' deserves a passing glance for the sake of the contrast between the style and the stuff of the tale. More commonplace and more tame description and dialogue could hardly be, but the incidents are enough for more than one melodrama. The heroine is twice taken prisoner by brigands, first in company with her father, lover, and teacher. This, however, is without the knowledge of the leader, Leone, who releases them without ransom—as being a modern knight-errant or Italian Robin Hood, who does not rob women or foreigners—and also for the quite minor reason that Sylvio, the lover, is apparently his own son. The second time, Edith is captured alone by Leone himself, to compel the consent of the father to the engagement broken off, he thinks, by him. He is morally frustrated in this plan by Edith's insisting that she alone has broken it, and actually defeated by the capture of himself and his whole band through the skill and courage of the father, Mr. Norman. Need it be said that the latter is an American? Who else could, when blindfolded, carefully mark directions by the compass on his watch-chain, count his steps and record them on his shirt-cuffs? Who else would make nothing of an attack upon the brigands who have successfully defied the papal authorities for twenty years? Leone, deserted by his secret allies, the Government officials at Rome, is fatally stabbed by one of his own men. Dying, he confesses that he is not the father of Sylvio. He only murdered the real father, the Duke of Celata, but spared the child for the sake of his eyes like his mother's, Leone's early love. Edith, who, quite willing to marry Sylvio as of unknown parents, had refused him absolutely as the son of a brigand, now consents, and the story ends with a birthday party. If our sketch is not very clear or connected, we can only say that this is more than the author has been able to make the book, though several times obliged to add the foot-note "Historical." Sylvio is a great artist, and Edith, the most wonderful and most impossible of American girls. The truth and beauty of the local color may be judged from the fact that the writer knows no difference between Campania and Campagna.

'"So They Were Married"' is a story of the kind which the experienced critic of fiction is inclined to pooh-pooh, and afterward to find that the experienced reader of fiction immensely enjoys. The materials out of which the tale is made are very slight. There is a tropical island, with sugar plantations owned by creole families, half English, half French. The English owner of one of these has a charming niece, Virginie, and a son, Tom, who loves Virginie, but never quite explains to her the nature of his affection for her. They have grown up like brother and sister, so that it is but natural that there should be some confusion in her mind on the subject. Then there is a wicked cousin who comes out from England—a cold, selfish villain, a confirmed gambler, who is devouring the paternal estates, and whose sister wishes him to make a rich marriage and save himself from absolute ruin. This he would like to do himself; but there is a serious obstacle in the way in the shape of an existing wife, an actress, who, with her child, may turn up at any moment and assert her rights. Nevertheless, Guy, after in vain endeavoring to get his wife to give her consent to his committing bigamy, resolves to run for luck and commit it without leave. The result, of course, is that Virginie discovers all after engaging herself to Guy, whom, however, she does not love. The engagement is broken off, Guy is banished from England, a ruined man, by his old father, who acknowledges the son of the actress as his heir, and Virginie goes back to the tropical island in time to save Tom's father from bankruptcy and marry Tom. This plot, or something very like it, has been used a thousand times on the stage and in novels, and the critic, consequently, is right in insisting that Messrs. Besant and Rice show no originality in it. But the charm of the story lies, as the reader finds, in the treatment—the vivacity, the descriptive power, the humor, the rapidity of movement and naturalness with which everything takes

place. Possibly Guy is overdone; probably no one was ever quite so depraved a villain as he is made out; but then with villany a little overdrawing is permissible. Everybody else is as true to life as need be, and the description of plantation life on Palmiste Island is as fresh and entertaining and out-of-the-way as the description of Australian life in 'Never Too Late to Mend' was twenty-five years ago. The story has, besides, a refreshingly masculine tone, though we should say that a woman would find it quite as agreeable reading as a man. There is little or no introspection and analysis in it. The characters are not continually studying themselves and considering how they affect each other, or fishing among their emotions for ingenious paradoxes and curious contradictions. On the contrary, the men merely want things—excitement, pleasure, love, and money—and these they try to get; and the women want the same things, and in their different way try to get them too; and in getting them each is restrained by his or her conscience, such as it is, with the exception of Guy, who has none. There is a half-French vivacity about the descriptive parts, as well as the dialogue, which carries the reader along in a very lively and inspiriting fashion; and here and there there is a suggestion of a situation of a highly dramatic kind. Indeed, the story might easily be worked up into a play, with very slight modifications. Altogether, it is difficult to imagine any sort of reader—excepting always the experienced critic—who could possibly begin '"So They Were Married"' and put it down without finishing it, and this, too, although he knows perfectly well from the beginning how the story is going to end.

The Relation of Political Economy to the Labor Question. By Carroll D. Wright, Chief of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, etc., etc. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 1882.

He must be a very modest writer, in these days, who refrains from sneers and ridicule against the orthodox, or scientific, economists. Every week or two a new book appears in which some writer, who has caught up a few vague notions from the professorial socialists, makes a new attempt to talk about grave economic subjects which he cannot even state, and pads out his discourse with derision of Smith and Mill, and oracular warnings about political economy and the economists. There is a set or fashion of thought in which all writings of this class now run, and they stand for the most part on the basis of two or three pretended scientific works which have never received the criticism which they deserve. There is a pseudo-philanthropic tone, which is just now in vogue to such a degree that any one who talks common sense has little chance of a hearing.

Mr. Wright's book is such a perfect specimen of the class to which it belongs, that it might profitably be made the text of a judicious and rigorous review of the maudlin economic literature. The author starts out by finding fault with the definition of political economy. He entirely overlooks the fact that a writer on any science may define it as he chooses for his own purposes, and is open to no criticism if he remains faithful to his own definition. Mr. Wright follows Walker into some criticisms of Mill's definition of political economy, which simply evince an unaccountable misconception of Mill's statements and of his entire philosophy. Did Mill overlook the ethical side of all branches of social science? The definition of political economy for which Mr. Wright contends extends it over the whole domain of social science and social art. The writers who have adopted that definition have written great treatises running over the whole field of sociology, but presenting all the parts out of focus. The result has been anything but good.

Mr. Wright emphasizes the moral side of economic matters. The school to which he belongs has a cant of this kind. Not long ago, a prominent member of it urged that the cure of the Irish troubles must be sought in moral forces. The truth is, that economic forces are more elementary and primitive than moral forces; they act on men sooner, and at a lower stage, than moral forces. In the history of the race the economic experiences and motives came into play long before the moral injunctions, and led up to the latter. Also, men, when they degenerate, fall below the reach of the moral forces long before they fall below the economic motives. A man will act wisely through self-interest long after he has ceased to act wisely because he thinks it right. When Mr. Wright comes to the troublesome question of a standard for his ethics, he disposes of it easily by giving us the decalogue. To say nothing of any other difficulties, let us only ask what light the decalogue throws on the question which is raised about the "justice" of the distribution of wealth. The relation of political economy to morals is just parallel to that of physiology. Every science aims to instruct men in the laws of right (*i. e.*, prosperous and happy) living on earth. The man who understands the functions of the bodily organs should know how to live rightly as regards health; he who knows political economy should know how a man shares in the welfare or misery of a society as regards wealth. That political economy will conduce most to the welfare of men if it is pursued singly, simply, and directly, as a science, is beyond dispute.

Mr. Wright states the labor question thus: "How labor may be rendered more generally attractive and remunerative without impairing the efficiency of capital, so that all the workers of society may have their proper share in the distribution of profits." Put in plain language, this is the question how work may cease to be disagreeable, and how for a given effort we may get more good things to enjoy than we now get. These questions are as old as the human race. The economists who deserve the name will all admit that they have given up the first as unanswerable. The second they have always professed and aimed to treat as the real object of their science. If this question should be solved, there need be no question of guarding the efficiency of capital, for its efficiency would be increased inevitably at every step. It may be added, as a useful practical rule for the tyros who insist upon trying their hands on economic questions, that it is a sure mark of an incorrect solution of an economic problem that said solution is attended by the necessity of an artificial provision for the security of capital. When the correct solution is found, the parts all fit together and support each other without forcing or artificial support.

Of course *laissez-faire* comes in for a blow from Mr. Wright. He understands that *laissez-faire* is what used to be called Fate. *Laissez-faire* is nothing but liberty, and liberty is the prime moral principle in the civilization of to-day. When the merchants said to Colbert, "Laissez-nous faire," they were simply stammering out the first feeble expression of the new spirit which was to be the life of the centuries between their time and ours. The doctrine has been misunderstood, sneered at, rejected, and even abandoned by those who ought to have defended it; but there it is yet, the highest social and moral principle which civilization has yet attained. Any so-called moral doctrine which is not based on liberty turns out, upon analysis, to mean simply that, if A errs and suffers, B is responsible, and not A. Mr. Wright declares that "mildew will strike the political economy which denies the validity of the distinction" between the exchange of commodities and the contract for services; and he quotes from Walker an expression of astonishment that economists should put these two things on the same plane. Seventy-five years ago, he says, there were laws regulating the exchange of commodities, but none regulating contracts of labor. But the economists have been urging liberty in *all* contracts. They have striven to abolish the regulations of trade, and they have resisted the regulation of labor-contracts, having in view all the time liberty of contract between adult men as the only proper principle in a free, self-governing state. The question whether the exchange of commodities differs from the sale of labor is a silly and barren controversy of the German economists.

It is, perhaps, unfair to take up a little book like the one before us and make it bear the criticism which is due to the school of whose products it is a very modest specimen. It is high time, however, that there was some very thorough and pitiless criticism of the twaddle which is put afloat about "labor." In this country we all labor. If it is a free country, the first thing to which every free man needs to make up his mind is, that he has got to take care of himself. If he is sober, industrious, and economical, he will acquire capital. He will then rise out of the class technically called "laborers" by those who write essays on "the labor question." The economic philosophy which Mr. Wright teaches will then impose upon him the duty and responsibility of taking care of those who have not issued from the laboring class; and he will, at the same time, hear the "laboring masses" extolled as the wisdom, strength, and glory of the country, and the "capitalists" blamed for everything which goes wrong. We cordially agree that there is in all this a great muddle; but whether those whose heads and hearts are sound enough to resist gush and false reasoning are the ones to blame, is open to question.

Gray. By Edmund W. Gosse. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros. 1882.

In one respect this volume differs from all its predecessors. In all the other biographies of this series the chief task of the writer has been to condense and compress, and to distil the essence of perhaps two stout quartos into a thin duodecimo, occasionally to the irritation of one reader or another, who doubts if it be the proper function of literature to fill up the odd half-hours of the busy, or to enable the idle to avoid, with the least possible trouble, the appearance of ignorance. Here, however, it is the other way. Previous biographies of Gray have been so meagre that Mr. Gosse has been compelled to seek all procurable material, in manuscript as well as print, and the volume before us has the advantage of being the fullest life of the poet yet given to the public.

That the material for biography is small is not to be wondered at. Few lives of eminent men have been marked by less of incident. Studious, shy, refined to fastidiousness, physically indolent, Gray was in some respects a typical man of letters, pure and simple. There have been writers of the first rank who found in literature the only expression of energies that, under other circumstances, would have made them revolutionists, martyrs, or heresiarchs. With Gray, the perfect expression of delicate, tender, and serious thought fully satisfied all the requirements of his nature. If he treats a tragic or passionate theme, it is as an artist, not as an enthusiast. The artist-nature was predominant in him, and

we note very interesting traits of it in the simple but vivid sketches of natural scenery, especially of the wilder kind, in his letters, which quite anticipate the nineteenth-century feeling, and might not inappropriately be placed beside Mr. Ruskin's glowing periods about the mountain glory and the mountain gloom.

Mr. Gosse looks upon Gray as a mighty spirit whose powers were frustrated by "lifelong exile in the wondrous eighteenth century"; but his own biography seems to give full endorsement to the general judgment:

"Far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife,
He kept the noiseless tenor of his way."

The surging and clashing masses of humanity, even then heaving with a coming earthquake, were a madding crowd, and their strivings and struggles an *ignoble* strife. He drew his pure and beautiful robe about him and slipped through the throng. At Cambridge he wrote charming Latin verse, and kept to the society of two or three congenial spirits; in his three-years' tour on the Continent, in the company of his lifelong and generous friend, Horace Walpole, most dainty of dilettanti, he frequented the best society, and saw the picturesque in its approved examples; and on his return he sought refuge from the bustle of life in the quiet cloisters of Cambridge. His work alone is what the world cares for; and his work is known to all. Here his success has been, of its kind, preëminent. He has given to our literature at least one poem which, perhaps more absolutely than any other in our tongue, may be called a classic, which everybody knows and everybody loves, and which all critics agree in praising, from Dr. Johnson at one extremity to Mr. Swinburne at the other.

An interesting feature in this sketch is the account of Gray's relations with a young Swiss named Bonstetten, of distinguished family, sent to England to finish his education. His affectionate attachment to Gray was remarkable, and was returned, with sincerity, if with less effusion, by the elderly poet, who was a little surprised by the "ardor and vitality" of the youth. "Our breed," he says in one of his letters, "is not made on this model. . . . I have never met with so extraordinary a person. God bless him! I am unable to talk to you about anything else." He kept up a correspondence with Bonstetten until his death, which, indeed, happened in less than two years from their first acquaintance.

We note a single slight, but unlucky, misprint in this edition. In the extract on page 132 we have

"Her lion-foot, her awe-commanding face."

Now, though Queen Elizabeth certainly did let those about her feel her claws pretty frequently, this particular leonine characteristic of hers was not in Gray's mind, who wrote "her lion-port."

History of the Campaign for the Conquest of Canada in 1776, from the Death of Montgomery to the Retreat of the British Army under Sir Guy Carleton. By Charles Henry Jones. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1882. 8vo, pp. xiv.-234.

How a "Campaign for the Conquest of Canada" became a campaign for the defence of New York, and how the disastrous failure of the first was retrieved by the ultimate success of the merely defensive operations which followed it—this is certainly a story worth telling, and worth reading. The movement against Canada, indeed, was captivating by its audacity, and by the romantic picturesqueness of its leaders and of its exploits; but that is not the subject of this book. With a resolute self-command which is itself deserving of praise, Mr. Jones has carefully excluded from the scope of his work the splendid dash on Quebec by Arnold and Montgomery, and has written a sad story of retreat, suffering, pestilence, disorganization; the destruction of a naval force most laboriously created on Lake Champlain; and, at last, the effectual occupation and strengthening of the abandoned French lines at Ticonderoga, which the British army drew up before, and turned back from to Canada without firing a shot.

Such a narrative may be instructive, but, unless aided by literary skill or by an exceptional faculty for graphic description, it is not likely to be fascinating. Mr. Jones's book is a useful record of some of the most painful and least glorious events of the Revolutionary War. It is better worth reading than the bragging rhetoric which, masquerading in the guise of history, has been too apt to falsify or to ignore the less creditable aspects of that struggle; but his unattractive theme is not illuminated by any exceptional brilliancy of treatment. He tells, indeed, of little more than the retreat out of Canada of that army which John Adams described, in words which this author might have quoted to advantage, as "disgraced, defeated, discontented, dispirited, diseased, undisciplined, eaten up with vermin, no clothes, beds, blankets, or medicines, and no victuals but salt-pork and flour." But even this story might have been told either with graphic vivacity, or with critical acuteness, or with philosophical insight, or, at least, with laborious research. None of these qualities are displayed in the work before us. What authorities the writer used there is no indication from the first page to the last. A monograph of this sort should bristle all over with citations, so that for all subsequent inquirers it should be next to superfluous to search the original sources of history. The present volume has not one. There is, indeed, even for the cursory reader, an annoying absence of references to authorities. There are numerous quotations from letters, which in some cases might be verified or completed by a diligent student; as, where one is introduced by "wrote Schuyler to Washington," or another, "wrote General Carleton to Lord George Germain" (*sic*). But where a writer of a grave history gives such authorities as these: "wrote a British officer who was in Quebec at the time" (p. 43); "wrote one of the field-officers to Gates" (p. 121); "a New England brigadier-general says" (p. 122); "according to a British historian" (p. 163); "writes a distinguished historian" (p. 191); "an eminent writer has said" (p. 196); "writes another" (*ibid*)—it is not captious in the reader to demand the privilege of cross-examining the witness whose testimony is thus adduced.

A graver blemish upon the work, however, arises from the fact that it is frankly, as its preface announces, a *Tendenzschrift*, for the special glorification of the Pennsylvania contingent in these operations. This purpose has seemed to the author to be most readily subserved—in narrating a campaign of which the only actively brilliant exploit was the naval fight, under Arnold, by vessels almost exclusively officered and manned from New England—by frequent comparisons between the Eastern and Southern troops, to the great disadvantage of the former. Perhaps nowhere in the volume would foot-notes referring to the *pièces justificatives* be more useful than upon such passages as these: "The Pennsylvanians were in all respects better soldiers and better men"; "the Eastern regiments included within their ranks negroes and Indians" (p. 121). Perhaps, however, it is enough to give the closing paragraph of chapter xi.: "Great attention was paid to the cleanly appearance of the Pennsylvania troops. Soap was provided in abundance, and the men were required to appear upon parade with 'their hair well powdered and neatly tied and plaited.'"

The mechanical execution of the volume leaves little to be desired. Whatever differences may even now exist in regard to the superiority of Pennsylvania troops, there cannot be two opinions concerning the beauty of the page which has come to be recognizable as proceeding from the best Philadelphia presses; and this volume is, in paper, type, and presswork, one of the handsomest of its class. The proof-reading is not always what it should be, and the eight portraits which are meant to embellish it might well have been exchanged for one or two authentic maps and diagrams; but the writer's effort is worthy of commendation, and his performance is not without utility.

Thaddeus Stevens: Commoner. By E. B. Callender. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 1882.

THE absurd title of "commoner" was, if our memory serves us, first applied to the late Thaddeus Stevens during the impeachment agitation in 1867. There can be little doubt that, overlooking the absence of any nobility in this country, his admirers saw in the contest between Congress and President Johnson an analogy to English conflicts of King and Commons, and in Stevens, the leader of the House, a "commoner" *par excellence*. This poetic distortion of a term having a very precise and narrow meaning in part explains Mr. Callender's idea in reviving the title, but only in part. On pages 137, 148 a commoner is evidently one who opposes and impeaches a President; but on p. 101 he appears to be one who has a President (Buchanan) for a constituent; on p. 111, one who does not stick to Constitutional technicalities, and so on. But the most elaborate definition occurs on p. 12, and runs as follows:

"So Thaddeus Stevens was born to poverty, enslaved by physical deformity, acquainted with the ills of others. With such surroundings in his youth, it was natural that he should follow straight the road which led therefrom; to toil for those who could not work; to speak for those whose lips were dumb; to lift the trodden-down, and make the cause of the oppressed his own. And hence a commoner."

But Mr. Stevens, we learn from the preface, was also "the first Stalwart"; and the book is avowedly written in glorification of the counterfeit party policy now bearing that name, as well as of that tenacious support of the Northern purpose in the Civil War and in reconstruction which is Mr. Stevens's real distinction. There was "nothing weak or literary" about him, we are told once and again (pp. 32, 110), and a complete biography of him would be premature "in an age like the present—so full of political curiosity and so wanting in political talent," "when civil-service pamphleteers and public penurists thrive," "when political impotency is confounded with political chastity," and the nation has begun to follow "the strange gods of political æstheticism and imbecility." So Mr. Callender, whose rhetorical training has evidently not been neglected, invites the reader to "ponder for a moment over the record of one who was a man, a hero, and [though a commoner] a king." He maintains that Stevens did more than any other man "to destroy human slavery and pronounce human equality on this Western Continent." But, though his hero was born in 1792, the anti-slavery struggle on the basis of immediate emancipation and complete political equality had been waged by the abolitionists for twenty years before Mr. Stevens, in 1850, made his first speech on slavery (as here recorded), and then he did not go a step beyond the Free-Soil party in opposing the extension of slavery to the Territories, while respecting the pro-slavery compromises of the

Constitution. He was certainly "ahead of his party" when, in December, 1861, he introduced a bill to free the slaves, but not of "his *time*," as our author adds, for the abolitionists were a part of the "time," and were ready for such a measure as soon as the shot fired at Sumter dissolved the old Union.

We have, however, no desire to belittle Mr. Stevens's services to the cause of freedom. He was, with Lincoln and Stanton, the third great figure in the Northern group of giants contending with the Slave Power in arms. Perhaps the historian will find the part he played in reconstruction necessary to the solution of that tremendous problem, though some of the measures proposed by him, like the Confiscation Bill of March, 1867, to which Mr. Callender makes no allusion, were wildly impracticable and had no sequel. Our author is discreetly silent, too, about Mr. Stevens's Quixotic encounter with the Wall Street gold premium, and about the fact of his advocating the payment of the national debt in greenbacks, in the very last year of the old man's life. Why could he not let us also forget that Mr. Stevens, though of a kindly nature, could be coarse and abusive in debate, and suppress (p. 160) the speech on "swinging round the circle," with its heartless reference to Mr. Seward's injuries from the hands of the would-be assassin?

Two passages from this work seem worth quoting; the first from the useful appendix on the making of the Missouri Compromise. William Pinkney, of Maryland, was contrasting the reception of free Maine and slave-ridden Missouri, and probably surprised none of his auditors by the figure employed in the following sentence (p. 183):

> "The more infantine and feeble Missouri is to be repelled with harshness, and forbidden to come at all, unless with the iron collar of servitude about her neck, instead of the civic crown of republican freedom upon her brows, and is to be doomed forever to leading-strings, unless she will exchange those leading-strings for shackles."

The sentiments we now proceed to cite are Mr. Stevens's, and we commend them to all the Stalwart portion of the majority which voted for the Anti-Chinese Bill (pp. 132–133):

> "Our fathers repudiated the whole doctrine of the legal superiority of families or races, and proclaimed the equality of men before the law. . . .
>
> "This is not 'a white man's government' in the exclusive sense in which it is used. To say so is political blasphemy, for it violates the fundamental principles of our gospel of liberty. This is man's government; the government of all men alike. Not that all men will have equal power and sway within it: accidental circumstances, natural and acquired endowment and ability, will vary their fortunes. But equal right to all the privileges of the government is innate in every immortal being, no matter what the shape or color of the tabernacle which it inhabits."

It remains to add that this book is handsomely printed, and contains a very characteristic portrait of Thaddeus Stevens.

Scribner's Geographical Reader and Primer. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

A Geographical Reader. Compiled and arranged by James Johonnot. D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

THE first of these books is based on Guyot's 'Introduction,' and is, in fact, a rewriting of it in "familiar and colloquial style." It is a good method of teaching geography, the physical portion being uninterrupted by exercises, reviews, map-lessons, or any sign of task-work, all of which are relegated to the second or political part. The latter is at once both the driest and the meagrest—for instance, there is no allusion to the existence of the colored population of the South, let alone the revolution in its labor system. The style of the narrative for primary reading is unobjectionable; the arrangement systematic; the matter open to criticism on the score of proportion; the illustrations generally of good quality. It seems whimsical, however, to figure for the races of men a white man only, and of more than doubtful propriety to label this rather insignificant, as well as commonplace, physiognomy "one of the ruling race"—as if the Reader were designed for negroes or Chinamen.

Mr. Johonnot's conception is more original, and addresses itself to a more mature age than its companion-work. He has observed that "the ability to read may be acquired incidentally while the attention is primarily directed to some subject of thought"; and in the choice of reading-exercises he regards it of prime moment that "the modes of expression be such as will constitute appropriate models of style, and will awake sensibilities in the direction of literary excellence." This last sentence is not to be commended itself for literary excellence, but the author's meaning is clear, and the principle a sound one, flagrantly violated as it constantly is in the "readers" with which the market is flooded. Its application by Mr. Johonnot is not what might have been expected. There are nineteen divisions besides one called miscellaneous, beginning with "Mountains and Glaciers," "Basins and Plains," "Earthquakes and Volcanoes," and embracing "Wild Animals," "National Characteristics," "Ruins of Ancient Cities," "Remarkable Modern [and Ancient] Works," among other topics. The descriptions are borrowed from all sorts of sources, with a taste and range more natural to the preceding than to the present generation, and with a want of critical discrimination which makes the promised "models of style" a strange medley. Magazine hack writers, newspaper reporters and correspondents, anonymous reviewers, are mingled with a certain number of great lights in literature and science. The most striking omission is perhaps that of so eminent a traveller as Darwin, who contributes nothing even under the head of earthquakes, of which he has given unrivalled accounts, or of islands, whether we think of the Society or of the Keeling Islands, or of the Galapagos. It is hardly credible that the only citations under the latter head are from J. Ross Browne. Among the sins of admission, most remarkable is a selection from a popular American writer on science concerning the atmosphere, in which occurs this rhetorical exercise: "There is an awful life-import in these never-ceasing rhythmic movements of inspiration and expiration, this tidal flux and reflux of the gaseous ocean through animal mechanisms."

We are by no means certain that the logical arrangement is best for a work of this character, whose main object is to interest from the beginning. The opening selections about glaciers are hard and technical. "An Earthquake in the East Indies" is inserted under Miscellaneous instead of under its appropriate heading. On page 91 "Geneva" stands for Genoa—a startling error when describing the termini of the Riviera. If the *date* of the selections had been appended, the youthful reader would, on the one hand, have been guarded against misconceptions of the present state of some countries and peoples, and on the other would have been able usefully to compare the past and the present, as in the case of the Ohio tornado so graphically described by Audubon (p. 71).

Episodes in the Lives of Men, Women, and Lovers. By Edith Simcox. First American from the last London Edition. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

THIS is a collection of short stories and essays written in a pleasing style, and with some imaginative and analytical as well as descriptive power. Those who do not care much about the analysis of the passion of love will not find the volume very interesting; but the indifferent on this subject are few in number, and consequently the volume ought to be pretty sure of a good audience. The author is at her best in "A Diptych," a rather curiously imagined story of a young agnostic, whose first love throws him over because he does not believe in the Bible, and when he has a second opportunity of a sort that few men would be apt to neglect, and is invited to make sure of his happiness, he goes away because he distrusts himself. In this story the women are well described, but the man is shadowy and vague. "The Shadow of Death" is a rather powerful soliloquy by a widow, who analyzes her grief for the loss of her husband in an almost too acutely real way. In some of the stories the author assumes the character of a man and writes in the first person; but the man has a very feminine nature. He is much given to analysis and introspection of an unmasculine sort—that is, if the sexes can be clearly discriminated in this matter any longer. Occasionally, it seems—and in reading this little volume we are forcibly struck with the fact—as if the business of the nineteenth century was, in matters of love as in all other matters, to bring about intersexual equality as far as possible. Declarations of love by women in modern novels are very common, and there is a general independence of all traditions on the subject which, accompanied and reinforced by a wide and searching analysis, makes the whole matter much less simple than it was in the days of romantic writing. However, our author is much more learned in it than we can pretend to be, and we recommend the reader, if he be a man and wishes to become quite confused in regard to it, to read 'Episodes.'

Le Salon de Madame Necker, d'après des documents tirés des archives de Coppet. Par le Vicomte d'Haussonville. Paris: Calmann Lévy. 1882. 2 vols., pp. 360 and 363.

IN 'The Salon of Madame Necker,' by her great-grandson, we have an admirable sketch of an admirable woman, with a brilliant picture of the leading men and women of the epoch in which she was a social, literary, and almost a political leader—the eve of the French Revolution. That part of the close of the eighteenth century has been described over and over again, and Tocqueville and Taine have made it the subject of elaborate histories, but M. d'Haussonville has thrown new light on it, by drawing largely and with the skill of a practised hand from the wealth of original material, letters and journals, hitherto unpublished, and indeed practically unknown, gathered together at Coppet. This charming home, on the borders of the Lake of Geneva, naturally became very dear to the Neckers and their daughter, Madame de Staël, and it still remains the property of their descendants and the gathering place of the family. The Neckers were in their day very great persons indeed, and it was partly political and personal hostility, and partly the greater fame of their daughter, Madame de Staël, that overshadowed their real merit. It is now clear, from M. d'Haussonville's story, that their personal virtues deserved the rehabilitation which they find in his volumes, while their political failures find their excuse in the limitations of human prescience.

Unlike most French biographies, in this instance the story of husband and wife is so closely united that telling one carries with it much that reveals the nature of both. Swiss Protestants,

their domestic fidelity was of itself the best answer to those who urged them to exchange their religion and their nationality, both matters of reproach from the court party. Madame Necker was the daughter of a Swiss Protestant clergyman in a parish near Lausanne, and her excellent education and sound training stood her in good stead in her later career, so far beyond anything that could have been anticipated even in her own most sanguine ambition. Left an orphan, she eked out existence and supported her mother by teaching, and by the still harder work of companionship to a great lady, under whose roof she became the wife of Necker, a prosperous and substantial banker in Paris. Her name is perpetuated in Gibbon's 'Memoir' as that of his early love, but the story as it is told in his letters and in hers, shows that he behaved with just that timid selfishness which characterized his whole personal history. As a girl, she was bright and clever enough to be chosen to play at Voltaire's theatre, and in maturer years she played for Madame Houdetot, the friend of Rousseau. Beginning domestic life in what was even then an unfashionable quarter of Paris, in rooms over the bank, the Neckers soon gathered around them all that was best and brightest in French letters. The philosophers and encyclopædists were soon followed by the noblemen and great ladies of the court, and the leading men and women of that day of bright hopes and charming anticipations joined to make Madame Necker's salon one of the most attractive of the gay capital. It was there that the members of the Academy were really chosen, and, by a striking instance of hereditary cleverness, it was in the salons of the three generations of her descendants—her daughter, Madame de Staël, her granddaughter, the Duchesse de Broglie, and her great-granddaughter, the late Comtesse d'Haussonville, that, down almost to our own time, the immortal Forty were canvassed and discussed, and the fate of new candidates settled, long before the vote was taken. Readers of the charming letters of Doudan, the secretary of the Duc de Broglie, will see how gifted were the women of the family founded by Madame Necker, with no patent other than that of great intellectual power.

Madame Necker was a woman of force and character enough to have made her mark in any era. She was the author of five published volumes that still deserve to be read as evidences of her earnest purpose to benefit her fellow-creatures. She was foremost in securing the good management of hospitals and prisons by introducing sisters of charity as attendants. Protestant herself, she was the almoner for many Roman Catholic prelates, and in turn through their various orders distributed her own and her husband's charities. When he became Minister of State, she was his useful ally and able social representative, and, in the midst of a loose order of things matrimonial, they remained types of domestic virtue and happiness, enjoying the intimate confidence of the King and the best of the aristocracy. In her salon were found most of the French soldiers who had served in our own Revolutionary War, and through them America became a topic of frequent discussions. But when evil days fell on France—when the two honest men, the King and Necker, as the former described himself and his Secretary of the Treasury, were no longer able to hold their own against the clamor of the mob and the intrigues of the court—the Neckers withdrew to Coppet. The history of the château itself is given by M. d'Haussonville in brief but clear statements drawn from its own archives and records.

There is something tragic in the sombre close of Madame Necker's life, whose gloom was heightened by her disappointment over her husband's reformatory endeavors, as well as by her involuntary depression at the overthrow of her own reputation by the brilliancy of her daughter. As it was, Madame de Staël was but partially the creation of a mother's care, for, luckily perhaps, the fear of ill results to her health by intellectual over-training took her largely out of her mother's hands, and secured her physical as well as mental freedom and the companionship of her father. Still, as a woman worthy to be the wife of Necker, a real patriot, an honest financier, a pure man, in times when qualities such as his were more talked about than practised, and as the mother who trained her daughter, Madame de Staël, to be one of the great intellectual powers of the early part of this century, Madame Necker well deserved to be rescued from the oblivion into which her name and memory were fast passing. Her salon was transmitted through three generations down to our own day; but now times and men and women have so changed that it is unlikely that, even in Paris, any one can hope to reëstablish successfully such a high change of lofty thoughts and aspirations and real conversation. What it was that made it the typical home of the best representatives of French culture and *esprit* is admirably shown in M. d'Haussonville's sketch.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Sommer, H. Der Pessimismus und die Sittenlehre. Haarlem: De Erven F. Bohn; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

Thornton, G. H. The Modern Stenographer. D. Appleton & Co. $1.

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1881, to 31st December, 1881		$4,039,487 10
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1881		1,587,534 47
Total Marine Premiums		$5,627,021 57
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1881, to 31st December, 1881		$4,110,176 72
Losses paid during the same period	$1,775,882 80	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$924,227 02	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$8,965,758 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,729,500 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	491,148 18
Premium Notes and Bills receivable	1,631,294 23
Cash in Bank	347,765 99
Amount	$13,165,466 40

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The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1877 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of forty per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending 31st December, 1881, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the second of May next.

By order of the Board,

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 7, 1882.

The Week.

MR. RUSSELL, of Massachusetts, a member of Hubbell's Congressional Committee, has had to come out and protest against the "demanding" money from officeholders for party purposes, as "wrong in principle and vicious in its effects." He defends or excuses the first circular sent out by Hubbell as a copy of harmless ones issued in other campaigns; but the second, reinforcing the first, he admits to be to all intents and purposes a threat, and disapproves of it, and has sent his disapproval to Hubbell's Executive Committee. It is curious that no suggestion comes from any quarter that Hubbell should address his circulars to known Republicans of all classes. Why are they not sent to Republican ministers, doctors, and lawyers, and also to Republican mechanics and merchants? All these classes would, according to Hubbell, suffer enormously by the expulsion of the Republican party from power, and would doubtless deem it a "pleasure and privilege" to make a "voluntary contribution" of "not less than two per cent. on their annual compensation." The question, What does Hubbell do with the money? of course occurs to every one, and especially to those who send him voluntary contributions; for one of his peculiarities as a collector is that he renders no accounts, or at least none that ever see the light—an important difference, by the way, which Judge Folger has overlooked, between the Congressional Committee and a church or Bible society. Anybody who went about getting money from poor men for a church or a charitable institution, and refused ever after to let the donors know in what manner it had been expended, would be treated as a knave wherever he showed his face. Of course any one is at liberty to give money to a person in whose judgment and character he has confidence, to expend without rendering an account. But this is confidence which has to be offered, and which none but the remarkably impudent ask for. People select those in whom they intend to repose such confidence; it is very seldom indeed that anybody but professional swindlers propose themselves as the objects of it.

We believe Hubbell declares when pressed that he lays the money out on "documents" and their distribution. In support of this explanation he has sent out a list of documents which he says in a prefatory note he is prepared to supply, in order to "advise the country of the objects and aims of the Democratic party." About that far more important matter, "the objects and aims" of the party in power, he apparently undertakes to supply no information whatever. But he does not supply these documents gratuitously, or at the cost of distribution. On the contrary, he charges from thirty cents to two dollars per hundred for them, which he says is "exceedingly low, taking into account the cost of printing and the labor and material used in folding and handling the documents." This price undoubtedly covers the cost, so that we are still left in the dark as to what he does with his "assessments." The list contains twenty-six documents. Nine of these are speeches in defence of the tariff, so that the expenditure on them of money contributed by a Republican revenue reformer would be, and is, a contemptible fraud, which is not relieved, but darkened, by the fact that one of them is a profound treatise by Hubbell himself, entitled "Encouragement of American Industry: its History and Results," for which he charges only fifty-five cents the hundred. One is a speech by Mr. Eugene Hale on "Political Assessments." We have not seen it, but if, as is probable, it is a defence of these assessments, its circulation must be considered, in view of the condition of opinion in the party on this subject, a very gross breach of trust, to which Mr. Hale ought to know better than be a party. Another document contains "Extracts from General Garfield's Speeches" "in Support of Law, Order, and Justice, the Constitutional Powers of the Government, and the Maintenance of the Honor and Interests of the People of the Nation." None of General Garfield's utterances on these topics was so weighty as his denunciation of assessments on officeholders, and of the spoils system generally. If Hubbell has included none of them in the collection, he has again been guilty of very discreditable garbling and imposition, and of malversation of funds, if he is spending any assessment money on the pamphlet. No *aperçu* of General Garfield's views on "the honor and interests of the people of the nation" is complete or fair which does not contain some of his eloquent denunciations of the abuse which breeds the Hubbells, and without which they could not live.

Judge Field, of the Supreme Court, has rendered a decision as to the Chinese immigration law which is of some interest to the Chinese who are in this country. Ah Sing, a Chinese seaman, came to California six years since, and for some months has been employed as a seaman on board the *City of Sydney*. He left San Francisco in her on the 8th of May last, the law having been passed two days before. The act provided that after the expiration of ninety days no "Chinese laborers" should come to this country; and made it a criminal offence for the master of any vessel to bring them. When the *City of Sydney* returned to San Francisco her captain refused to allow Ah Sing to land, and he accordingly brought a petition for habeas corpus. Judge Field has decided that the law does not apply to a "laborer" already "on board a vessel when it touches at a foreign port," and used the following language with regard to the intention of the act: "The object of the act of Congress was to prevent the further immigration of Chinese to the United States—not to expel those already here—producing the antagonism and disturbance which conflicts of race always engender. It was not thought that the few thousands now here, scattered, as they must soon be, over the whole country, would seriously disturb the peace or affect the civilization of fifty-two millions of people." This suggests the interesting question, which was not satisfactorily disposed of during the discussion in Congress—how many thousand Chinese it would take to ruin us. The few thousands now here will, it seems, not do us any harm; but if any more were to come, our future would be horrid to contemplate. The next time the matter comes up we hope to have the precise figures. How many Chinamen will spoil a nation of 52,000,000 people? We are safe now; but how near the brink of the precipice did we come?

Another decision of Judge Field, in the San Francisco laundry ordinance case, will, it is to be hoped, do something to remind the anti-Chinese party in California that they cannot make outlaws of the Chinamen who are permitted to remain in this country. The San Francisco Supervisors have authority, as similar boards have in other cities, to prohibit or regulate occupations which are "against good morals, contrary to public order and decency, or dangerous to public safety." Under this, they undertook to regulate laundries, and enacted an ordinance forbidding any person to establish a laundry within certain portions of the city without obtaining a license, and further providing that no license should be granted without a written recommendation from a certain number of residents in the immediate vicinity. The plan was to drive the Chinese out of the laundry business, whether because they do washing cheaper than their Caucasian rivals or not does not appear. At any rate, Judge Field has decided that the business of washing clothes is not against good morals, or contrary to public order and decency, or dangerous to public safety. Quong Woo, who was refused a license, has won his case, and the Chinese will continue to compete with Caucasians in the business of washing clothes. The Supervisors are, it is said, much puzzled by the decision, and very apprehensive of its results on the civilization of the Pacific Coast.

The address to the Mormons just issued by John Taylor, George Q. Cannon, and Joseph F. Smith, who constitute the "first Presidency" of the Church, calls the attention of the Church to the measures being taken for the enforcement of the Edmunds Act, and says that the condition of affairs in the Territory makes it necessary to give some "plain and pointed counsel." The signers are altogether too shrewd to call upon their people in so many words to resist the law, and the only counsel of any kind that they actually give is contained in the following appeal: "Let us guard well our franchise, and in one unbroken phalanx maintain and sustain our political status, and as patri-

ots and freemen operate together in defence of what few liberties are left us." The language of the address is not unlike what monogamists would probably use to meet an attack by a stern polygamic legislature on the institution of single marriage. "As a church," they say, "we have repeatedly testified, in the most solemn manner, that the institution of marriage, at which the law is aimed, has been revealed to us by the Almighty, and that it is a part of our religion"; and again, it is "interwoven with our dearest and holiest hopes," and "we believe we should incur the eternal displeasure of our Heavenly Father if we did not comply with its requirements." This protest has been brought out by the new oath prescribed by the Commissioners, which no one living in polygamy can take without committing perjury. The Commissioners are now engaged in appointing registrars of election, and there is reported to be great dissatisfaction among the Gentiles in the Territory because among these eight Mormons have been appointed. They are, of course, monogamists, and as the act was directed against polygamy, and not against the other features of the Mormon religion, the Commissioners probably think fairness requires that a Mormon who can qualify under it should be allowed to do so. But to the anti-Mormon mind in Utah the idea of fairness to Mormons is sickening.

Before the Tariff Commission sitting at Buffalo, on Wednesday, members of the American Association of Dealers in Pottery made a thorough exposition of the pottery trade, and urged a reduction of duties. By the calculations of Mr. Wright, the President of the Association, the present duty, avowedly imposed as a war duty and designed to be temporary, amounts upon the whole—all charges, breakage, etc., considered—to an advance of 116 per cent. upon the price charged the importer by the English manufacturer under the twenty-four per cent. duty. The foreign manufacturers have advanced their prices from eighteen to twenty-four per cent. under our present tariff. Mr. Wright says that the high cost greatly restricts consumption, and makes luxuries of necessary articles. He says: "The dealers in pottery have more capital invested than the manufacturers, and deserve at least equal consideration, to say nothing of the consumers. The present tariff discriminates against lower qualities of goods which are used by the poorer classes. The proposed duty will be abundant protection, and will increase consumption, and give more steady employment to the potters at home." It now appears that the workmen in the Trenton potteries have petitioned Congress for a reduction of the duty, being "convinced by experience that a high rate of duty on crockery-ware yields no benefit financially to the workingman, and is inimical to his interests in its effects in increasing the price of living generally."

The painful readiness of the public to give credit to stories damaging to private character has again been illustrated in the case of Major Ellis P. Phipps, of Philadelphia, ex-Superintendent of the Almshouse. The Major was arrested on Thursday on a charge of embezzling money, and, as soon as he had given bail, left Philadelphia, and has not been heard of since. His rooms have been searched, and the case against him seems to consist of goods found on the premises, bought for, but missing, from the Almshouse. There were found, indeed, goods enough to furnish a large store, which had all come to the Major's quarters, *via* the Almshouse. There were, among other things, 200 jars of preserved fruits, two gallons of French brandy, two gallons of Holland gin, twenty-two bottles of wine, one case of champagne, one barrel of sugar, one barrel of lard, and a miscellaneous collection of articles, such as five-dozen scrubbing brushes, fifty pounds of coffee, and nine pounds of tea. The goods were hidden away or locked up in dark places or closets. This evidence, taken in connection with the Major's flight, seems to be regarded as sufficient in Philadelphia to justify the inference that he is guilty. But then what becomes of the presumption of innocence of which we hear so much? We thought it had long been settled that nothing short of a conviction was of any consequence in cases like this.

It is to be hoped that it is not true that Pratt, the cashier, who planned and executed the robbery of his own bank at Kewanee, Ill., was an active church member and Sunday-school teacher, because it appears he was planning his robbery for about two years, in company with two confederates, to whom he had proposed it. The sudden surrender of good men—whether church members or not—to strong temptation is common enough, but it is not alarming or disgusting. It simply shows that human nature can never be made wholly impregnable against sudden assault, by any process of fortification or training. But the frequency during the past twenty years of cases in which connection with churches and religious professions, and the resulting respectability, have been used to cover prolonged and deliberate crime, and preparation for crime, is both alarming and disgusting, because there are signs of social rottenness in it. If it ends in completely destroying the presumption of moral soundness which religious profession now raises, it will probably, even if unfairly destroying it, do the cause of religion much good. The best days of Christianity have been those in which it did not "pay" to be a Christian; its worst have been those when nothing paid so well. Probably we shall not see the long-promised revival until it has ceased, from a worldly point of view, to profit a man anything.

During the week the money market became decidedly more active, and the call-loan rate on stocks advanced to 6@7 per cent. The New York banks lost $1,287,050 in reserve, and held on the average for the week $156,025 less than 25 per cent. reserve; the State banks number fourteen out of a total Clearing-house membership of sixty-one, and they are not obliged to keep 25 per cent. reserve. The Treasury has been weakening the banks by its large receipts, but it has heavy payments to make during the month. The principal part of these, however, is not yet due, and the Treasury on several days of late has still been creditor at the Clearing-house. There has been no change of importance in the foreign money markets, but sterling exchange here has grown weaker, partly because of the advance in the rate for money here, and partly because of an increased supply of commercial bills. The general trade of the country has been active during the week. Railroad tonnage and money receipts for it are increasing largely, and the main crops of the country promise to justify the most sanguine of reasonable expectations. At the Stock Exchange, although prices for railroad stocks declined late in the week, all of the early advance was not lost. The new 3 per cent. bonds of the Government have begun to appear in the market.

If Westminster Abbey is to be made the shrine not only of English but of American worthies—in short, a Pan-Anglo-Saxon Valhalla—a beginning could not be better made than with Longfellow. His admirers are at least as numerous, and his estimation as great, in England as in his native land. The movement across the water to place the poet's bust in the Abbey can excite only feelings of gratification among his countrymen. Nor will those who hope that the world's progress has made another war between the mother country and the United States impossible, criticise the proposal to add even a sentimental tie to those which already exist between the two nations. From the English point of view the argument from inconvenience will be likely to have most weight on the adverse side. The practice once begun—and spontaneously begun, we have no doubt—may some time be invoked by private influence rather than by public acclamation, and under circumstances which may make refusal awkward. Suppose an artist having a bust of Garfield to dispose of, or another a statue of Lincoln—"the first American"—presents himself, with a respectable English backing (and how easy it would be to procure names for such a purpose); or suppose the clique of British Poe worshippers urge that room be made for the author of 'The Raven'; or let the claims of Washington or Franklin be pressed, and we can see how delicate would be the Dean's task of accepting or rejecting the proffered memorial. Even our Central Park Commissioners have found it necessary to fix a term after the death of a public character during which his effigy cannot be received or erected in that pleasure-ground. The effect on the American imagination of the chance to win the posthumous distinction afforded by the Abbey, will depend partly on the line that may be drawn between the past and the present, and partly on the character of the first receptions or applications. That for the moment the "literary fellers" have an advantage over our statesmen as candidates, even Simon Cameron would probably admit.

There was a disgraceful exhibition on Sunday in New Haven, at the funeral of "Chip" Smith, the murderer, who was hanged on Friday. "A solemn requiem mass" was celebrated in the Church of the Assumption, after which the murderer's body was exposed to the

view of thousands. At three o'clock the funeral services took place, the church and the whole neighborhood being thronged. In Father Brady's address he said that, "when in full possession of his faculties," Smith was "kind and agreeable." The funeral was a mile and a half long, the streets being lined with people in number estimated at not less than 10,000. It would be hard to imagine anything more hurtful to morals than this public exhibition and kind of apotheosis of a murderer. Nothing like it would be tolerated in other countries, where the bodies of criminals are either interred in the jail-yard or given to relatives on condition of most private and quiet burial. The injury from scenes like the New Haven display is limitless. To thousands of unformed minds mere notoriety of any sort is a kind of glory—a thing to be desired, and, if possible, achieved. The effect of punishment is thus completely overlaid and obscured. Moreover, the working of the strange law by which crime becomes epidemic greatly depends upon the degree of public familiarity with crime. Contagion, in fact, requires contact. All this is so well understood that it is with something like despair that we see a community like New Haven so little regardful at once of its own reputation and of the public good.

The Newport fox-hunt on Monday was a great success. The excitement was increased, according to the *Herald* correspondent, by the appearance in a corn-field of an "armed garrison of farmers," who forbade the hunters to cross their property, and one of whom discharged the contents of his fowling-piece at the dogs, and came very near hitting one of the hunters. The farmers had provided themselves with stones, and threatened to offer such a formidable resistance that the hunt made a détour and left them in peace. After this escape they had no further trouble till the fox had been killed and the dogs found a roadside water-trough out of which they drank. On this a local Quaker named Hathaway made his appearance, and insisted that the dogs should be taken away, and refused to allow either riders or horses to have any water, declaring finally that the sport was "inhuman," and that he would not countenance it in any way. One of the great charms of fox-hunting has always been the danger attending it; but in England this has been confined to the risk of death or broken limbs through falls. The incidents of Monday's hunt, and those of a year or so ago, when the farmers made trouble with pitchforks, make it look as if hunters might in this country expect much more in the way of excitement. "Garrisons of farmers" holding corn-fields against the hunt, to say nothing of Quakers refusing them water, are dangers seldom encountered in England, and ought to lend great zest to the sport.

The trustees of the Irish "Skirmishing Fund" have absolutely refused to render an account to the committee of inquiry appointed by the "subscribers'" meeting, partly on the ground that few, if any, subscribers were there, and partly that the behavior of those who were there was marked by "blackguardism." The thing for O'Donovan to do now is to raise another fund to "skirmish" with the trustees until they produce the money or tell where it is. They are clearly traitors to the cause, and deserve the punishment prescribed for that class of offenders in the Irish National Code. We regret to learn from the trustees that there were "British spies" at the subscribers' meeting, but they ought not to attach too much importance to this circumstance, because, we believe, there has been no meeting of Irish Nationalists for centuries which was not attended by a greater or less number of this description of persons. There is no more devoted frequenter of all gatherings of men of the Celtic race than the spy. In troublous times in France he misses no meeting of importance, and sometimes, as in Ireland, addresses the crowd himself, urging them to the commission of deeds of unusual atrocity.

The police trouble in Ireland is, on the whole, the most serious one with which the Government has had to contend, because it is absolutely novel. "Outrages" and disturbances are a long-established feature of Irish life with which it has had much experience in dealing, but it has never before had to meet a revolt of Irish police or soldiers. The fidelity of the police during the last fifty years has, in fact, been very remarkable, considering the condition of the popular mind during nearly the whole of that period; but the spell has been broken by the events of the last week. The force can never be counted on again with the old certainty. The mutiny of the Constabulary has apparently been tided over or postponed, but the spirit of the men has undoubtedly undergone a change which will make them untrustworthy hereafter. The strike of the city police was more serious because it left Dublin at the mercy of the mob, and it was a mob prepared for mischief by all the political agitation of the last few years. In both cases the crisis seems to have been brought on, not so much by the unwillingness of the Government to redress undoubted grievances, as by the overbearing demeanor of the authorities, which in fact aggravates nearly all Irish troubles. In Ireland the manners of men in power from top to bottom, including landlord manners to tenantry, are a reflection or imitation of the historic attitude of the English mind toward all things Irish. Even Mr. Forster, good-natured Quaker though he was, caught the Irish official tone during his Secretaryship, and on one occasion gave the Dublin Corporation a "dressing" such as would have been due to impudent meddlers with what did not concern them.

The affair is unfortunate for the Ministry, because it will furnish both the Tories and the Whigs with support for their old theory that Irish demands are, for all practicable purposes, insatiable, and that Mr. Gladstone, in trying to satisfy some of them, has simply bred new ones, and is completing the disorganization of the never very well knit framework of Irish society. On the other hand, we cannot help believing that it will do something toward preparing the Liberal party in England for the inevitable concession of some sort of Home Rule, which will deliver Englishmen from the task, for which they have shown themselves ten times over unfit, of keeping order in Ireland. The spectacle of an English Peer, lodged in a "Castle" in Dublin, riding about with an escort of cavalry, and at his wits' end to provide police for the streets, the inhabitants of which jeer at him and want him to go home, is one which before many years will seem ludicrous even to English Tories.

Sir Garnet Wolseley's delay in advancing begins to give dissatisfaction to our esteemed contemporaries the *Herald* and *Sun*, and it will be advisable for him not to try their patience too much, as they may in that case transfer their countenance and advice to Arabi Pasha, who, since the capture of Fehmy Pasha, is evidently rather hard up for strategy. The *Sun* "feels misgivings" about Sir Garnet's "demand for reinforcements" (which he denies that he made), and about the withdrawal of the Highlanders from Alexandria, and is apparently preparing to "hurl a large force," on Arabi's account, "from Salihiyeh, upon Kantara," and "impede, if not cut off," the wretched Wolseley's "communications with Port Saïd." All we can say is that we trust the *Sun* will remain in this contest where it belongs, on the Christian side, and will do no "hurling" against Wolseley till he has had another week. In the meantime "hurling large forces" is apparently the last thing Arabi is thinking of, because, poor fellow, he has no large force. What he is doing is intrenching himself vigorously on the road to Cairo, by the use of peasant-labor, and he is apparently raising raw levies in the belief that they will fight well enough behind parapets. His artillery, too, is evidently improving, and he is at last beginning to use the Bedouin horsemen both to mask his movements and to scout and harass. Better cavalry for these purposes does not exist.

The Turks and Greeks have made peace, it is reported, on the Thessalian frontier, but not until they had managed between them to kill and maim over 400 men. The quarrel has been about a piece of territory where the International Commission had failed to make the boundary line distinct, a part of which the Turks now offer to cede or else make the whole neutral. Austria has rebuked the Greeks for disturbing the peace of Europe, which seems to indicate that neither she nor Germany is ready for another row. The Porte has at last got leave to land 2,000 or 3,000 men at Port Saïd, but in what manner they are to affect the fortunes of the campaign it would be hard to say, except to give the natives a vague idea that the British are not engaged in an anti-Mussulman crusade. If Wolseley should meet with a reverse, there is little question that their activity would go rather to impede than to help him. It is a thousand pities that Lord Dufferin cannot write an account of the negotiations by which the despatch of these troops was brought about, for one of the magazines. It would probably be as diverting a bit of comic literature as has appeared for many years.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 30, to TUESDAY, Sept. 5, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR'S vacation has been a continuous round of entertainments and receptions in his honor. On Wednesday he visited the training-ship *New Hampshire*, at Newport; and West Island, as the guest of the Fishery Club, at that place, on Thursday, in the steamer *Dispatch*. He attended a clam-bake at Squantum on Friday, and on the return trip, while in a dense fog, the *Dispatch* ran aground on Gould Island, opposite Newport. The President remained on board all night. The ship floated about 10 o'clock on Saturday morning. He will remain at Newport until Wednesday morning.

New York politics were the subject of much discussion by the metropolitan and provincial press during the week. There has been, to a certain degree, an expression of favor for Governor Cornell in the rural districts, as has been shown by the election of a number of delegates to the State Convention instructed to support him. The independent press of the State have been supporting Wadsworth with increasing vigor, while the Stalwart newspapers, which at first seemed to show a preference for him, are gradually revealing their real choice to be Secretary Folger, who, of course, represents the Arthur Administration. On Wednesday it was announced by his authority that if he is nominated for the Governorship, and there is a fair concurrence of popular sentiment, he will accept. The tally of delegates to the State Convention elected up to Saturday was as follows: Cornell 39, Folger 28, Wadsworth 12, Wood 5, doubtful 5. The appearances are that Wadsworth will hold the balance of power between Cornell and the Administration candidate.

An election took place in Arkansas on Monday. The success of the Democrats is conceded. A Republican Governor and two Congressmen were elected in Vermont, on Tuesday, by large majorities.

The Republican State Convention of California on Thursday adopted a platform which favors civil-service reform and economy of administration; demands the regulation of railroads by the State, and inter-State traffic by Congress; and condemns the railroad contract system. M. M. Estee was nominated for Governor, with a full State ticket.

At a meeting on Thursday the Texas Greenbackers agreed to support the Independent candidates in the coming election.

A platform favoring the resubmission of the prohibition amendment to the Constitution to the voters of the State in 1884 was passed by the Kansas Democratic State Convention on Thursday. George W. Glick, of Atchison, was nominated for Governor, with a full State ticket and three Congressmen-at-large.

The Michigan Republicans on Wednesday nominated Henry A. Conant for Secretary of State, and a full State ticket.

A great many Congressional nominations have been made by both parties throughout the United States, among them John R. Lynch, a colored Republican, in the Sixth Mississippi District.

Senator Mahone's troubles in Virginia politics are increasing. The Straight-out Republicans are joining with the Funder Democrats in supporting Independent candidates for Congress. In order to help the "boss," it is said that the Congressional Republican Committee has decided to give him $50,000 for a campaign fund. Great efforts are making to prevent Jorgensen, a present Republican Congressman, from running as an Independent candidate. John W. Woltz, a former Readjuster, has been dismissed from a position in the Interior Department, at Mahone's dictation, because of his anti-Mahone sentiments. On Thursday he was nominated by the Republicans of the First Virginia District to oppose the Mahone candidate for Congress.

Republican clerks in Washington from Louisiana have been assessed five per cent. of their salaries by the Republican Campaign Committee of the Third Louisiana Congressional District.

Senator Harrison, of Indiana, in a campaign speech on Wednesday night in Indianapolis, declared himself in favor of civil-service reform.

The Utah Commission have made the appointment of twenty-four registers under the Edmunds anti-polygamy law. Seven of these are Gentiles, nine apostate Mormons, and eight Mormons. Their duty is to exclude polygamists from the registration lists of voters. The Commission have prescribed an oath which asserts: "I do solemnly swear that I am not a bigamist or polygamist; that I am not a violator of the laws of the United States prohibiting bigamy or polygamy." This has called forth an address to the Latter-Day Saints, signed by John Taylor, G. Q. Cannon, and Joseph F. Smith, calling on them to "guard sacredly our covenants," and "guard well our franchise," and "sustain our political status."

By direction of the President, the Military Department of West Point was discontinued on September 1, from which date the Military Academy has been and will be under the supervision of the General of the Army. Col. Wesley Merritt, of the Fifth Cavalry, assumed the duties of Superintendent on that day, releaving Gen. O. O. Howard, who went to Omaha to take charge of the Department of the Platte. General Cook has gone from that department to Arizona.

Secretary of the Navy Chandler has been continuing his tour of inspection of the Navy-yards along the coast, in the *Tallapoosa*. Daily meetings are held on board ship, at which the Secretary and the heads of bureaus compare their observations and decide to a certain extent on the disposition of the business for which the trip was undertaken.

Secretary Lincoln, of the War Department, has submitted to the Attorney-General, for an opinion, the question whether the work of improving the Potomac River opposite Washington, and reclaiming the flats, for which there is an appropriation of $400,000, can be begun before settling all pending questions affecting the title to the land to be improved. The Attorney-General has decided that the work can be begun immediately.

On Friday the Secretary of War issued an order revoking his previous order relieving Col. Samuel D. Sturgis from the Governorship of the Soldiers' Home, near Washington. This was done in conformity with an opinion from the Attorney-General.

During the month of August the public debt of the United States was decreased more than $16,000,000.

The harvest reports from the West continue to be unusually good. The winter-wheat crop of Illinois is estimated to be the largest ever harvested, except that of 1880, in that State. It exceeds 50,000,000 bushels. Spring wheat aggregates more than 52,000,000 bushels. The oat crop of the State is estimated at 99,000,000 bushels. The prospects for corn in the Western States continue to be rather discouraging. The amount of wheat available for export in Oregon is estimated at 285,000 tons.

The Tariff Commission has been holding its sessions in various cities during the week. On Wednesday it met in Buffalo. B. B. Glenny, of that city, an importer of earthenware, urged the reduction of duty on such goods. The Commission held a meeting at Cleveland on Thursday, at which the hoop-iron manufacturers presented a plea for specific instead of *ad valorem* duties. A session was held at Detroit on Friday.

The American Social Science Association opened its session at Saratoga on Monday evening. The Educational Department held a meeting on Tuesday, and addresses were made in commemoration of Charles Darwin.

The American Science Association concluded its session at Montreal on Wednesday, the Rev. Dr. Houghton, of Dublin, delivering the closing address. Prof. C. A. Young, the Astronomer of Princeton College, was elected President for the ensuing year. A committee was appointed to prosecute the movement for international standard time.

In the Star-route trial at Washington on Wednesday Mr. Wilson concluded his argument for the defence. He devoted a great deal of his time to an analysis of Walsh's testimony, pointing out its seeming deficiencies. Mr. Henkle began his speech for the defence on the same day and continued throughout Thursday and Friday. The Court on that day adjourned over until Monday. Mr. Henkle did not conclude until Monday evening. On Tuesday morning Col. Ingersoll began the closing argument for the defence.

Captain Payne has been again arrested for trespassing on the Indian Territory.

Apache Indians have been creating a great deal of excitement in Sonora, Mexico, and in Arizona, by a series of outrages. Travelling miners have been killed and ranches raided. In the valley of Calabasa twenty men, women, and children have been massacred.

Reports that the Crow Indians of Montana have been committing depredations are denied by a post-trader, who asserts that they never were more peaceable than now. He thinks that the next generation will be practical farmers.

The yellow-fever epidemic has attacked one-tenth of the population of Brownsville, Texas. It is spreading at Pensacola, Florida. In Matamoras, Mexico, it is slowly decreasing. There are about 200 cases in the town.

At Old Orchard Beach, Me., on Thursday, the Hotel Brunswick, the Pleasant House, and other adjoining property were burned. The guests narrowly escaped, and lost all their personal effects.

A child, Lizzie Selden, who was stolen from in front of her parents' residence, in Brooklyn, on August 21, was found by a detective with a woman named Maggie Kappel, supposed to be her abductor, at 122 Park Avenue, Brooklyn, on Thursday morning. The woman has been declared insane by physicians.

Charles E. Courtney, of Union Springs, N. Y., on Friday afternoon defeated Lee, of Newark, N. J., in a single-scull race, on Canaderaga Lake, N. Y., by a length and a half. The distance was three miles, with a turn, and the time 19:31¼, the fastest on record.

The British rifle team have arrived in this country and have begun practising at Creedmoor for the coming match with the American team.

The Irish "skirmishers" of this city, who are trying to find out what became of about $90,000 entrusted to a few of their leaders, held a meeting on Sunday and received a report to the effect that the persons who had received the money declined to explain what had become of it. The meeting adjourned without taking any decisive action.

The will of the late Dr. Musgrave, of Philadelphia, leaves the bulk of his large property to Princeton College and Seminary.

Chief-Engineer William W. Wood, United States Navy, was drowned on Thursday morning, while sailing near Point Lookout, Md., by the upsetting of his boat.

FOREIGN.

General Wolseley's campaign in Egypt during the week has been one of careful preparation. After the brilliant victory at Kasassin Lock, in which the Household Cavalry especially distinguished themselves by a charge at a critical moment, the entire army under General Wolseley began the march to the front. The railway along the route almost to Tel-el-Kebir was completed by Wednesday. Three

engines arrived later in the week, and, with plenty of cars on hand, the forwarding of supplies from the Canal to the front was made easy. A correspondent, writing on Wednesday of the Kasassin battle-field, said: "I found two acres thickly strewn with corpses of the enemy." Another said: "An officer who was present says the cavalry charge was ordered for the purpose of saving the position, as the ammunition had run short. The bodies of Egyptian soldiers were hacked and slashed almost out of semblance to humanity by the long broad-swords of the Guards."

It was rumored at Port Saïd on Thursday that Arabi Pasha had asked for an eight days' armistice, but that General Wolesley would only agree to one day. The rumor was not confirmed. Major-General Lowe began on that day to concentrate the entire cavalry at Maxema. Two reconnoissances were made, and sketches made of Arabi's position, which was found to be weaker than expected in certain parts, but Tel-el-Kebir is strongly intrenched. Arabi withdrew, on Friday, most of his troops from Kafr-el-Dwar to Tel-el-Kebir.

At 5 o'clock on Monday evening the English heavy guns near the Cairo railway, in the neighborhood of Alexandria, began shelling Arabi Pasha's camp. The enemy replied, and a lively cannonade ensued. On Tuesday there was considerable movement in the Egyptian camp, apparently caused by the arrival of reinforcements. On that day Mahmud Fehmy wrote a report, addressed to the Khedive, with plans revealing the positions and strength of the enemy. From internal evidence it is believed that his statements are correct. He accuses many of those composing the entourage of the Khedive, including the Prime Minister, of having communicated with Arabi.

It was asserted in London that General Wolseley had telegraphed to the British authorities that it was unnecessary to prepare a third army corps, as he only required a few reinforcements to fill up gaps. The Government, however, determined on Monday to send him three battalions of infantry, so that General Wood might be set free without leaving a garrison of less than 5,000 men at Alexandria. The general result of these measures will be that General Wolseley will have 22,000 men on the main line of operations. Arabi has, it is said, an excellent position near Kasassin. He is in direct communication by rail with Zagazig and Salihiyeh.

Orders have been received at Woolwich, England, to despatch 4,000 troops to Egypt.

Gen. Sir Evelyn Wood assumed the chief command of the troops at Alexandria and vicinity on Wednesday. Sherif Pasha, the new President of the Egyptian Ministry, issued a circular on that day drawing the attention of the foreign Consuls to the immense influx of low-class population. He ordered that persons having no fixed occupation or visible means of support should not be allowed to land. On Thursday the enemy retired 1,000 yards further from Mihalla Junction, apparently in the direction of Damanhur, but they continued to intrench opposite Meks. Five signallers, who had been flashing lights from the front of the British position to Arabi's camp, were captured. The situation in Alexandria was somewhat relieved on Thursday by the discovery of a large supply of fresh water in some old forgotten wells. In the evening seamen from the *Minotaur* and a company of the Fifty-third regiment blew up a house on the Canal, near Ramleh, which had long been a point of vantage to the enemy's sharp-shooters. Mahmud Fehmy, Arabi's chief engineer and military adviser, recently captured, was taken to Alexandria on Friday, and handed over to the Egyptian authorities, the Khedive guaranteeing that he should not be put to death without the consent of the British. The British man-of-war *Minotaur* shelled the enemy's lines between Ramleh and Abukir early on Saturday morniu

There was considerable uneasiness at Alexandria on Monday, caused by the arrest of a Greek who, it was rumored, was implicated in a conspiracy to massacre the Europeans in Alexandria, in the event of the British troops being seriously engaged at Ramleh.

A meeting of Notables was held at Cairo on August 29, at which the Governor of Ismaïlia was present. Speeches were made recognizing Arabi Pasha as sole ruler of Egypt. The Prefect of Police, on hearing this, declared against Arabi, and ordered the arrest of all persons present at the meeting.

Evidence abounds in Constantinople that the Turkish population sympathizes with Arabi Pasha. The native newspapers print reports of Egyptian victories over the British, and other false rumors. The Porte began on Thursday to make fresh objections to the military convention, which it was supposed had been practically agreed upon. Lord Dufferin refused to insert a clause giving the right to land Turkish troops at Alexandria, but consented to a proviso that the English and Turkish staffs might have power to modify the military programme. On Sunday he informed the Sultan that he had been authorized to assent to the landing of two or three thousand Turkish troops at Port Saïd. It is understood that Dervish Pasha will command the expedition. On Tuesday an irade was issued authorizing the signing of the Anglo-French military convention. The Sultan's proclamation against Arabi, proclaiming him a rebel for disobeying the Khedive and Dervish Pasha, was issued on Tuesday. It exhorts all Egyptians to obey the Khedive.

Additional troops were ordered by the Grecian Government to the Thessalian frontier on Wednesday to resist the Turks. The Greek Minister at Constantinople held a conference with the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs, and it was reported that the Porte had decided to order a cessation of hostilities. It seems to be generally believed in Europe that the Greeks have been the aggressors in the affair. The Turkish commander on Thursday demanded an armistice, which was refused by the Greeks, because he would not withdraw from the points which he had recently occupied. Hostilities then began again. The Powers advised an armistice, and the Porte proposed that the Greek Government should establish a neutral zone around the disputed territory until the definitive settlement of the question. This proposition, however, was not accepted. The Greeks on Friday drove the Turks out of the forest between Zorbos and the coast.

It was announced on Sunday that in consequence of diplomatic communications between Constantinople and Athens, the *status quo ante* had been reëstablished, and all hostilities on the Turco-Greek frontier had consequently ceased. The disputed points of the territory are to be settled by an agreement between Saïd Pasha and the Greek Minister to Turkey.

At a meeting of 300 policemen in Dublin on Thursday night, resolutions were passed expressing dissatisfaction at not receiving a grant similar to that received by the Constabulary, and asking Earl Spencer to consider their case. On Friday 234 of these were summarily dismissed. Great excitement ensued in Dublin. All the police, except the officers and members of the detective force, immediately struck. Four hundred men were sworn in as special constables, and the Lord Mayor issued a proclamation calling on the citizens to join in the efforts to maintain peace in the city. Great crowds gathered in the streets. Rioting broke out in College Street at 9 o'clock in the evening, and the mob took possession of the city. At 10:30 o'clock a mob threw stones at some troops. The Riot Act was read, the troops charged, and the mob fled. Large bodies of infantry and cavalry paraded the streets during the entire night. On Saturday the police offered, if the dismissed men were reinstated, to waive all other claims, pending a meeting of the Commission to consider their grievances.

The Dublin police who had resigned sent a memorial to the Castle on Saturday evening, expressing deep regret at their action, and asking Earl Spencer to consider their case. He replied that if they returned to duty that evening, their case would receive the fullest consideration. A number of the men then returned to their posts. About 700 special constables were sworn in during the day. Disorder, however, broke out afresh in the evening. The military were obliged to charge a mob around the O'Connell statue. There was much stone-throwing, and several persons were wounded. On Sunday the dismissed men followed the example of those who had resigned, and sent a memorial to the Castle acknowledging that they had committed a breach of discipline and asking to be reinstated. The mob became very violent Sunday night, and was charged several times by the troops. By midnight, quiet had been restored. Eighty persons, injured since the rioting began, were in the Dublin hospitals on Monday.

Earl Spencer, the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, replying on Tuesday to the memorial from the dismissed policemen, said he had directed that a careful inquiry be held into the recent conduct and previous character of the memorialists. He promised that those men who appeared deserving should be reinstated. This answer, it is said, has given great satisfaction.

Mr. Mountague Bernard, D.C.L., one of the British High Commissioners who signed the treaty of Washington of 1871, died on Saturday at his residence in England. He was sixty-two years of age. For many years he was Professor of International Law at Oxford University.

Prince Leopold of England, the Duke of Albany, has been ill for several weeks, but is now slightly better.

The Archbishop of Canterbury, Archibald Campbell Tait, is very ill.

The movement in London in favor of placing a bust of Longfellow in Westminster Abbey is meeting with earnest support from the leading literary men in England.

Sarah Bernhardt, after performing in a theatre at Bradford, England, on Wednesday evening, began spitting blood, and was for two hours unconscious. On Friday she set out for Paris.

The British steamer, *Lake Nepigon*, from Liverpool for Montreal, went ashore on Ark low Bank, off the eastern coast of Ireland, on Friday. She carried twenty-three saloon and seventy-nine steerage passengers, and a crew of fifty-three. All were safely landed on the coast by the ship's boats. The ship floated at high tide and was taken up the Mersey. She is very slightly damaged.

Cetewayo has sailed from England for his Zulu kingdom. John Dunn has advised the Zulu chiefs to give him a friendly welcome.

The *Popolo Romano*, semi-official Italian organ, announces authoritatively that specie payments will not be resumed in Italy until April, 1883.

Johann Halbig, a celebrated German sculptor, died in Berlin on Thursday, at the age of sixty-eight. It is estimated that his works number one thousand.

About one hundred persons were killed and many injured by a railway accident on Monday in Germany near Hugstetten. The train jumped the rails.

A hail-storm occurred near Pesth, Hungary, early last week, which partly demolished fifty houses and destroyed many vineyards. A number of workmen were killed.

Anti-religious disturbances have broken out in the department of Allier, France.

A syndicate of London capitalists have contracted for the construction of an electric railway in Switzerland, on the Edison system,

THE ORIGIN OF THE BOSS SYSTEM.

THE new volume of the 'Diplomatic Correspondence,' issued by the State Department, contains a despatch of April 4, 1881, addressed by Mr. Blaine to Mr. Angell, our Minister in China, in which he directs him to disabuse the mind of the Japanese Minister at Pekin touching the position of ex-President Grant. This Japanese Minister had made a communication to Mr. Angell, the excuse for which was that certain negotiations to which it referred, between Japan and China, had been opened on the suggestion of General Grant when on his travels, from which it was supposed there resulted some obligation on the part of the United States Government to see them to a successful issue. Mr. Blaine corrects this impression about General Grant's position by informing the Japanese that he travelled simply as a private citizen, "without representative character or official responsibility," and that any advice he gave was that of a private citizen. The mistake of the Japanese was, however, more excusable than it seems on the surface. General Grant undoubtedly did not believe that he travelled simply as a private citizen. He felt that he was taking a vacation between two terms of the Presidency, and that he was suggesting to the Chinese and Japanese a line of conduct which he would himself probably be called on officially to endorse shortly afterward. The idea of some sort of permanent connection with the Executive—perhaps a vague and shadowy protectorate—had undoubtedly taken possession of his mind, and was not banished from it until Garfield had obtained the Presidency and had disregarded his recommendations to office.

Nor was this at all surprising. He came to the Presidency a simple soldier, without many political ideas, or anything that could be called a political philosophy, and continued in this condition until he fell into the hands of Mr. Roscoe Conkling, who at once undertook his political education. In giving it, Conkling undoubtedly founded the boss system, and originated the idea of that subtle but very serious change in our political machinery which Don Cameron had in mind when he said, at the beginning of the third-term struggle, before the Chicago Convention, that "the people were tired of the uncertainties of Government." The "uncertainties" to which he referred were the "uncertainties" about the action of nominating conventions, through their exposure to the influence of public opinion—a disturbing force which managers cannot control, and the direction of which they cannot always foresee, and which if allowed to act freely on the nominating machinery would be constantly producing unexpected results. What he and his confederates sought, therefore, was a system under which conventions could be summoned whose action could be foretold accurately, and for which programmes could be prepared in the inner councils of the party, and management be thus made a branch of high strategy instead of an affair of newspaper palaver.

For the perfect working of this new régime three things were necessary: a party with so permanent a hold on the Government that it should seem to be the Government itself, and that its overthrow should have the air of a revolution; a permanent President with such claims on popular confidence and gratitude that hostility to his perpetuity in office should have the air of treason to the cause he had served, and who in Washington, as the fountain of the patronage, would play the part of a head boss; and as many State bosses as could be set up with the aid of the patronage. There were many marks of enormous and corrupt ambition about the scheme, but none of genius, for genius discovers unerringly what is practicable. How it miscarried every one knows. There were not enough State bosses to carry it out, and those in existence were not up to their work. Bosses, after all, cannot be altogether made at Washington. They need to have native talent for the business, and some favoring antecedents. The only Grant bosses who amounted to anything were Cameron and Conkling. Logan tried the part gallantly, but made a wretched failure, and the whole boss fabric went to pieces on Garfield's election, after ten years' labor had been expended on it.

It would be a great mistake, however, to suppose that its promoters have abandoned the scheme or lost faith in it. It is, in their minds, the coming change, or, as they would probably say, the next stage of development in the American Government. They regard it as an eminently practical thing, and no word has such charms for them as the word "practical." Their system is the one which they think absolutely necessary to adapt the Government to the enormous industrial growth of the country, with the accompanying vast accumulations of capital and delicate and complicated financial interests. They believe the great moneyed men of the railroads, and the manufactories, and the banks, need to have the Government controlled either by their own agents and partners, or by men of their own kind, who are in sympathy with them, and can exchange assistance with them, so that united they can disregard popular clamor as expressed through the newspapers. They are accordingly eagerly engaged since General Garfield's death in trying to repair their broken fortunes and rebuild their waste places. If they can win New York again for their system, and suppress the revolt in Pennsylvania, they will have every reason to feel hopeful. They have already added one more State boss to their list in the person of Mahone, in Virginia, who is playing the boss's part with less disguise than any of the others. A letter of his has been published within a day or two, which has not been equalled in cool insolence in the history of the Government, in which he explains to a dismissed Federal officeholder that his dismissal was due to his insubordinate criticism of the Mahone policy in Virginia.

CONGRESS AND REFORM.

MR. GAMALIEL BRADFORD, of Boston, has been laboring for years, with great ability as well as persistence, to convince the American public that the national salvation is to be found only, or mainly, in giving seats in Congress to members of the Cabinet, who could thus frame legislation, push or defend it, and answer questions concerning matters of administration. He wishes, in short, to tack one feature of the English Parliamentary system on to our Presidential system, and maintains, with a great variety of very effective illustration, that without some change which will enable the Executive to produce, expound, and carry out a policy, our Government will be reduced to a condition of complete paralysis. In fact, he says, it has reached that stage already, for it is no longer capable of devising and enacting any well-considered measure of reform, or, in fact, of doing more than quarrel and pass slovenly and often corrupt appropriation bills.

He has an article on this theme in the last number of the *International Review*, in which he applies his test to the civil-service reform agitation, and informs those who are engaged in it that they are giving themselves needless trouble, because there is not the smallest chance of their scheme being carried out until it can be produced, as it was in England, by a powerful Executive, capable of forcing it on an unwilling Congress by the aid of public opinion. The President, he says, cannot now give up the use of the patronage in purchasing the support of members of Congress, because this is the only way he has of saving himself from complete impotence. Without offices to bribe Senators and Representatives with, he would be an object of contempt, if not of derision, to the majority in both Houses, and he has at present no means of appealing to the people for support against them. Give him the power of initiating legislation in Congress, through the heads of departments, and he would, Mr. Bradford thinks, have this power of appeal. He could state his case in a way that would command attention. The Opposition would have to give its reasons for objecting; there would be real debate; the public would be interested, and its judgment would be informed. Members of the Cabinet would become men of mark, famed either for their administrative talent or for their legislative talent, and the people would know at last whom to trust, and whom to look to, if they wanted anything done. Therefore the thing for civil-service reformers to do is to go to work to get members of the Cabinet admitted to Congress. Until they accomplish this they are simply beating the air.

Unfortunately for Mr. Bradford, an actual trial of his theory is now going on in France under our very eyes, and with results that ought to be fatal to it as a panacea. The French have done the very thing by which, he says, we must be saved. Their Ministers have seats in both houses of Parliament, and have unlimited liberty of talk and of legislative initiative. They make all the speeches they please, and are listened to for the most part attentively. They can be interpellated or asked questions about anything within their respective departments. They are, in fact, in their relations to the Legislature and the public, exactly what Mr. Bradford would like to see our Cabinet become. What is the result of four years' working of the system since the overthrow of the Empire?

The result is that Cabinets have lost all stability whatever. There have been twenty-three Ministers of the Interior since 1870, each

of whom has on an average filled his place six months. The changes, too, are increasing rapidly. Within the past year, there have been four Cabinets in France, and each successive Cabinet has less influence with the Chambers. Moreover, with each change the quality of the Ministers declines, and more obscure men come to the front. In fact, since 1870 a very prominent feature of the work of the French Legislature has been the relegation of distinguished politicians to private life. Beginning with M. Thiers, nearly every contemporary French statesman of note has been contemptuously dismissed by the Chamber. Their eloquence, their experience, and their patriotism have availed them nothing. One by one they have passed from the stage, until we now have what is called a "business Ministry," or, in other words, a Ministry of nobodies, who are willing to play the part of clerks of the Chamber. The Chamber has in fact taken the whole machinery of Government, administrative as well as legislative, into its own hands, and has left the French Executive, which all the traditions and habits of the country tended to exalt, the weakest in the civilized world, the most impotent either for good or evil.

Now, what is the cause of all this? Why is it that Mr. Bradford's scheme has proved such a lamentable failure in the very country of all in which it might be expected, *à priori*, to succeed most brilliantly? The cause seems simple enough, and it is one which would produce a precisely similar result under like conditions in this country or even in England—namely, the want on the part of the Executive of the power of dissolving the Legislature, in which lies the only mode in which the Executive can effectively appeal to the people against a hostile or recalcitrant majority. In France the Chambers cannot be dissolved without the consent of the Senate, and this leaves the Cabinet at the mercy of both of them. If the English Ministry were deprived of this power, the disappearance from influence and prominence of all the great political notables, beginning with Mr. Gladstone, would be very rapid—perhaps as rapid as in France. Curiously enough, too — and this throws a somewhat comic light on Mr. Bradford's remedy as regards civil-service reform—this triumph of the Chambers over the Executive in France is marked by a vigorous attack on the stability of the tenure of office in the civil service. A swarm of Conklings, Dorseys, Bradys, Hubbells, Camerons, Platts, begin to show themselves, who are clamorous for offices to be used in promoting their own reëlection, and are too busy with officeseekers to pay much attention to legislation or foreign policy.

THE AUTHOR'S BEST FRIEND.

The apparent breakdown of the copyright negotiations between England and this country again calls attention to the singular condition of authors' rights in both countries, as the absence of any international protection for them has produced a condition of affairs which no one ever anticipated, and which bids fair in time to work its own cure.

The interest which always opposed international copyright down to within a very few years, was that of the respectable publishers, and it was evident that until it could in some way be proved to them that piracy in the long run would injure, not improve, their business, no international copyright law could ever be passed. Now, what half a century of argument and entreaty never accomplished, the agency of cheap piracy is rapidly and thoroughly effecting all over the world. The new race of pirates are actually doing what the respectable publishers always promised to do in supplying the world with really cheap literature, and in doing it they are ruining the once profitable business of respectable piracy. A publisher who reprints in this country a popular English book, which he secures by paying the author for the sheets, has now, we believe, only about a week's sales from which to derive his profit. At the end of that time the pirate has caught up with him, published the book in a cheap form, and made the authorized edition unprofitable. The pirate carries on his business in perfect security and without the slightest risk. He waits for the appearance of a popular book, and the moment he sees that it is likely to be profitable to the regular publisher, he takes it away from him and pockets whatever it brings. The week's start which the publisher has, is in fact a distinct advantage to the pirate, for it furnishes a test as to the popularity of the book.

It must be confessed that as a system of piracy this far surpasses anything the world has ever seen. Marine piracy, even in its most flourishing period, was always attended with great risks. The pirate might at any time have to give battle and fight for his life, and if he was caught he was immediately hung. But a literary pirate is not only not an outlaw, he is protected by the law; he is the product of law. After two generations of discussion of protection of literary property, the cheap pirate is what we have to show as our contribution to the progress of the world; and the curious part of the matter is that we know him to be a pirate, and call him a pirate, and denounce him as a pirate, and yet do nothing to suppress him.

The trouble is, moreover, by no means confined to the United States. Precisely the same causes which have been at work here have been also at work in Canada, and similar effects have been the result. The passionate longing for "cheap books," which displayed itself so early in the United States, developed itself about a generation ago in Canada, and has produced a chaos of legislation, in the midst of which the pirate has made his appearance, astounding the publishers who had been fostering the demand for cheap literature, by making it cheap at their expense. It must not be forgotten—it is a fact which the pirate himself never forgets—that such legal rights of authors and publishers as exist, are involved all over the English-speaking world in profound confusion, owing to conflicting legislation and judicial decisions. An enormous amount of legal ingenuity is spent all the time now in devising means of getting international copyright by some trick or device which will render the pirate helpless. As yet, however, in the struggle the pirate is far ahead. Mark Twain's recent attempt to get the better of him by means of a trip to Canada only showed how strongly intrenched was his position there.

A very slight consideration of such facts as these will convince any one that the pirate is doing a great work—a work which no one else could do. He is teaching the publishers all over the world that to protect themselves they must protect authors. It is easy to see that authors by themselves would never have accomplished this without the aid of the pirate. Legislation with us is controlled to a great extent by capital, and authors have no capital, except their brains, which count for little in such matters. What was needed was that the owners of the capital connected with literature, and by means of which it is carried on, should be made to feel that they were being preyed upon. That they now feel it, and feel it acutely, is evident from the attempt to get a treaty, and the amusing disclosures as to the working of the Canadian laws. The treaty has broken down because the publishers of each country want it arranged in such a way as to benefit themselves to the exclusion of their rivals in business. The failure of the treaty, however, brings them face to face with the startling fact that there is no alternative between universal piracy and an alteration of the law which will put literary property on the same ground with all other kinds. The author's best friend, therefore, is at present the pirate. With every volume he steals he is doing more to help on the cause of reform than all the "royalties" and "honorariums" paid to foreign authors from the beginning of time.

Nor should the fact be overlooked that, in all the recent discussion with regard to international copyright, the new pirates have refrained from taking any part in it. The authors have explained their views, the respectable publishers have explained theirs, but the pirate has said nothing. No interviews with him are reported; he writes no magazine articles; he has nobody in Washington to represent him; he simply goes on plundering, and allows the discussion of his occupation to be carried on by those whom he plunders.

It should not be supposed that he is silent from having nothing to say. If the new pirate desired to defend himself against the abuse which is heaped upon him, he would find plenty of materials without much difficulty. The magazines and newspapers of a generation ago, and the files of the *Congressional Globe*, are full of arguments to show that piracy of foreign books is one of the main bulwarks of national progress. See, it used to be said, what a multitude of beneficial results flow from it! In England the public, for some reason, wants dear books. Here the public wants and must have cheap books. If there were an international copyright law, the public here would have to buy the copyright edition, or, in other words, it would have to pay twice as much for the book. Now, much of our most valuable literature comes from England. Macaulay, Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, and innumerable other authors are needed by us; and if we do not steal them, the result will be that the spread of knowledge will be restricted, and literature, instead of being open to the public at large, will be restricted to a class—an idea of which no great and free people will endure

the thought. It was by arguments of this sort, in and out of Congress, that piracy was for a long time defended in this country, and it was not wholly abandoned by the publishers even after they began to give "honorariums" to foreign authors.

Now, the new pirate never resorts to this argument at all, though he has a far better reason for using it. The publishers whose place in the affections of the people he wishes to take, never did produce, even by piracy, a really cheap literature. They, and the statesmen who helped forward the discussion of the copyright question in Congress, were always saying that literature should be cheap, but all they actually did was to sell English books for the same price that American books of a corresponding class brought. But the pirate has in a twinkling made the entire body of English literature dirt cheap. All the stores of history, science, criticism, fiction, and humor possessed by the race have been suddenly brought by him within the reach of the humblest citizen. Books after all, even in this country, were before the day of the pirate a luxury. He has brought them within the reach of the elevator-boy and the bootblack.

Yet the pirate never says a word about it. He never calls upon the public to notice what a noble work he is doing. He never writes to the newspapers to point out what a blight would fall upon "culture" in the United States if piracy were to be stopped. He does not "claim" to steal for the public good. He simply steals and publishes, and publishes and steals. His business is a new one, and the type of man that carries it on is new also. He appears to have many of the qualities which Carlyle used to admire so much and to call upon others to admire with him. He is strong, stern, and silent; a foe to shams of all kinds, not wasting any time in foolish talk, but seeing the thing that is to be done and straightway doing it with all his might; not trying, either, to mawkishly "suffer and be strong," but being strong and letting others suffer. No windbag this, surely, the philosopher might have said, with weak pretence of benevolent motive; rather a Man, scornful of such pretence, with keen insight, as far as he sees, into the Veracities—mainly bent on taking and keeping.

The fact that publishers and authors have a dislike for the pirate, and abuse him roundly, should not blind us to these qualities. The pirate himself probably entertains a profound secret contempt for both publishers and authors. He knows very well that if they could agree to give international protection to literary property, they could bring his business to an end at once. But they do not agree, and it is their disagreement that enables him to prey upon them. In doing this work he is indirectly giving us what we have always demanded—"cheap books." This has been the way with strong men from the beginning of the world. Cromwell, Frederick the Great, Cæsar, Tweed, Jay Gould—all have produced indirect benefits to society that they never intended or dreamt of. So does the pirate. When the strong man comes, somebody has to be sacrificed. That is the way the world is governed. Authors and publishers might have gone on with their silly squabbles about "right" and "law" and "property" for a hundred years. The pirate settled the matter for them in a month.

COTTAGERS AND BOARDERS.

The summer season closed last week for the great body of the Boarders at summer resorts. The "Cottagers," or persons who when they go to the country live in their own houses, will stay nearly three months longer. In fact, every year sees the yearly sojourn of this class in the country lengthened, until now it has begun to get very near Christmas. This is partly due to the fact that the Cottager fathers and husbands are apt to be persons who are not tied closely to business, and can stay with their families all or a considerable portion of the summer half-year. It is due, also, to the fact that the country is really more attractive in our climate in the fall than at any other season. The American spring is so short as to be scarcely noticeable. The summer is too hot and fly-bitten for much exercise for all but the very young; while the three months of autumn are the perfection of weather out of doors, and have the additional merit of making an open fire pleasant in the evenings. The Cottager, too, is apt to be a person whose children are either grown up, or who can afford tutors and governesses, and is thus indifferent to the beginning of school terms in the city.

But recently he has been reinforced by men who enjoy neither the advantage of freedom from business, nor of grown-up children, nor even of easy circumstances, but whose wives and daughters enjoy being Cottagers as a matter of social distinction. In fact, there has of late years sprung up at all the great watering-places, except, perhaps, the medicinal resorts like Saratoga, a conflict between the Cottager and the Boarder, which has assumed the proportions and the bitterness of a Darwinian struggle for existence. There is nothing in the history of animal life on our globe more interesting and in some ways more pathetic than the efforts of the Boarder to survive, as a Cottager, in regions where as a Boarder he is threatened with extinction. He is planting himself all along the coast in small houses attached to hotels, where he gets his meals, and sometimes in curious little shanties with kitchens, in which all the housework except the cooking is done by his own family, and in which his difficulties about his offal and his drainage are often painful to witness. The shore of Frenchman's Bay, opposite Bar Harbor, begins to be dotted with these attempts at "cottage life," and in fact one meets with them the whole way from New London to St. John, New Brunswick, wherever there is an attractive beach or rocky promontory.

There would be nothing wonderful in this even if one's own home was not really to the majority of human beings the most attractive place of abode. But the American summer Boarder who wishes to frequent the most popular summer resorts has had ample warning, by what has occurred at Newport, of the fate that awaits him if he is content to sit down supinely as a Boarder. At Newport, not many years ago, he held his head as high and enjoyed himself as much at his hotel or boarding-house as any Cottager in the place, but his expulsion or degradation of late years has been complete. If the Cottager has not dealt with him as remorselessly as the Saxons with the Britons, he at least occupies at Newport the inferior tolerated position of the foreigner in ancient Athens, and, if he complains, he is met with the unuttered but distinctly understood inquiry why he does not betake himself to places peopled by his own kind. He has struggled gallantly against his fate, but he has been vanquished, and forced to submit to the great law which gives the good soil and good climate and pleasant places of the world to the strongest races. He has retreated to hotels up and down the coast, where he enjoys himself as a private, unabashed Boarder among Boarders.

Mount Desert Island was long the Boarders' Paradise. The badness of the hotels, and the simplicity of the manners and costume, even five short years ago, seemed to make it impossible that the Cottager would ever become "a prominent feature" in the place, much less that the Boarder would ever have anything to fear from him in the way of banishment or extirpation. But there too the old Newport struggle has now been renewed, and with every prospect of its terminating in the Newport way. The hotels are large and numerous, and are peopled by Boarders most of whom are in the first flush of vigorous youth, and with apparently nothing to fear from any quarter. But the Cottager has slowly and steadily, without haste, without rest, followed them up the coast with Roman steadiness and persistence, and is now settling all over the island. Cottages are rising on all the favorite sites in the neighborhood of Bar Harbor. The Cottagers are forming a large and powerful body, united by sympathy and by common traditions and manners, by social ambition and by the magic of property—in short, by all the motives which make men determined and remorseless in asserting their rights or gratifying their desires. They have already formed a sort of caste apart, which looks down on the Boarder with a certain hauteur, and begins to make up parties without him, to be bored by his visits and unwilling to return them, and undisguisedly anxious that he shall quit the soil endeared to him by some of the most touching associations of human existence. The name "Tourist" begins to be applied to him as a depreciatory epithet, like the name "Welshman" given by the victorious Saxons to the expelled Briton who had taken refuge in the mountains. His ordinary mode of conveyance, the once esteemed "buckboard wagon," is now spoken of in cottages with undisguised contempt. In fact, there is every sign that the Boarder will have, before many years, to yield his footing at Bar Harbor as he has done at Newport. Already one meets along the Maine coast, up as far as Campobello, fugitive Bar Harbor Boarders who were too old or too nervous to support even the beginnings of the struggle. They will doubtless be reinforced, as the years roll on, by crowds of others driven out by the victorious Cottagers.

The worst of it is that the Cottager apparently sets no bounds to his pretensions as to territory. His policy, apparently the old policy of the conqueror everywhere, is to let

the Boarder go up the coast and discover the most attractive resorts, and allow him to report on them in the newspapers, write poetry about them, lay the scene of novels and plays in them, and then pursue him and eradicate him from the soil as a burden if not a nuisance. That he makes a resort far more beautiful to the eye than the Boarder, there is no denying. He covers it with beautiful houses; he converts the scraggy, yellow pastures into smooth, green lawns; he fills the rock crevices with flowers; he introduces better food, and neater clothing, and the latest dodges in plumbing. But these things are only for the few—in fact, the very few. An area which supports a hundred happy Boarders will only bring one Cottager to perfection. Moreover, it is impossible, no matter how much the country may flourish, that all Americans who leave the city in summer should by any effort become Cottagers. The mass of them must always be Boarders and remain Boarders, and we would warn the Cottagers that it may become dangerous to push them too hard and too far. Much further east or north on the coast they will not go without turning on their persecutors. They will not put up with the shores of Labrador or Greenland, no matter how hot the season may be. The survival of the fittest is a great law, and has worked wonders in the animal world, but it must be remembered that it has to work in our day in subordination to that greater law of morality, which makes weakness itself a strong tower of defence.

THE SESSION AND THE GOVERNMENT.

LONDON, August 18.

THE Parliamentary session which is now practically ending has been one of the most strange and exciting, and at the same time useless and unprofitable, that England has seen for many years. It has been full of dramatic scenes and odd turns of chance; full of mistakes made by the Government, mistakes made by the Opposition, yet neither set of mistakes producing their natural and usual result, but twisted to unforeseen issues by a Fortune which seemed to make sport of men's plans and expectations. It is a history in itself.

It began, after the accustomed preliminary wrangle with the Parnellite members over the Address to the Crown, with the introduction of Mr. Gladstone's new rules of procedure, intended to reform the mode of doing business in the House of Commons. He declared that none of the measures promised in the Queen's speech could be taken up till this vital and indispensable reform of Parliament itself had been accomplished. The Opposition received the proposal to enable a debate to be closed by the vote of the majority with bitter hostility, while a good many Ministerialists hardly concealed their dislike for it. It would, however, have been carried after a few nights' debate had not the appointment by the House of Lords of a committee to inquire into the working of the Irish Land Act brought on a contest between the Houses, Mr. Gladstone resenting this step as a blow aimed at the operation of the Act, and thinking himself (perhaps erroneously) bound to obtain a vote from the House of Commons condemning the conduct of the Peers. The discussion of the first rule of procedure, thus interrupted and further delayed by the necessity of taking some money votes, was not completed when the Easter vacation arrived. Meantime, the condition of Ireland, where agrarian outrages continued to increase while their perpetrators were seldom or never discovered, had goaded the upper class in England, who naturally sympathize with the landlords in Ireland, into keen impatience and irritation. From all quarters cries were heard that some fresh step must be taken in Ireland; for those who disapproved of the Coercion Act and Mr. Forster's administration generally missed no opportunity of pointing out that this kind of severity, at any rate, had failed to succeed.

The first sign of change was given by the retirement of Lord Cowper, the Lord Lieutenant. Then, quite suddenly, the Government released Mr. Parnell and the two other members who had been imprisoned under the Coercion Act. The resignation of Mr. Forster, who was known to disapprove that step, was at the same time announced—on the 2d of May. On the 4th he stated—not without some heavy side-strokes at his late colleagues—his view of the situation; while the Government, which now found itself in favor with the Parnellites, was threatened with the defection of the more moderate, or so-called "Whig," section of its own supporters, who thought that severity, and not leniency, was what Ireland needed. The Phœnix Park murders on Saturday, the 6th of May, changed the situation in a moment. The Government undertook to bring forward immediately a new measure of repression; the wavering Whigs returned to their allegiance; the Parnellites became again the assailants of the Ministry. The whole story of the communications which had passed between some of the Government and Mr. Parnell before his liberation was brought out, and used unsparingly by the Tories to damage the Cabinet. It would doubtless have been better if Mr. Gladstone had either taken no notice of these negotiations, and put the release upon other grounds—there were ample grounds—or had himself told the tale, instead of letting it be wrung out by degrees from the intermediary. Here, according to the judgment of dispassionate observers, was a second mistake on the part of the Government, and one which probably damaged them with the country, for although there does not seem to have been really any compact, the insistance of the Tories has made it pass for a fact. Shaken already by these struggles, the Government now found itself embarked in the tedious task of carrying its Prevention of Crime Bill in the teeth of the persistent opposition of the Irish Nationalists—an opposition which ended in the "scene" when, at the instance of the Chairman of Committees, sixteen of them were suspended. The remaining weeks of the session were consumed in passing the Irish Arrears Bill, a measure which the Tory party denounced as wrong in principle and likely to form a dangerous precedent, which the Parnellite members received contemptuously as an inadequate and almost useless concession, and which hardly any Ministerialist, however obediently he may have voted for it, really liked, or could have defended except as a painful necessity.

So when the end of July came—the time when wearied members begin by pairing to anticipate the close of their labors—no one of the important measures promised in the Queen's speech had been passed. Not even the rules of procedure, not a single one of them, had been passed: the debate adjourned during the Irish crisis of May had never been resumed. The session proved barren, as far as those greater measures of legislation are concerned which a Government undertakes, while private members had done nothing, because their days had been seized by Government for the discussion of the two Irish bills. Here was a painful confession for those to make who had been always reproaching Lord Beaconsfield's Government with its failure to carry useful domestic legislation. Last session spent on the Irish Coercion Bill and the Irish Land Bill; this session spent on the Irish Prevention of Crime Bill and the Irish Arrears Bill; nothing done for England and Scotland—even the rearrangement of Parliamentary procedure, which Mr. Gladstone had declared to be the needful preliminary to all legislation, left unexecuted. Here was a theme for Opposition orators to declaim upon during the recess! Of course, explanations could be offered; but explanations are apt to be treated as excuses. The English people, like most peoples, look chiefly to results, and are not satisfied with a failure, even when the best possible reasons have been given for it. Thus the prospect for Ministerialists was far from pleasant. The ardor with which they came up from their constituencies in 1880 had considerably cooled. Their loyalty to the Government was less fervent. They had experienced many disappointments, some rebuffs; they were sensible of seeds of disunion among themselves which might at any moment spring up; they felt as if their time, and the efforts which many of them had honestly made to improve the law and administration of the country, had been wasted. Ireland—though two previous sessions had been given to her—Ireland was still discontented, full of agrarian crime, possibly hatching other plots of assassination like that which horrified the world on the 6th of May. And another source of disquietude had arisen in the East. The state of Egypt, menacing ever since last September, became acute in May. The Government was first accused of weakness, because it did not at once punish the massacre of June 11; then of violence, because it bombarded the Alexandrian forts on July 11. We find ourselves with a war on our hands which must cost a good round sum, and may involve complications no one can see the end of. However prudent English diplomacy may have been, the fact remains that the hopes which the Government held out of avoiding the use of force in Egypt have not been realized. We are undertaking the serious task of restoring order there, and yet we are to gain no special advantage for ourselves, but act solely on behalf of Europe and civilization. Putting all these sources of anxiety, of distrust, of disappointment together, it was not unnatural that there should be some demoralization in the Liberal ranks. They were dispirited, restless, uneasy, fearing the results of a dissolution, yet likely by this very want of confidence in themselves and their leaders to bring it on. Only one thing held them together, the attachment which most of them still have to Mr. Gladstone, and the knowledge which they all have that he is the one man in whom the Liberal party throughout the country implicitly believes.

Such being their temper, the prospect of a contest with the House of Lords which might bring about a dissolution was by no means welcome to the Liberal party—much less welcome than a battle with the other House usually is to a body jealous of the superior power of its own chamber. Certainly no one expected that the result of this contest would be to rehabilitate the Ministry and reinvigorate the party. Yet so it has turned out. Lord Salisbury, as you know, began by denouncing the Arrears Bill with more than his accustomed force of language, and declared that, so far as he was concerned, it should not pass in the shape the Government had given it. His party in the House of Lords, with few exceptions, supported him by their votes, and used language scarcely less decided than his own. The Tory press bade

him stand firm, and assured him that the country was with him. A good many Peers, it is said, came to him declaring that they had regretted his yielding on the Land Bill last year, and that if he yielded now again, they should lose faith in his leadership. Everything, in fact, was done to rouse the House of Lords and the country, and to make preparations for a heroic resistance. Then suddenly the courage of the Conservative Peers gave way, or, which is perhaps the better way of putting it, their soberer reason told them that they had more to lose than to gain by a conflict. Lord Salisbury was forced to own in the House of Lords that he found he could carry very few with him—seventeen or thirteen only, it is said. The Opposition collapsed; the bill passed, with some nominal concessions intended to soothe the susceptibilities of the Upper House. Such a defeat has told on the opinion of the nation in two ways. It has given the Government the prestige of victory; has gone far to justify their bill, and the firmness with which they pressed it; has made them seem the stronger force in the state. And it has also brought into strong relief the unwisdom of the Opposition leaders. To have blown the trumpet so loudly, and then to be deserted by one's own troops; to denounce a measure as robbery, and be compelled to see it pass without even challenging a division in your own chamber—these are serious humiliations for a party leader. Such a catastrophe makes the country reflect that, whatever faults it may impute to its present governors, it is not likely to mend matters by substituting Lord Salisbury for Mr. Gladstone, who, in this last crisis, has steered his ship with consummate skill. Every Tory says: If Lord Beaconsfield had been alive, we should have had no such rout. Either he would not have fought at all, or he would have so fought as to damage his adversary. Meantime, that adversary is as strong as ever; and this strangely-checkered session, which saw Mr. Gladstone's Ministry more than once among shoals and quicksands, ends by watching it sail triumphantly away before a favoring breeze.

Y.

FROM STOKE POGIS TO CAMBRIDGE.

CAMBRIDGE, ENG., Aug. 18.

IT pleased me to find at Stoke Pogis at least one stone upon which Gray himself might have read the words, "spelt by the unletter'd muse." Of the very few stones scattered about the older part of the churchyard, the others bear dates too late, or else the inscriptions are illegible. The one in question stands not far from the east corner of the church, opposite the altar tomb of the Grays. At top is a rude outline of skull and crossbones; the name below is "Martha, wife of Mr. John Davis," her age 45, and the date 1734. Beneath is "the holy text" that taught "the rustic moralist to die":

> "O cruell death thou art Severe
> To take away my wife so dear
> But since God has gave him Leave
> Christ her Soul he will Receive."

The eastern end of the churchyard is crowded with stones of recent date, but nearer the church the mouldering heaps still lie so close as to seem almost like furrows. It was curious that there were no daisies upon them. The turf was all starred with them just before, at Grasmere and at Hursley-All-Saints, around the Keble graves. But here thick and fine was

> "the clover sod
> "That takes the sunshine and the rains."

It is a link of the purest fancy, but the homely little flower will seem henceforth to give our New England country graveyards something of common right to the traditions of the "Elegy."

The sexton was finishing a new-made grave in the east corner, and dropped his spade to unlock the church door. On the reading-desk the book lay open at the burial service. The church is dark and crowded, and, it must be owned, awkward and out of date with anything old or new, in its last-century dress; but remembering the jarring effect of much of to-day's freshness in the renovated churches, and the newness, I had almost said smartness, of the modern end of this very churchyard, I am ready to love the ugliness of the old. The trees must have changed much since Gray's time. The yew is no longer conspicuous among the tall pines and elms which fairly wall in the churchyard, leaving only one opening toward the east. The lowing herd is no longer in sight across the lea, for the bit of park visible is quite shut in by the trees beyond the monument to Gray. Erected by one of the Penns, the owner of Stoke Pogis Manor in 1799, after the classic model of the sarcophagus upon a massive pedestal, it is altogether out of fashion now, but I find in it, standing in its green-turfed hollow, and sheltered rather than shaded by fine old trees, a simple dignity well suited to the name of a scholar of the last century. The inscriptions upon it include the four stanzas beginning "Beneath those rugged elms," "The boast of heraldry," "Hard by yon wood," and "One morn I missed him." Upon the third side are six lines from the Eton College "Ah, happy hills! ah, pleasing shade!" On the fourth is recorded the fact that the remains of Gray rest beneath the slab which he has so "piously and pathetically" inscribed to the memory of his mother. The vivid phrases of the "Elegy" have made the whole scene a place in which to listen; but in the glory of a midsummer afternoon the long shadows lay sleeping across the graves, and no sound broke "the solemn stillness" but the low, sweet, incessant coo of the turtle-doves.

From Stoke Pogis and Gray to Cambridge, where I am now writing, is a natural transition. It is seldom that a stranger, coming to Cambridge in the midst of the Long Vacation, would see or hear anything of which the account would be other than a twice-told tale, but the sad event of this July will long be remembered in the annals of the University. The particulars of the death of Mr. F. M. Balfour will have far outstripped this letter in reaching America. The first reports of the accident were both inaccurate and unjust, but from the later accounts given by friends who went at once to the spot, it is evident that, though the exact secret of the catastrophe is buried in the rocks and ice of the *couloir*, below the upper basin of the Glacier de Fresney, the expedition was possibly venturesome, but not reckless. The story of Balfour's making his will beforehand was an entire fabrication. The provision for the guide or his family in case of accident is not at all an uncommon thing, and was but a natural precaution to a man of his forethought and kindliness. Only a person well versed in the sciences of physiology and biology could do justice to Mr. Balfour's remarkable career. Barely thirty years of age, he had already, as it were, created a new branch of science. The University had just founded a Professorship of Morphological Anatomy on purpose to make a suitable place for him, but, alas! he never delivered a single lecture. Widely connected and universally beloved, his death is a terrible private grief, while there is no measure to the terms in which men, both old and young, speak of the irreparableness of the loss to the University and to the world. In the first strength of youth he had gained a point which most men take a lifetime to reach, and there seemed a wonderful possibility of future attainment in the long life apparently before him.

The funeral took place in Scotland at noon last Saturday. At the same hour the members of the University gathered in the chapel of Trinity College to join in the service for the burial of the dead. It was, of course, choral, and in any other connection it would be natural to dwell upon the merit of the music at Trinity, where organ and choir seem to have been brought to do all that is possible for either of them; but at such a time they can be thought of only as lending their perfection and beauty to aid in the fit expression of the all-absorbing grief. Every seat in the great chapel was filled; the few ladies present were in mourning. All faces were set and sad, all hearts heavy, as more than once before in this very place, for the loss of "the hope of unaccomplished years." All the service except the Lesson, the "ashes to ashes," the Thanksgiving, and the Collect, was chanted or sung, and after the Collect came the anthem by Handel, "When the ear heard him, then it blessed him." When the benediction was pronounced, each stood in his own place with bowed head, while the organ played the "Dead March in Saul." It was a scene of such impressive and melancholy solemnity as can never be forgotten. Alma Mater had offered what she had most august and most beautiful to the honor of her dead son.

M.

THE MEXICAN ELECTIONS.

MEXICO, August 15, 1882.

THE Congressional and Senatorial elections which took place in the past month were of a sort to make one doubt their very existence, if he had been accustomed to the noise and excitement of the American method. A faithful reader of the newspapers scarcely would have been able to find out when the elections were to be verified, or that there was any great public concern about them. Along in the latter part of May we began to be served with vague and inflated editorials on the dignity of the electoral act which the great Mexican people was again solemnly about to perform. Then, toward the middle of June, there used to appear indefinite rumors to the effect that this man or the other was desirous of representing such a district, or that the month's leave of absence of a certain Cabinet Minister meant that he was going to try for the Senatorship of his State. Finally, in the latter part of July, the elections were reported as past, and the names of the successful candidates were printed. Not a single public political meeting did I hear of, no campaign documents, no processions, no speeches, no tumult.

What all this signifies, either of public indifference or political scheming, one cannot well say without close scrutiny, and even then there is no great certainty. The state of the press is such as to present the greatest difficulties in the way of getting accurate information in such matters. In the first place, the press of Mexico as a purveyor of news, domestic or foreign, is a most remarkable failure. There is no associated press, or shadow of it. An attempt was recently made by some of the city papers to combine in paying for daily cable despatches from New York, but the enterprise fell through, from mere Mexican indifference, as it would seem. We have to depend on the mails for foreign news, with the exception of a stray telegram overland from Matamoras, from six to eight days old at that. The usual time consumed by a telegram coming from Matamoras to Mexico is three days. Thus there was no report of the execution of Guiteau before the 5th of July. In the field of home news there is an even greater and less pardonable inefficiency. All gleanings are by mail, or from the reports of occasional pilgrims coming from distant parts of the republic.

Beyond this, and constituting a greater difficulty, is the fact that nine-tenths of the in-

fluential papers are in the pay of the Government, National or State, and are simply not to be trusted in anything bearing upon the Administration. The other one-tenth is made up of papers which have made themselves independent financially of Government subsidies, as the *Monitor Republicano* of this city, or of struggling sheets which attack the Government most ferociously in the hope of getting a bribe to keep still. For instance, a publication called the *Oposicion Radical* has been running along for a month filled with the most violent abuse of the Government and all its works, and it is a common remark here that it will either soon get its hush-money and become a thick-and-thin supporter of the Government, or else suspend altogether. I have it on the authority of a gentleman long resident in this city, an intimate friend of Juarez, and well acquainted with the members of the present Administration, that not a single paper of any pretensions in this city, save the *Monitor*, fails to receive a monthly stipend from the public treasury. This anomalous state of things causes great perplexity to one who has been accustomed to a general honesty in reporting facts, no matter what interpretation the political bias of a paper would lead it to put upon them. In this matter of the elections the Government papers give quite too rose-colored accounts, beyond all doubt, speaking of the general participation of the people and the absolute freedom of the expression of the public will, while the Opposition papers, just as certainly, are extreme in their denunciation of the whole affair as a cumbrous farce, and solely the enforcement of the Executive's will, which will not tolerate difference of view.

Where, then, is the truth? In the first place, a study of the Mexican electoral system will show how great is the opportunity for unduly influencing, or obscuring, or even forcing the popular will. The States are divided into electoral districts of 40,000 inhabitants each. These districts are subdivided into sections of 500 inhabitants, and each one of these sections is entitled to choose one "elector." The elections in the sections take place every alternate June. A list of voters is made out by the municipality, and a ticket issued to each voting citizen. Seven voters are enough to constitute the "electoral table" of the section, at which presides an officer appointed by the municipality. The electors chosen by the sections, at their assembling in July, vote for Congressmen (one for each district), for two Senators (for each State), and for President of the Republic every fourth year. The votes for Congressmen and President are canvassed and declared by Congress; for Senators, by the Legislatures of their respective States.

Now, it is clear that this system is wide open to arbitrary influence. An opponent of the Government has to run the gauntlet of three bodies —the section, the district, the Congress or the Legislature. And the great number of limitations—many of them vague and subject to abuse —which are laid by the organic electoral law upon the right to vote, put an effective weapon in the hands of unscrupulous officials. For instance, in addition to the usual precautions against the exercise of the suffrage by aliens and criminals, the Mexican law empowers the registrar to exclude from the polls those "who have been condemned by judicial sentence to suffer any infamous punishment; those who have gone through a fraudulent bankruptcy proceeding; vagrants, professional gamblers, and habitual drunkards" (*Ley organica electoral*, Cap. II. Art. 8). Here certainly is abundant opportunity to shape the outcome of the sectional elections. With all these means of excluding opponents, and a requirement of only seven voters to form a legal "table," it would be a poor manager who could not keep a party in power. The truth is, that since the French intervention, up to this time, the Congress has been little more than a tool of the President. His will shapes its decisions. The votes of the creature are the property of the creator. Lerdo in 1876, in the face of an intense popular opposition, and in spite of a declaration by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court that his reëlection would be unconstitutional, pushed his pretensions through Congress by a vote of 123 against 49. General Diaz's first business, when he had overridden this decision by force of arms, was to make over Congress into a body that would do his will, a thing which he did most effectually, in 1878, by the use of his soldiery in a scandalous manner, as is admitted on all hands. President Gonzalez has inherited or achieved a similar state of things, as is witnessed by the solution of the Jalisco imbroglio at which the Senate arrived in the late session. The committee's report contained the following argument: Governor Riestra was legally elected; the revolution was wholly illegal; yet Riestra, by his flight before the revolutionary troops, had abdicated his office, and therefore the Governorship was vacant and must be filled by Presidential appointment. It must have been rather mortifying to President Gonzalez, however, to be obliged thus to dismiss the revolutionary leader whom he had recognized. No doubt the approaching elections will make all right.

A few words will suffice to show how admirably the system of filling local offices fits in with the methods of election, to bend everything before the Executive will. The States are divided into districts (not the Congressional districts), and the districts into municipalities. All the principal offices of these two divisions are in the gift of the President. These officials, military, civil, judicial, have such a degree of arbitrary power that they can easily determine the political representation of their localities.

I add an incident to illustrate the way the sectional elections were conducted in this city. An American friend of mine was sitting in his office, when a stranger stepped in and asked him if he would not walk round the corner to vote. My friend asked what the voting was for, and was told it was for choice of an elector to represent the section. He then asked if Americans and all were to join in, when the stranger begged his pardon and retreated, saying he was anxious to find some one to make up the legal number of seven voters.

Conversing, a few weeks since, with a prominent Liberal in Toluca, a former Congressman, well known as a member of the radical wing of his party which is now under the ban of the Administration, he told me that his friends were urging him to "run" for Congress, but that he would not, since, though he felt confident of carrying his district, he knew that Congress would never give him his seat. He assured me that enough of his former political colleagues had tried the experiment to make it sure that the very best credentials from men of their opinions would never get through the Committee on Elections.

I bring these election notes to a close with adding one curious fact in connection with the list of returned Congressmen. Large numbers of Lerdists appear. Men who have been in retirement for six years—whose political hopes were thought to be dead—are again coming to the front. They are not turncoats: it is too late for that to be the explanation; the renegades had their reward long since. They have not beaten the Government; on all sides that is deemed improbable. The only theory accepted here is that of an alliance with the Government —for how long and for what purposes it is a secret. Add to this the thickening rumors that Lerdo himself has made his peace with the Administration, and is coming back from New York to accept a Cabinet position, and the puzzle of it all is increased. "What does it mean?" said I to a gentleman who has lived in Mexico since the first Republic. "I can't say," was his reply; "but my experience argues that the most improbable thing you can think of is the one most likely to happen." O.

Correspondence.

ERRORS OF THE CENSUS.—III.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I ask your attention to further errors in the Population volume of the Tenth Census.

On page lii, Table XXX, among other things, purports to show the population below each curve of elevation above the level of the sea. According to it, that part of the country which is less than 1,000 feet above sea-level had, in 1870, 21,014,380 inhabitants, and in 1880, 38,952,900. The increase in the ten years was apparently 17,938,520. The total population of the country in 1870 was 38,558,371 (see Table I *b*, p. 4), and in 1880, 50,155,783 (see Table I *b*, p. 4), the increase in the decade being 11,597,412. Thus the increase in the country as a whole appears to have been 6,341,108 less than the increase in that portion of it below 1,000 feet in elevation. If such were the case, the number of inhabitants in those portions of the country above 1,000 feet must have decreased to that extent. Those parts of the country are the mountain districts in the Eastern States, the great plains of the West and Northwest, and the region lying between the eastern spurs of the Rockies and the Pacific Coast Range. The maps showing the extent and density of settlement indicate that there was a marked increase of population in these sections between 1870 and 1880. The very table under consideration (XXX) shows that in 1870 80.43 per cent. of the total population lived below 1,000 feet, and in 1880 only 77.66 per cent., indicating that the region above 1,000 feet had gained in population more rapidly than that below. According to the same table (XXX), in 1870 the population below 100 feet was 7,233,550; between 100 and 500 feet, 8,653,603; and between 500 and 1,000 feet, 15,127,227. From this it appears that the total population below 1,000 feet was 31,014,380—exactly ten millions more than is given in the table. Where 2 was printed, 3 should have been: instead of 21,014,380, the table should read 31,014,380. This latter figure is 80.43 per cent. of the total population of the country in 1870—an additional test of its correctness. It is fair to add that this table purports to be "*only approximate.*"

It is, of course, understood, as is explained on page lii, that in the present state of our information as to the contour of the country, the hypsometric sketch and the table (I *i*, p. 13) giving the population at each grade of elevation can be "only approximate." But it is not unreasonable to expect that they should agree with each other. Indeed, from the care with which the population of a small corner of Delaware having 7,774 inhabitants, and that of a strip of Kentucky having but 4,446, are entered in the table, it is not doubted that it was intended to correspond to the sketch.

On the sketch, a portion of Ohio is marked as having an elevation of from 1,500 to 2,000 feet. This tract extends from the Pennsylvania line westward through Trumbull, Mahoning, Portage, Medina, Stark, Summit, and other counties, and is about 80 miles long and from 10 to

30 miles wide. If it be measured, and the measurements compared with a township map of the State, it will be found to contain townships whose aggregate population, according to the volume under consideration (pp. 285–298), is over 100,000. According to the table (I *i*, p. 13), all the population of Ohio lives below 1,500 feet of elevation.

A former letter spoke of certain contradictions between the table (I *m*, p. 17) showing the distribution of population according to mean annual temperature, and the map showing the curves of mean temperature; but the subject was not then exhausted. The table (I *m*, p. 17) assigns the entire population of Connecticut to the belts of country having a mean annual temperature of 45°–50° and 50°–55°. On the map, the curve corresponding to a mean temperature of 45° crosses the northern boundary of Connecticut at the 73d meridian and the western boundary at a point about due east from Poughkeepsie, N. Y. The map represents that the portion of the State north and west of this curve has a mean temperature of 40°–45°. Part of Litchfield County—containing the towns of Canaan, North Canaan, Norfolk, Sharon, Salisbury, and Cornwall, besides parts of others—is in this corner of the State. The population in 1880 of the towns named was 11,990 (see pp. 113, 114). There are entries much smaller than 11,990 in this table, such as in Kentucky, where the 45°–50° belt is credited with a population of 6,186.

One of the most striking features of the map showing the distribution of the lines of mean January temperature, is the great deflection of those lines to the south in the Appalachian region. The western part of North Carolina and the eastern part of Tennessee, apparently, have a mean January temperature of 30°–35°, or the same as that of Long Island. Indeed, there is a small tract in each of these States whose January temperature is represented to be 25°–30°, or as low as that of eastern Massachusetts. The strip of North Carolina which, according to the map, has a January temperature less than 35°, comprises the counties of Surry, Alleghany, Ashe, Wilkes, Watauga, Mitchell, Yancey, Madison, Swain, and parts of several others. The counties named contained in 1880 a population of 96,289 (see pp. 73, 74). The section of Tennessee having the same temperature includes the counties of Sullivan, Washington, Carter, Johnson, Unicoi, Greene, Cocke, and parts of others. The population in 1880 of the seven counties named was 94,745 (see pp. 77, 78). From the table (I *u*, p. 25), however, it would appear that no inhabited portion of either of these States had a mean temperature in January of less than 35°. Either the map or the table badly misrepresents the climate of this belt of country.

The map showing the distribution of the lines of maximum temperature places two distinct portions of South Carolina under a maximum temperature of 95°–100°. One of these parts comprises the entire coast of the State. Charleston City, with a population in 1880 of 49,984 (see p. 327), is in this strip. The other part is at the opposite extremity of the State, and includes the northwest corner of its territory. It is made up of parts of Oconee, Pickens, and Greenville Counties, whose population in 1880 was 68,141 (see p. 77). According to the table (I *y*, p. 29), the population in 1880 of the section of South Carolina having a maximum temperature of 95°–100° was only 15,323. The map is made the basis of a discussion of the effect of the sea in reducing maximum temperature. On page lvi it is said: "We see a belt running along the sea coast from Maine to Texas, where the thermometer never rises above 100°, thus illustrating in the clearest manner the effect of the sea in averaging the temperature." Again, on page lx it is stated that the "whole Atlantic coast, from Penobscot Bay to the mouth of the Rio Grande," is "found in the class of 95° to 100°." Are these assertions correct? Are the deductions from them well founded? If they are, it necessarily follows that the table is wrong. It is probable that the 15,323 was intended to represent the population of those parts of Oconee, Pickens, and Greenville Counties which are in the 95°–100° belt, the compiler of the table apparently not taking any notice of the larger and more populous sections on the coast whose maximum temperature was also 95°–100°.

The map showing the distribution of the lines of minimum temperature indicates that the curve corresponding to a minimum temperature of 20° below zero crosses Kansas in a southwestwardly direction. It intersects the northern boundary of the State at or about the ninety-seventh meridian, and the western boundary about twenty-five miles north of the thirty-seventh parallel. The course of this curve corroborates the remark made on page lvi, that "there is a marked deflection toward the southwest as we pass westward from the Mississippi Valley." The tract of territory to the north and west of the line described is represented as having a minimum temperature of 20°–30° below zero. The portion of Kansas included in this tract is made up of the counties of Cheyenne, Rawlins, Decatur, Norton, Phillips, Smith, Sheridan, Thomas, Sherman, Wallace, Scott, Greeley, Wichita, Hamilton, and parts of many others. The population in 1880 of the counties named was 41,390 (see pp. 60, 61). According to the table (I *cc*, pp. 34, 35), in the inhabited portions of Kansas the thermometer never falls lower than 20° below zero.

In my next letter I hope to speak of the rainfall maps and tables, of interesting contradictions as to the temperature and rainfall of Colorado, and of certain other errors. JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE MD., Aug. 29.

A NAVY INDEX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: So much good work has been done in many directions by the younger officers of our Navy, that I am sure my motives will not be impugned for calling attention to a very poor piece of work indeed.

I have before me, as I write, what purports to be an 'Alphabetical Index to General Orders, Circulars, etc., issued by the Navy Department from January 10, 1863, to June 30, 1881, compiled by Passed Assistant-Engineer H. Webster, U.S.N., by authority of the Secretary of the Navy.' The book bears the imprint of the Government Printing-office, which proves it to have been published, as well as compiled, "by authority." Now, I look in vain for any explanation why an odd date like that of the 10th of January, 1863 (nearly two years after the beginning, and more than two years before the ending, of the last war in which the Navy was engaged), should have been selected as the starting point of such a book of reference. The alphabetizing of this "alphabetical index" stops at the first letter of each entry, so that I cannot find, under a single entry, "Act of Congress," references to all the orders and circulars publishing the statutes relating to the Navy, but must search the whole string of entries under A and pick out "Act of Congress" wherever I find it. The entry, "Act of Congress, approved July 17, 1862, for the better government of the Navy," which is the first in the book, has no cross-references under any other letter that I can find, while the date of the order mentioned in connection with it, December 21, 1863, leaves me in doubt as to what the *subject* of the order really is, and there is nothing to do but to go to the file of orders to see what the index entry means. "Ales and wines on board ship" has no entry under "Wines," or "Spirits," or "Liquors," and hence, as to the important subject of intoxicating drinks, the index is only useful to those who happen to remember that "ales" is the first descriptive word used in G. O. No. 29 of 1864. The entry, "Allowance of 20 per cent. to mates," does not reappear under "Mates"; and, after that, further illustration of the character of this "index" does not seem called for.

I submit that, on grounds of credit and utility, the copies of this index should be called in, and the whole edition suppressed. It is useless to suggest that the Government should be "made whole" in respect of it. SOLICITOR.

WASHINGTON, August 30, 1882.

MR. VERNON-HARCOURT'S 'RIVERS AND CANALS.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A copy of the review of my book on 'Rivers and Canals,' in your issue of the 6th inst., has been sent to me from the Clarendon Press. I am much obliged to your reviewer for his correction with regard to the Mississippi passes. Doubtless *contracted*, not "closed," should have been applied to the action of the mattresses sunk at the heads of the passes.

To his remarks, however, about the Aubois Lock I must take absolute exception. The statement as to saving of water, which he pleases to consider absurd and inaccurate, was taken from the report of a commission on M. de Caligny's invention ('Comptes Rendus de l'Académie des Sciences,' vol. lxviii., pp. 124 and 126); it was quoted about ten years later by M. Debauve ('Manuel de l'Ingénieur des Ponts et Chaussées,' 1878, part 19, p. 259), and was repeated by M. de Caligny in the 'Annales des Ponts et Chaussées,' 1880, vol. xx., p. 236. A reference to these will amply disprove the inaccuracy of my statement. The percentage of saving on the whole volume of water expended appears to me large, but it has been obtained from a careful series of experiments, the results of which were examined by independent persons; and it is due to the utilization of the power of the downward flow of water in filling or emptying. The percentage of saving, however, would be quite immaterial from your reviewer's aspect of the question, as, if merely ten per cent. of the total volume expended was saved in one operation, it could be all regained, according to your reviewer's principle, by repeating the operation of filling and emptying ten times. To take, however, an illustration with which your reviewer may be more familiar than with hydraulic science—if he expended £100 in a business transaction, and only got back £80, by repeating the same transaction, he ought, according to his view, to be a gainer of £60, instead of losing, as most people would admit, a sum altogether of £40. He appears, from his remarks, to suppose that two losses make a gain—a train of reasoning in which I cannot concur. I trust that, in justice to M. de Caligny, if not to myself, you will publish this letter in defence of facts which your reviewer has so thoughtlessly attacked.

Your obedient servant,

L. F. VERNON-HARCOURT.

6 QUEEN ANNE'S GATE, WESTMINSTER, S. W., July 20, 1882.

[As to the mattress sills in the passes of the Mississippi River, they do not *contract* the large passes, they simply prevent a threatened enlargement, and the proportional discharge of these large passes has not been changed.

As regards the Aubois Lock, our criticism

was not directed against the lock itself, nor did we mean to question the great saving of water effected; but Mr. Vernon-Harcourt's description of the lock is another thing, and his manner of stating the saving is simply absurd. The train of reasoning which makes percentages accumulative was his, not ours, and it was against this train of reasoning that our criticism was directed. It is certainly possible to design a lock in which the loss of water would be but a small percentage of the whole capacity of the lock; the Aubois Lock may be so devised that in filling it forty per cent. of the required water is obtained from the lower level, while in emptying forty per cent. of the water is restored to the upper level, so that the actual amount of water lost from the upper level is but twenty per cent. of the capacity of the lock. There is nothing, however, in Mr. Vernon-Harcourt's description which shows this to be the case, his results being apparently nothing but the absurd conclusion of an accumulation of percentages.—Ed. Nation.]

EFFECT OF THE INDIANA NORMAL-SCHOOL SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some ideas on the public schools of Indiana, based upon an observation of them during ten years, may be of interest to readers of the *Nation's* summary (August 17) of the lecture of Dr. Hartwig Gercke on "The Public-School System of the City of New York." I hasten at the start to disavow any intention of discussing certain questions upon which Indiana is extremely sensitive — whether her munificent school fund, her well-paid school-teachers, her numerous and expensive school-houses are of themselves any indication of the quality of the education she is giving her children; whether our "Centennial exhibit" was a bona-fide representation of the actual, average work of the schools; whether Charles Francis Adams, jr., "stole" all his ideas for the Quincy schools from the Indianapolis schools. Nor do I mean to make any comparison between our schools and those of other States; my suggestions relate to other matters.

Whatever the normal school may be in theory or in New York, I can but think it has been a misfortune to us. In numbers the teachers educated in normal schools are in a minority; but the normal-school spirit, ideas, and methods have, in one way and another, become thoroughly bedded in our school system, and have, directly and indirectly, had a controlling influence upon the teaching in the public schools of the State. A deep-seated pedantry, a complacent confidence in cut-and-dried methods, an inability to understand the spontaneous and creative in teaching, a spreading out of their little knowledge into exceeding thinness, a ridiculous attempt to see everything from "the philosophic point of view," an utter incapability of appreciating the fact that a Harvard graduate with abundant things to teach, but with no set methods of teaching them, can possibly be the equal, as a teacher, of the holder of a normal-school diploma — are our normal-school characteristics, and have given a radically wrong tendency to the schools of the State, the primary grades possibly excepted. The candid observer must feel a disappointment in the results of our schools as shown when the children are tested out of their school routine. They do a little good and much harm. The children learn to read, write, and spell fairly, a little geography and arithmetic—all of which ought to be learned easily in the first four or five years of an average graded course. The remaining school years, measured by the time spent, the steady attendance, the early promise of brightness, are comparatively barren. But this is not the worst. The training has produced a certain mental sterility and helplessness and an intellectual apathy that are disheartening. All that early brightness not only comes to no useful end, but is itself entirely blotted out. School-children in all times have kicked against school routine and tasks, but we have been used to see all the while a keen desire for knowledge, and strong, inquiring minds. But here, especially in Indianapolis, I have seen this reversed. There is a passive endurance of school routine; there is in the school-room a species of bodily excitement, but it is not enthusiasm. The average have not a keen desire for knowledge nor strong, inquiring minds.

When children are like this, it is the machine system that has made them so; and our schools are machines. There are schools in Indiana (and they have received the approbation of a State Superintendent of Education) that would proudly own to being machines. There are others, as, for instance, in Indianapolis, that do not acknowledge any machine in use. In these, indeed, one almost wearies of those good things, "originality," "fertility," "individuality," "teaching to think"—so much does he hear them talked of. Nor in them does the machine always appear to any one who thinks to discover it by school-room inspection. That genial gentleman, Mr. Bronson Alcott, himself a school reformer, visited our schools a couple of winters ago. He had no suspicion of our skeleton in the closet, and was generous of praise. I have come to believe that the Indiana school officials are honest in their declarations that in the essentials our schools are highly efficient. They are themselves deceived by the external appearances of the work done. They have become so infatuated with their educational methods, quite in the style of the constitutions always ready in the pockets of the Abbé Sieyès, that they are unfitted for a candid study of the results of their work. They are more fortunate than the Abbé, for they can force their plans into practice on helpless, long-suffering children, with whom they form an artificial world, in which they practise artificial methods, and produce artificial results.

As I have already indicated, I believe the normal school is at the bottom of the evil. I think, also, it could be shown that in Indiana the system much in vogue here, of having the examination questions made by others than those who do the teaching, is despotic and deadening. But I have already occupied too much space.

E. L. S.

Indianapolis, August 25, 1882.

Notes.

Roberts Bros. announce for the present season the following new publications: 'Our Liberal Movement in Theology,' being recollections of the history of Unitarianism in New England, by the Rev. Joseph H. Allen; 'Sermons and Addresses,' by the late Rev. Henry W. Bellows; 'The Wisdom of the Brahmin,' a metrical translation from Friedrich Rückert, by the Rev. Charles T. Brooks; 'The Great Epics of Mediæval Germany,' described in outline by Prof. George T. Dippold; 'Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas,' by Hamilton W. Mabie; 'Wit and Wisdom of Don Quixote'; 'My Household of Pets,' translated from Gautier's 'Ménagerie Intime' by Susan Coolidge, and illustrated by Frank Rogers and others; 'Art and Nature in Italy,' by Eugene Benson; 'Under the Sun,' by Phil. Robinson; 'Rare Poems of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries,' collected and edited by W. J. Linton; and the 'Jean Ingelow Birthday-Book.' In their juvenile list the Rev. E. E. Hale reappears with 'Stories of Discovery, Told by Discoverers,' and Miss Alcott with 'Proverb Stories' and 'An Old-Fashioned Thanksgiving.' Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford makes her first experiment in this line with 'Hester Stanley at St. Mark's,' and Lieutenant-Colonel Butler, author of 'The Great Lone Land,' tells of 'Red Cloud, the Solitary Sioux.'

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce for early publication Rudolf Schmidt's 'The Darwinian Theories, and their Relation to Religion, Philosophy, and Morality,' translated, under the author's supervision, by Dr. G. A. Zimmermann, of Chicago, with a special introductory preface by the Duke of Argyll; Nohl's 'Haydn,' translated by Geo. P. Upton; 'The Time of Gustav Adolf,' from the Swedish of Zachary Topelius (being the first volume of his famous "Surgeon's Stories"); 'Frontier Army Sketches,' by James A. Steele, of Topeka, Kansas; 'The Essentials of Vaccination,' by Dr. W. A. Hardaway, of St. Louis; and 'The Nonpareil Cook-book,' by Mrs. E. A. Matthiessen.

Dr. D. G. Brinton, whose address is No. 115 South Seventh Street, Philadelphia, is about to commence publication of a "Library of Aboriginal Literature," consisting of works printed in the original tongue, with an English translation and notes. Most of them will be from unpublished MSS. The form will be octavo, and the edition but little in excess of the number of copies subscribed for. Subscription to the first volume will not bind one to take the remainder. No. 1, the Maya Chronicles, edited by Dr. Brinton himself, will be ready before the close of the present year. The list at present includes also the Central American Calendars, the Annals of Quauhtitlan, The National Legend of the Creeks (edited by Albert S. Gatschet), and the Chronicles of the Cakchiquels. Its ultimate length will depend upon the support extended to the enterprise.

A 'Young Folks' History of Ireland,' by the Rev. H. Bernard Carpenter, is announced by Estes & Lauriat, Boston.

The last of Mr. Geo. M. Towle's "Young Folks' Heroes of History" will be 'Drake, the Sea-King of Devon' (Boston: Lee & Shepard).

Fords, Howard & Hulbert are about to resume the weekly pamphlet issue of the Rev. H. W. Beecher's sermons, under the style of the *Plymouth Pulpit*. It is understood that Mr. Beecher intends to present during the coming year a more complete and systematic view of his religious teachings than he has heretofore done. The price of this serial will be reduced.

N. Tibbals & Son have in press 'The City Temple Pulpit Sermons,' by the Rev. Joseph Parker, of London.

W. W. Williams, Cleveland, O., will shortly publish a brief biography of Joshua R. Giddings, by Walter Buell, formerly on the staff of the Cleveland *Herald;* and 'Famous Funny Fellows,' by Will M. Clemens, of the Cleveland *Sunday Ledger*.

It is agreeable news that the *Californian* will hereafter take the name of a promising venture, the *Overland* (*Magazine*), which lapsed some years ago for want of the necessary support on the Pacific Coast. The old grizzly will reappear upon the cover. The change of title will not be complete until the January issue.

The topics of the August *Monthly Reference Lists* of the Providence Public Library are the National Banks, and the Tendencies of Local Self-Government in the United States.

The Boston Public Library has been undergoing examination by experts in order to discover what it needs in the various departments. The recent annual report of the Trustees prints Mr. Horace Howard Furness's conclusions. He not only summarizes well the strong and weak points of the Shakspere collection, but contrives to impart much information concerning the tools and treasures of the Shakspere student and collector.

When the Memorial History of Boston was projected, it was suggested that this plan of a series of monographs by specially qualified writers might prove to be the method of the future for historical composition. A work on somewhat the same plan has begun its appearance in Vienna, entitled 'Die Völker Oesterreich-Ungarns: Ethnographische und Kulturhistorische Schilderungen.' It is to be in twelve volumes, of which four are to treat of the Germans of the Austrian Empire, three of the Slavs, and one each of the Magyars, Rumanians, Gipsies, and Semites. The account from which we copy omits the twelfth, but it is probably the Dalmatians. Each volume is to be by a different author, generally belonging to the race described. The sixth volume, 'The Rumanians,' has already appeared, by Joan Slavici.

Volume i. of the Proceedings of the Biological Society gives a full history of the origin and doings of this young but active and already useful organization, and recounts the steps taken to form a Washington Academy of Sciences out of a federation of itself with the Philosophical and Anthropological Societies. But the bulk of the volume is taken up with memorial tributes to Darwin by members of the Biological Society. Collectively these are very impressive, Dr. C. V. Riley's being perhaps the best; Colonel Powell's had least claim to be printed. Mr. Frederick W. True, librarian of the United States National Museum, appends a Darwinian Bibliography—*i. e.*, a list of Darwin's own publications—confessedly incomplete, but strikingly full. Dr. Riley, by the way, remarks of the great naturalist that on meeting him he was "at once struck with his stature (which was much above the average, and I should say fully six feet)."

A forgotten method of autographic art production is revived by Benjamin Hartley in a little volume published by the New York Industrial Publication Company, called 'A Guide to Collodio-Etching.' It is, in simple terms, drawing with a needle on a common photographic negative rendered opaque, and plays, or has played, some part, we believe, in the preparation of the New York *Graphic's* daily cartoons. Mr. Hartley gives all necessary instruction about it, even to the preparing of the plates, sensitizing the paper, and fixing the prints. The process can also be tried, as he shows, with almost no apparatus and at trivial expense. It will never rival the effects of copper etching and printers' ink, but it is capable of a good deal of artistic expression.

Mr. R. H. Shepherd, who has compiled useful but dogmatic bibliographies of Ruskin, Carlyle, Dickens, and Thackeray, and who has acted as a literary resurrectionist in reviving juvenile poems of Longfellow, Tennyson, Mrs. Browning, and Dickens, has announced as in preparation the 'Life, Letters, and Uncollected Writings of W. M. Thackeray.' In consequence of this, Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co., the holders of the Thackeray copyrights, announce that they will shortly publish with proper editing the hitherto unprinted writings of Thackeray now in their possession.

Excessive modesty has never been the failing of the Austrian novelist Sacher-Masoch, a gifted but eccentric and often lascivious writer, whom the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has seen fit to procure a wide public. In a late number of his periodical, *Auf der Höhe*, Sacher-Masoch, however, reaches the climax of self-glorification by accompanying the announcement that he offers a prize of 500 marks for the best new novel with the remark: "The novels sent in must not follow well-worn tracks, but rather the new direction given to prose fiction by Ivan Tourguénieff, Bret Harte, and—Sacher-Masoch."

Students and teachers of German who do not venture beyond the "natural method" will find Mr. E. F. Bacon's 'Leitfaden zum Erlernen der deutschen Sprache' (Hoboken: E. F. Bacon) a useful guide. It is an attractive little book, combining a modicum of grammar with sensible exercises and good selections. We notice, however, some anglicisms, such as "die *grössten* Feiertage" (p. 112) for *höchsten*, "meine Brüder und ich standen *gegen* die Nachbarskinder" (p. 132), and the reprehensible "Sie sind nicht einen Thaler werth" (You are not worth a dollar, p. 204). An odd innovation is the "*Der*wort, *Die*wort, *Das*wort," designating masculine, feminine, and neuter nouns.

The *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society only by accident concerns itself with "actualities" in political geography, and it is pure chance that No. 99 (New York: L. W. Schmidt) gives in two maps the Greco-Turkish frontier which has suddenly become the scene of active hostilities. The district of Karalik Derbend, which is the bone of contention, is clearly mapped as wholly within Greek territory. It is situated at the base of the Olympian foothills in the deltoid region to the north of the present mouth of the Salamvria (Peneios). The map is reduced from that made by the military commissioners appointed by the eight Powers to fix the line, the work having been concluded in October, 1881. It is accompanied by a learned historical retrospect by Dr. H. Kiepert, who in several side maps shows the faulty delineations of previous travellers and savants.

—Two years ago, in honor of Mr. Thomas Hughes, then visiting this country in connection with the founding of the Rugby (Tenn.) settlement, the publishers of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia contributed several thousand volumes of their publications to form a "Hughes Public Library" at Rugby. The enterprise was subsequently aided from many quarters, notably from Chicago, through the influence of Mr. W. F. Poole, and a fund raised to meet the expense of a library building. Before the subscriptions had reached the desired amount, troubles in the settlement arose which were magnified without, and, in view of what seemed the moribund condition of Rugby, there was soon an entire end of giving. It was consequently resolved to proceed on a basis of outlay one-half that contemplated, and the building was completed in June last, with a deficit of but $600. It is desired to open the library on October 5, the second anniversary of the founding of the settlement. Dr. Edward Bertz, a new-comer, has volunteered to catalogue and arrange the books, and to serve as secretary and librarian during the first year. Subscriptions may be sent to C. H. Wilson, Treasurer, Rugby, Morgan County, Tennessee, or to Mr. Dana Estes, in Boston, or Mr. Alexander Hill, of Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati. So small a sum can hardly fail to be forthcoming.

—Our school-children are taught that the island of Guanahani, upon which Columbus first landed, and which he called San Salvador, was that now known as Cat Island, near the northern extremity of the Bahama group. This is the view adopted by Irving and by Humboldt. English opinion, on the other hand, inclines to identify it with Watling's Island, a small island southeast of Cat Island. Others choose the other extremity of the group, and identify it with Grand Turk, or Mariguana. It is remarkable that not one of the names given by Columbus to the four islands upon which he landed—San Salvador, Santa Maria de la Concepcion, Fernandina, and Isabella—has survived. There is, to be sure, nearly south of Cat Island, the little island of Conception, the identity of which name is one of the principal arguments for Irving's view; but in size and shape it does not correspond at all with Columbus's description of the second island visited by him. The name Guanahani has vanished as well; but it is found on maps of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries as midway between Guanima (Cat) and Mariguana. The map of La Cosa, a companion of Columbus upon his first voyage, "fixed the position of Guanahani about the middle of the northeast side of the Bahamas." This would point to Samana or Atwood Cay, and to prove that this was the San Salvador of Columbus is the object of a monograph by Capt. G. V. Fox, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Navy, published, under the authority of the Coast Survey, under the title, "An attempt to solve the problem of the first landing-place of Columbus in the New World" (Appendix No. 18, Report of 1880). Captain Fox has shown conclusively that this theory meets the requirements of the problem in respect to the log of the voyage far better than any of the others. Starting from the island of Samana, and identifying Santa Maria de la Concepcion with Crooked and Acklin (then forming one island), Fernandina with Long Island, and Isabella with Fortune, we have every distance and direction as exact as possible, except that one distance of two leagues has to be corrected to two miles. The point of most difficulty is in regard to the description of Guanahani itself. Columbus twice calls it a small island, and once says of it that it is "very large and very level and has very green trees and abundance of water and a very large lagoon in the middle, without any mountain." Samana is certainly not "very large" (this was written, however, before he visited the other islands), but appears to have been diminished in size by abrasion. Neither is it entirely level, although it has no mountain, and, what is of more importance, it has no lagoon. To this, however, Captain Fox shows in reply, that at the rainy season, at which time the landing of Columbus took place, ponds and lagoons collect in the islands, and adds, "The lagoon which Columbus found at Guanahani had certainly undrinkable water, or he would have gotten some for his vessels, instead of putting it off until he reached the third island. There is nothing in the journal to indicate that the lagoon at Guanahani was aught but the flooding of the low grounds by excessive rains; and even if it was one communicating with the ocean, its absence now may be referred to the effect of those agencies which are working incessantly to reshape the soft structure of the Bahamas" (p. 44). It may be observed that Cat Island also has no lagoons, but these are found in Watling's and Grand Turk. We must say that Captain Fox has made out a very strong case for his theory.

—Mr. S. E. Dawson, of the well-known Montreal publishing firm of Dawson Brothers, has republished an interesting lecture on copyright in books, especially with reference to the present state of the law in Canada, delivered by him before the Law School of Bishop's College at Sherbrooke. It is chiefly of interest to Americans in connection with Mark Twain's trip to Canada in search of copyright. The Canadian act, unlike the Imperial statute, requires actual domicile in Canada. Mark Twain was, it seems, advised by a "distinguished Boston lawyer" that he could acquire a domicile in Canada by a mere temporary residence there. Mr. Dawson shows, how-

ever, that the word "domicile" used in the act was intended for the express purpose of preventing this very thing. Under the Imperial act, as interpreted by the English courts, a residence by the author, no matter how temporary, anywhere in the British Dominions is enough to give an English copyright, and under its provisions, before Mark Twain's visit to Canada, Dr. Holmes, Henry Ward Beecher, Jefferson Davis, Bayard Taylor, and other American authors had obtained it. The Canadians disliked Imperial copyright because it produced "dear books," and so their act of 1875 was passed, under which a local system was established. But Mark Twain, having failed to secure a Canadian copyright for his book, owing to want of domicile, found that he could copyright it under the English act by means of the very trip to Canada which had failed to secure him any Canadian rights. This he accordingly did. And now we come to the strangest part of the whole. In their anxiety to get "cheap books," the Canadians had, in 1847, got the English Government to make an Order in Council, authorizing the importation into Canada of foreign reprints, on the condition that a duty should be levied in the Canadian Custom-house for the author's benefit. This duty is 12½ per cent., so that the operation of Mark Twain's copyright would be that American reprints of his book could be imported into Canada and sold there, although he had been refused a Canadian copyright. It appears from the report of the Royal Commission, though Mr. Dawson does not call attention to this, that this duty is not collected; in other words, reprints do not go through the Custom-house, as a rule, but are smuggled. In Mark Twain's case, according to Mr. Dawson, the duty was paid, and the sheets (printed, we suppose, in the United States) were imported into Canada on payment of the 12½ per cent. duty. To meet this the Toronto publishers, who are apparently not affected by the Imperial act, pirated the book, brought out a cheap edition, and now undertake to supply the market in this country by mail. This is one of the results of the absence of an international copyright treaty, and Canadian piracy may be regarded by the American author as one of the new risks to which our persistent refusal to recognize the rights of foreign authors has exposed him. The law is now in a state of complete chaos, and nothing short of a full recognition of authors' rights will bring order out of it.

—Professor Paul Fredericq of Liége (formerly of Ghent) has prepared for the *Revue de l'Instruction Publique en Belgique* a report upon higher instruction in history in Germany, which has been published by itself in pamphlet form. It contains an interesting account of instruction in history in the leading German universities, from which one obtains a good notion of the method and personality of such distinguished men as Treitschke, Sybel, Droysen, etc. M. Fredericq, in his visit to the German universities, was especially impressed by the practical courses in history in the historical seminaries attached to most of these institutions. He describes them in considerable detail, and discusses the arguments against the system recently advanced by M. Seignobos of Dijon. He admits, and quotes the testimony of Germans themselves to the fact, that the study of history at present in Germany "is passing through a crisis," and that, in the excess of detail, general views are too often lost out of sight; nevertheless, he holds that the method is in the main right, and possesses more advantages than defects. As to this, if it is true, as he appears to admit, that the working of the method is at present unfavorable, this is a serious condemnation; for it has been in operation long enough to show its true tendencies, and to be relieved of any unessential defects. It was impossible, no doubt, in so brief a discussion, to go to the bottom of the subject, and it seems to us that the decisive point of the controversy is as to the nature of the practical work done. To study history at first hand, by the direct use of the original authorities, is as plainly advantageous as to do sums in arithmetic, or perform analysis in a laboratory. Practical application of theoretical principles—the laboratory method, as we may call it—is a fundamental principle of education. But it must never be forgotten that the object to be aimed at is *education*, not discovery, whether in chemistry or in history. In American colleges, for example, how shall our poorly equipped students, who have a smattering of American, English, and ancient history, and hardly anything more, best enlarge and deepen their acquaintance with events? The German gymnasia afford so complete and thorough a training in universal history that it is possible for the students of the universities to do what is really new and original work, of a character which would be entirely beyond that of our students, and we suppose of those of France and Belgium as well. For students who are well prepared for it, it would seem that the method of original research described by M. Fredericq would be invaluable; if it is so conducted as to sacrifice ideas to petty detail, that is a fault that can be corrected. But for students less thoroughly equipped, the German method would be hardly more rational than to set a boy to calculate an eclipse before he had learned the multiplication table. Two or three American colleges are in a condition to do this work; and the training at the Johns Hopkins, for example, will, we think, compare fairly with the German model; for most of our colleges the work must be of a lower grade.

—In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for Aug. 15, M. du Camp continues his reminiscences. He has something to say about Alfred de Musset and George Sand, and the celebrated episode between them, but nothing that is new. Musset he only met twice, and on one of these occasions it was plainly to be seen that the great poet had been drowning his sorrows in the flowing bowl—a species of consolation to which he was only too much addicted. With George Sand M. du Camp also had but a moderate acquaintance. Dining with her when she was sixty-four years old, he was startled to hear her say that her whole ambition was to have a yearly income of 3,000 livres. He quotes a letter in which she advises him to get married, so as to have children, as that is the only happy state. The only happiness is to love some one more than yourself, and the only being whom you can love more than yourself is your own child. M. du Camp remarks that these views are in striking contrast to those propagated in her books; but he might have added that when she wrote this letter she had grown old, and, having lost her teeth, was proverbially averse to cracking nuts. He gives a different explanation of the apparent contradiction. George Sand, he says, was always sincere. She might contradict herself, but for the moment she was always convinced of the truth of what she said. When the Crusaders set out for the Holy Land, at every city the little children asked, "Is this Jerusalem?" It was just so with George Sand in the crusade of life. She worshipped at many shrines, but never found an object worthy of her devotions. M. du Camp comes back to familiar ground when he discourses of the *Revue* itself, to which he has been a regular contributor since 1858. He is warm in his praises of François Buloz, who was a natural-born editor. He divined error by a sort of second-sight, and would point out inaccuracies in articles the subjects of which were new to him. M. du Camp calculates that an article in the *Revue* is read and corrected fifteen times before publication. Buloz opened his pages to all the best writers, but was not at all afraid of them. Speaking of Mérimée, he said: "None of you know grammar." Another time, rehearsing his past struggles, he said: "When I had writers, I had no subscribers; and now, when I have subscribers, I have no writers." In the midst of all the eulogy there is, however, an indirect "little dig" when M. du Camp, with great apparent innocence, remarks of Buloz that "the writers made the fortune of his magazine; in return, he gave them fame, and made them known wherever French is understood. They had the best of the bargain." Some of the writers, it would seem, to judge by what Edmond About said when Buloz died, would have preferred a little more cash, even at the sacrifice of some of the fame.

—While contributing to the *Revue*, M. du Camp was also attached to the *Journal des Débats*. Its managing editor was Édouard Bertin, the painter, who, at the age of fifty-seven, assumed the control of the paper which his father had established. He was a well-read, thoroughly-instructed man, sceptical, tolerant of difference of opinion; and, accordingly, both sides of a question were often presented in the *Journal*. This, however, involved no inconsistency, as every article was signed, and only its writer was responsible for its sentiments. A co-proprietor of the paper was Normant. During the Hundred Days, he was detected in a conspiracy against Napoleon, who directed that an example should be made of him. He was put on his trial, and it seemed that he could not possibly escape with his life; but while the judge was charging the jury, the news of Waterloo arrived, and Normant was unanimously acquitted—a capital scene for a melodrama. The editor-in-chief of the *Débats* was Silvestre de Sacy, who for more than twenty years wrote two-thirds of its political articles, and was only deposed from his position when he allowed Napoleon III. to make him a Senator. He remained as literary editor. He was a gentleman of a delightful temper, whose placidity nothing could disturb except an irreverent remark concerning Madame de Sévigné, whom he devotedly admired, and of whose letters he published an edition in eleven volumes. He actually pitied Victor Cousin, who had set up as champion of Madame de Longueville. "Poor Cousin," he said, shrugging his shoulders, "he does not even know that, according to Tallemant des Réaux, his Dulcinea had dirty hands." Sacy lived in the age of Louis XIV., with his beloved Marquise, La Bruyère, and Racine. When Mommsen's history was mentioned, he said: "In Roman history, I stick to Rollin." He said to Renan, when his 'Life of Jesus' was published, "What is the use of a fifth Gospel? The other four sufficed." It was to him that the *Journal des Débats* owed its literary savor. There was, however, no lack of accomplished literary men among its staff—*e. g.*, Philarète Chasles, who began his career as a printer in Paris, and followed his trade for seven years in London. He was familiar with the Italian, German, and English languages and literatures, and did more than any other writer to make the modern productions of England and Germany accessible to France. His translation of Jean-Paul's 'Titan' is in itself a title to the public gratitude. He had a great gift for extracting the substance of five or six foreign books and converting it into an instructive and entertaining volume. He was the stand-by of all periodicals short of copy. He was always at work on something of

which he sent in the first part, which was published, after which it was sometimes impossible to get the continuation. One of the younger contributors was Prévost-Paradol, whose connection with the paper began at the age of twenty-seven. He was a man of brilliant gifts for literature, and might have achieved the highest distinction if ambition had not led him into politics. How unfortunate this proved for him is but too well known. His appointment as Minister Plenipotentiary at Washington, and his suicide when the war between France and Germany broke out, are well-remembered incidents. He foresaw the result, for immediately after Sadowa he had predicted it.

JAMES MILL.

James Mill: A Biography. By Alexander Bain, LL.D., Emeritus Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

JAMES MILL'S greatest achievement was, it has been said, to have produced John Mill. This dictum has a certain amount of epigrammatic force, but it contains at least as much falsehood as truth. For no error would be greater than to suppose that James Mill was nothing but the father of his better-known son. If the word "noteworthy" could be used in a strictly neutral sense, as meaning, without any implication either of praise or of blame, "worthy to be noticed," a fair critic would, without much hesitation, pronounce James Mill a more noteworthy person than the writer who, to the generation who have grown up within the last thirty or forty years, will always be emphatically known as "Mill." The truth is, that James Mill was a man who, for bad or good, possessed a strength, energy, and individuality of character far exceeding that of the author whose somewhat morbid passion for liberty, or even eccentricity, is, we take it, an unconscious reaction against the overpowering sway exercised over his mind and will by the unconquerable volition of his father. The one word which James Mill's whole character and career suggests is "force." He was not a lovable man; he was not a man of genius; he was not, with all his talent and capacity, a man of original conceptions, but he was a man of strength. As you read through the dry biography in which Mr. Bain has raised a really appropriate monument to one of the hardest and dryest teachers who ever benefited or instructed the world, you feel that you might easily have detested James Mill, but that you could never have despised him. He stands as a typical Scotchman somewhere between John Lord Campbell and Thomas Carlyle.

In each of these three men you have characters fundamentally Scotch. They are each more remarkable in character than in rareness of genius; they are each men of determined energy; they are each consumed by the Scotch passion for "getting on"; they are each, though in different ways, as narrow as they are energetic; they are each utterly wanting (we regret to say it of Carlyle) in all those virtues which are summed up under the vague term, generosity. They each represent, with curious accuracy, different aspects of national character. The Lord Chancellor is the respectable Scotch adventurer. Life to John Campbell was the sphere in which a sensible man was bound to display his talent for "getting on." To succeed in the battle of life without openly violating the rules of the game (at least in their letter) was to him the end of existence, and this end he manfully struggled for and successfully attained. Thomas Carlyle was the Scotchman of genius. In him we see set forth, curiously enough, for the instruction of a sceptical generation, the virtues and the defects of a Scotch prophet. To read Carlyle's works, and to study his life, is the best way of understanding the spirit of the Scotch reformers. James Mill might have been the Scotch adventurer. Indeed, it is allowable to suspect that he had to the end of his life a strong dash of the adventurer about him. A newspaper controversy has been carried on on the question whether James Mill was or was not guilty of somewhat unfairly tripping up a friend or a rival at the India Office. Of the merits of the dispute we know nothing; but it may confidently be said that if James Mill be accused of elbowing a competitor out of his path, there is nothing whatever in the records of the philosopher's life, or in the admitted traits of his character, which makes the accusation on the face of it incredible. But what gives James Mill a claim to permanent respect is, that while he might have been a mere adventurer—a man bent only on getting to himself by legitimate, and therefore safe, means the greatest share possible of the good things of the world—he was actuated by an ambition too high to be satisfied by pensions, by offices, by chief-justiceships or by chancellorships, and set his heart on the prizes to be obtained in the field of thought and philosophy. He was the precise and exact type of the Scotch thinker. He was one of those men who seem born to illustrate Mr. Buckle's theory that the Scotch intellect has a natural affinity for deduction. Whatever be the worth of a somewhat doubtful piece of speculation, it certainly gives us an admirable formula for describing the intellectual merits and defects of thinkers such as James Mill.

We may also go further than this, and assert with some confidence that what Mr. Buckle holds to have been true of a class was certainly true of the particular individual with whose intellectual peculiarities we are concerned. Mill's sceptical philosophy was the direct offspring of his theolcgical training. He was educated as a preacher; he appears (though, characteristically enough, he seems almost to have suppressed the knowledge of a part of his life in which he felt no pride) to have delivered a considerable number of sermons. He gained from his training the habit of acute logical argument from given premises. He was the logical defender of sensational philosophy and Utilitarian morality, just as under different circumstances he might have been the logical apologist for the verbal inspiration of the Bible, or for the whole scheme of dogmatic Calvinism. Of breadth of mind, of appreciation of human nature, of sympathy with views differing from his own creed, he knew as little as the rawest theological student fresh from the class-rooms of St. Andrew's or Aberdeen. Macaulay's celebrated essays are assuredly no answer to Utilitarianism; they were not even a telling criticism of the system of thought which they were intended to expose. They are, in fact, some of the weakest writings penned by their author. But in one respect the essays on Utilitarianism are conclusive: they prove past a doubt that James Mill was guilty of the absurdity of trying to lay down deductively a theory of human nature without taking into account the lessons to be learned from the teaching of history. "It may be reason, but it is not man," is a principle of wide application, which never came within the view of the author of the 'Analysis of the Human Mind.'

Macaulay proves that James Mill neglected the teaching of history; Mr. Bain proves still more conclusively that James Mill did not understand, and scarcely studied, human nature as it existed around him in English society. He proposed an elaborate scheme for reforming the Church: his plan was nothing less than to transform the Church of England (or, rather, the clergy of that Church) into a body for propagating sound Utilitarian morality. All theological dogmas were to be dispensed with; prayer, at any rate in the popular sense of the term, was to cease. The work of the clergy was to "consist in supplying all possible inducements to good conduct." All families were to be assembled on the Sunday, "clean and well dressed"; since to be cleanly and well clothed has an "ameliorating effect."

"Besides addresses of a purely moral kind, instruction in science and useful knowledge would be of great service. Even branches of political science might be introduced, such as political economy and the conditions of good government. Some of the elements of jurisprudence would be valuable. These would be the more serious occupations of the day of rest. There should also be social amusements of a mild character, such as to promote cheerfulness rather than profane merriment. Sports involving bodily strength are not well adapted to promote brotherly feelings; their encouragement in antiquity had in view the urgency of war. Music and dancing would be important. . . . A conjoint meal on Sunday would have the happiest effects. . . . The author finally disposes of the objection, How is all this to be done? If there are as many people in earnest about religion as there are who pretend to be, all difficulties would be overcome."

These sentences from Mr. Bain's biography give us a fair sample of James Mill's proposals for the reform of the Church. Even Mr. Bain is startled. He can hardly believe that his hero "could have supposed it possible in the course of a few years to unlearn the whole of the Christian traditions, and to remodel the entire ritual upon the basis of a religion of natural theism." His surprise is natural enough, but he hardly sees the whole absurdity of James Mill's scheme. It was a plan impracticable in itself, and utterly unsuited for the time in which it was propounded. Mill proposed to transform the Church of England into a society for the founding of mechanics' institutes, the propagation of useful knowledge, and the maintenance of a very weak form of natural theism, just at the moment of an ecclesiastical revival. Mill's scheme of Church reform was published between 1830 and 1836. These were the years when Newman was laying the foundations of Tractarianism at Oxford. Mill was forty years behind his age. He fancied that a scheme which might possibly have commanded the support of the Convention in 1790 would suit the Englishmen of 1830.

As readers meditate upon the grotesque absurdity of the philosopher's plans, they naturally enough think that they have the measure of James Mill's practical capacity, and that the author of this monstrous scheme for the reformation of the Church was one of those logical fanatics who, without any knowledge of the world or of mankind, form plans of innovation the practical futility of which is concealed from their author, but from no one else, by their logical coherency. Mill, in short, if we judged of him by his weakest side, might well be deemed an inferior Abbé Sieyès, without any of the excuses for his errors which may be urged on behalf of the great French constitution-monger. But no mistake would be greater than to fancy that James Mill's weaknesses and defects gave us the measure of his character. He was not such a leader of men as he is painted in John Mill's 'Autobiography.' We may feel quite sure that the comparison between James Mill and Voltaire is simply ridiculous. The attempt to put him on anything like the same level as Bentham is almost equally absurd. We may be allowed to doubt whether he had either a sense of humor, inventive originality, or any insight into the general spirit of the age. But, for all this, he exercised a great influence and did an important work. His merits, and also his defects,

enabled him to acquire great authority over men such as Grote, the two Austins, and others who were gifted with far rarer intellectual and moral gifts than Mill himself. The harshness, or, to speak plainly, the brutality, which made him a despot at home, and which we may well suspect was in great measure the cause of the estrangement between himself and Bentham, hardly affected his relation to his disciples. His influence was, to quote John Mill's own expressions, due to "mere force of mind and character." Nothing gives a clearer idea of the impression he made on men who came under his influence than the following passage from a letter of Grote's:

"I have breakfasted and dined several times with Ricardo, who has been uncommonly civil and kind to me. I have met Mill often at his house, and hope to derive great pleasure and instruction from his acquaintance, as he is a very profound, thinking man, and seems well disposed to communicate, as well as clear and intelligible in his manner. His mind has, indeed, all that cynicism and asperity which belong to the Benthamian school, and what I chiefly dislike in him is the readiness and seeming preference with which he dwells on the *faults and defects* of others—even of the greatest men! But it is so very rarely that a man of any depth comes across my path, that I shall most assuredly cultivate his acquaintance a good deal further."

This passage contains, according to Mr. Bain, the "strongest language Grote ever employed in describing Mill's censorial tendency. His mode of speaking" of James Mill "in later life was in terms of almost unexceptional eulogy, as may be seen in his article on John Mill's 'Hamilton.'" What was true of Grote was true, in the main, of James Mill's other disciples. The man's force of character, his logical acumen, and his controversial power made themselves felt, and his cynicism and asperity were forgotten, overlooked, or possibly even relished. For qualities which are unpleasant in themselves excite something like admiration when they are found to be effective as arms against our foes; and Mill was throughout all his later life the leading assailant of all the foes of Benthamism. In such a struggle his best moral characteristic had, it must be observed, the opportunity of displaying itself to advantage. He may have been selfish and overbearing; but no one can read his life, or reflect upon the effect which James Mill produced upon his followers, without being convinced that he shared to the full that fine public spirit which was the noblest trait in the reformers of 1830. No one can wonder that a man fanatically attached to his own political convictions, gifted with immense strength of will, endowed with marked logical acuteness, and, above all, inspired with fervent zeal for the promotion of what seemed to him the cause of freedom and progress, should have exerted an influence over young men with whom he came in contact quite out of proportion to his speculative ability and to his insight into the wants and feelings of the time.

If James Mill's influence was considerable, it must also be conceded that by means of this influence he did in his day good and lasting work. "As Brutus," says John Mill of his father, "was called the last of the Romans, so was he the last of the eighteenth century; he continued its tone of thought and sentiment into the nineteenth (though not unmodified or unimproved), partaking neither in the good nor in the bad influences of the reaction against the eighteenth century which was the great characteristic of the first half of the nineteenth." If we except the words placed within a parenthesis, this is by far the acutest criticism passed on James Mill and his work by his son. Of "modification" or "improvement" of the ideas of the eighteenth century little trace will, we suspect, be found in James Mill's works. If he had been, like John Mill, a teacher bent on modifying and reconciling apparently opposed views, he could never have done his special task. Benthamism was the application to the political life of England of the ideas of the eighteenth century. Mill was the representative of militant Benthamism. He gave to the Benthamite creed a precise logical form. He reduced it, as applied at any rate to politics and law, to a body of clear-cut dogmas. To do this is not, indeed, to extend men's knowledge of truth, but it is to place truth in a form in which men can and will fight for it. An examination of the very singular chapter in Mr. Bain's work on the history of reform certainly suggests the conclusion that Mill and his allies had a good deal more to do than is generally known with the conduct of the agitation which carried the Reform Bill. What is certain is, that James Mill gave form and shape to the speculative opinions which found practical expression in the bill itself, and in the series of measures of which the Reform Bill was the parent. James Mill, in short, prepared, propagated, and fought for the formulas of Benthamism. This was work for which his narrow, vigorous, and logical Scotch intellect was admirably adapted. We have most of us derived from another Scotchman, who promulgated dogmas of his own which were generally far less rational than the doctrines of Benthamism, a tendency to despise formulas and the man who creates them. This contempt may be carried a great deal too far. A thinker who gives to any doctrine a definite dogmatic shape increases, for the moment at least, its effective power. James Mill, by formularizing the teaching of Bentham, made it victorious at a crisis of English history. The man who did this is assuredly at least as worthy of note as the son by whose name James Mill's reputation has been eclipsed; and all who hold that, in the sphere at any rate of legislation, Benthamism has produced results of almost unmixed benefit to the world, will readily admit that James Mill was one of those teachers who have done good service to mankind.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Table of Cases Argued and Adjudged in the Supreme Court of the United States. 2 Dallas to 103 U. S. Compiled by H. J. Lauck and H. D. Clarke. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1882.

The Law of Subrogation. By Henry N. Sheldon. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1882.

The American Decisions. Containing the Cases of General Value and Authority decided in the Courts of the Several States, from the Earliest Issue of the State Reports to the Year 1869. Compiled and Annotated by A. C. Freeman. Vols. xxix.-xxxvi. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

Digest of the American Decisions, and Index to the Notes Thereto. With a Table of the Cases Re-reported in Volumes i. to xxx., inclusive. 1760-1837. Vol. i. By A. C. Freeman. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

Essays in Jurisprudence and Ethics. By Frederick Pollock, M.A., LL.D. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

Leading Cases Simplified. A Collection of the Leading Cases of the Common Law. By John D. Lawson. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co. 1882.

THE authors of 'Cases Argued' speak within bounds when they say that the want of such a table as their volume contains has "long been felt." For the last twenty-one volumes of Supreme Court reports there is no table in existence, and probably no lawyer, in preparing a brief for argument in which he has needed to refer to its decisions, has failed to come across a reference to some case which, owing to slovenly reporting or citing, it is difficult to find in the original volume. Mr. Wallace's passion for omitting all the descriptive parts of corporate names, and using the generic title "Railroad Co.," "Steamboat Co.," "Insurance Co.," instead of the full charter designation, has thrown a great deal of needless labor on the profession. The compilers of this volume seem to have corrected this error wherever it was possible.

Subrogation is a doctrine of the civil law which has become incorporated in our jurisprudence through the medium of equity, and has been, like other doctrines of similar origin, more fully developed in this country than in England. Mr. Sheldon thinks the most logical division of the subject would be into two heads—first, the subrogation of junior creditors of a common debtor, or of parties holding subordinate interests in the same property to the rights and remedies of senior creditors, or of persons holding paramount claims upon the property, after they have, for the protection of their own interests, satisfied these; secondly, the subrogation of one of several debtors who has, either under compulsion or for the protection of his property, satisfied a common creditor, or a creditor holding a charge upon his property as well as that of others, against those debtors by whom, or the owners of that property from which, he ought to have been indemnified (in whole or in part) against the burden which he has thus discharged. But, in our law, logical arrangement is generally out of the question, and so, for practical convenience, Mr. Sheldon has found it better to make a totally different one. He has made a careful collection of the authorities, and his propositions of law are stated with care and accuracy. The doctrine of subrogation has attracted a good deal of public attention in connection with the *Alabama* claims, and it is a singular and discreditable thing that the legislatures of the country whose judges have done their utmost to extend and develop this equitable right, should have treated it as non-existent in that case. The fact is, as a most cursory examination of Mr. Sheldon's treatise shows, that the insurer's right to be subrogated to all the remedies of the insured whom he has indemnified, originally a doctrine of marine insurance, has been already extended to fire insurance, and, although still denied in life insurance, begins to show signs of making its appearance there. When a railroad kills a passenger in an accident, the company which insures his life and pays the loss cannot recover. And why? Because, say the courts, the wrongful act affects the insurer only by reason of his "artificial contractual relation" with the insured. But that is equally true in the case of a total loss at sea or by fire. Mr. Sheldon might with advantage have given a little more space to the consideration of the cases on this subject.

Nothing could show more conclusively the sharpness of the professional appetite for reports than the success of the 'American Decisions.' There seemed little reason at the outset to anticipate any demand for such a series. The cases are all contained in the regular series of reports, and in court it is these which must be cited and read from. The work of annotation, of course, increases the value of a case, but this alone, even when done as well as Mr. Freeman does it, would hardly be enough to make up for the want of authority which attaches to the series as a whole. In every State, a lawyer making a brief consults first the decisions of his own courts, all of which he finds collected in a State digest, and then, if he goes beyond these, he would, one would think at first sight, consult the United

States digest, and text-books for cases in other States. But the fact seems to be that the work of reporting and digesting is so badly done that he will, as a matter of fact, consult any comprehensive and recent collection of cases which may be put in his way; and of all these, the 'American Decisions' are perhaps the best. With the 'Digest' now published, the lawyer who has the series has access to all the leading decisions of the State courts, and references in the notes which put him on the track of other authorities. The series, with the 'Digest,' in fact, constitutes a little library, in which the eternal hunt for cases may be prosecuted with profit.

Mr. Pollock belongs to a new school of legal writers, who have made their appearance in England since the writings of Sir Henry Maine began to attract attention, and who aim at combining the analytical method of Austin on the one hand with the Utilitarian method of Bentham and the modern historical method. The difference can best be indicated by a concrete illustration. Bentham maintained that "judge-made" law—*i.e.*, any new rule laid down by the courts—was not properly law at all, because it was law issuing from what he regarded as an improper source, and was made in a way prejudicial to the interests of society. Austin showed, on the other hand, that it was as much law as an act of the legislature, because it has all the essential characteristics of a law: it was a general command resting on sovereign authority, and having a sanction to support it. Now, the historical method shows that judicial legislation is, as a matter of fact, a phase in the development of all systems of law. There is no real antagonism between these views, or, at any rate, between the last two: one really fills out and completes the other. Austin has been criticised for treating law as a fixed system of rules consciously imposed upon subjects by the sovereign, much as the laws of morals are supposed by believers in the system of rewards and punishments to be imposed on man. The earthly sovereign says, "Thou shalt not steal," precisely as the Almighty does. The only difference is, that the earthly sovereign enforces his command by imprisonment in a terrestrial jail, while the Deity is supposed to annex to his the sanction of suffering in another world. But the historical method has shown us that if we go far enough back in the development of primitive communities, we soon get to a point at which the notion of law being imposed by a sovereign disappears, and we find everything regulated simply by invariable custom. In an Oriental village community, what we call law is hardly known. As any modern system of law is in part inherited from the past, it follows that a good deal of it must rest on antique custom, which has been handed down from a state of society which would have been unable to comprehend our views of positive jurisprudence. Mr. Holmes, in his learned treatise on the common law, has given some interesting illustrations of this sort of survival which Austin, in his analysis, did not take into account. But this does not affect the general truth of Austin's conception of law. Territorial sovereignty is itself a modern conception, and for purposes of analysis we need the idea of a command issued by the sovereign and addressed to the subject with a sanction attached. This idea of law was not original with Austin or Bentham, but has been conceived in a confused way by every English and American writer on the subject from Coke to Blackstone and Kent. The fact that parts of our law antedate the conception makes no difference. The responsibility of a master for his servant's act is a rule of law which, in the first instance, was probably not formulated as a rule by any sovereign, any more than the law of deodand, which may be traced to the early primitive tendency to attribute human qualities to inanimate objects. But this does not alter the fact that, when a railroad company is made to pay for the negligence of its employees, it is done in obedience to a rule of positive law, which must in theory have the same source with any other rule. The same thing was true of deodands, so long as they had any place in our law. Austin's analysis, it must be remembered, does not require us to imagine that every existing rule of law is actually a piece of legislation emanating from the sovereign; it is merely a norm, a method of conceiving of what law actually is. His critics, while they have shown that his theory is historically incorrect, have, for analytical purposes, failed to suggest any other, and it is obvious that no other can be suggested which will take in the historical as well as the analytical view of the subject. The legal conceptions, if they can be called such, which the historical inquirer finds prevailing in primitive communities cannot be expressed in the terms of modern law; but that is no reason why we should alter our conception of law as a body of rules enforced by sanctions annexed to violations of them by the sovereign. At any rate, as long as no other conception is brought forward to supply its place, we find ourselves unable to get along without it.

Mr. Pollock's book consists of thirteen essays on a variety of legal and ethical subjects, none of which are very original, though all are worth reading. It can hardly be said that his speculations advance matters much. He has an ingenious essay on the "Science of Case Law," in which he makes out an elaborate parallel between case law and the inductive method in science. The following extract shows what he means:

"The ultimate object of natural science is to predict events—to say with approximate accuracy what will happen under given conditions. Every special department of science occupies itself with predicting events of a particular kind; note, also, that each science occupies itself only with those conditions which are material for its own purposes. The object of legal science, as we here understand it, is likewise to predict events. The particular kind of events it seeks to predict are the decisions of courts of justice. Like the other sciences, it selects its own sets of conditions to deal with. Let us consider for a moment an event which has both physical and legal consequences. If A strikes B, then the effect of the blow on B's equilibrium is a matter of mechanics; the effect on his organism is a matter of physiology; the effect of giving him a right of action is a matter of law. For the scientific examination of the event in each of these several aspects, we want to know and to deal with the several appropriate sets of conditions, and those only; thus, if B struck A first, this is irrelevant to the mechanical question, but relevant to the legal question. The legal result is as definite and capable of prediction as either the mechanical or the physiological one; the needful thing in each case is that the right set of conditions be rightly observed."

In natural science we assume that nature is uniform. In legal science we find that an assumption is none the less needed, and accordingly we have the fundamental axiom of the uniformity of law, which we secure by the principle of *stare decisis*, and of revision by courts of appeal. The idea is worked out with a good deal of cleverness, but it does not seem at all fruitful from a legal point of view. The reader of a book like Mr. Pollock's is forced to ask himself at every page whether, after all, we have not reached the limits of analysis in jurisprudence, and whether it is not to historical research that we must look, for the present, for whatever new light is to be thrown on the study of the science.

Mr. Lawson has endeavored in his collection of cases to present them in a "clear, concise, and semi-humorous style." His idea is to disencumber the reported decisions of what is unimportant and superfluous, and give the student the principles involved in the briefest and most pointed way. "To this end, only the really leading cases have been selected, and these, instead of being some fifty or sixty, number in all over two hundred, and embrace nearly every branch of the common law of the land. To this end, also, correctness of statement has been adhered to, and humor has never been indulged in at the expense of truth." Hence the work differs essentially from such lawless, though amusing, treatises as the 'Comic Blackstone,' to the authors of which not even the facts of a leading case are sacred. The student will, in fact, find very little to corrupt, and something to amuse, in Mr. Lawson's collection. The following is the report of the celebrated case of Manby *v.* Scott, and is a fair specimen of Mr. Lawson's work:

"Sir Edward Scott, a respectable baronet of the seventeenth century, was not fortunate in his choice of a wife. The lady was fast, and the gentleman was slow, and they failed to hit it off together. Probably, therefore, it was to the no small relief and satisfaction of the worthy baronet when Dame Scott, as the reporters call her ladyship, determined to seek fresh woods and pastures new, and went right away. The good, easy man had not enjoyed such peace since the days of his bachelorhood. Twelve years passed away, and one day, at the stately house of England inhabited by Sir Edward Scott, there turned up an exceedingly seedy-looking female, who announced herself as Lady Scott, and the mistress of all she surveyed. Her rights, however, were very soon disputed. The baronet was a sensible person, and his pampered menials soon sent the old woman about her business. This action was brought by a merchant, who, although Sir Edward had expressly told him not to do so, had supplied Lady Scott with silks and satins during the time she was living away from her husband. The reader will scarcely be surprised to hear that Mr. Manby did not obtain a satisfactory settlement of his little bill, and Manby *v.* Scott is the chief authority for the principle that the wife's contract does not bind the husband unless she act by his authority."

This is something like the reporting in early Anglo-Saxon times, except that in primitive reporting there is no conscious attempt at humor. There may be students who will remember Manby *v.* Scott better for reading Mr. Lawson's remarkable version, as there are others who can remember versified reports such as the 'Leading Cases' published in England a few years since, in imitation of the styles of leading poets of the day; but the book can hardly be considered a serious contribution to jurisprudence. The humor, as will be seen from the above extract, is not very subtle, and it may fairly be doubted whether a student who needs such a modification of the usual method of reporting cases had not better abandon all idea of becoming a lawyer.

Mr. George Bliss has published and placed on sale a few copies of 'Chapter 410 of the Laws of 1882'—a bulky volume of over 800 pages. This statute is "an act to consolidate into one act and to declare the special and local laws affecting public interests in the city of New York." It takes effect on March 1, 1883, and will from that date substantially supersede a large mass of special and local legislation relating to this city, and coming under the following heads: the powers, duties, and liabilities of city officers and departments, including the provisions of the "charter"; the laws as to courts, court officers, and officers exercising their powers specially in this city, though not technically officers of the city government; taxation, assessments, street openings, etc.; piers, wharfage, and the harbor; ferries, auctions, amusements, buildings, tenement and lodging-houses, fires, immigration, pilotage, the port wardens, protection of sailors, births, deaths, health, duties of physicians, elec-

tions, mechanics' liens, crimes, and procedure; the commitment of children and others to charitable or reformatory societies and institutions. The act is the work of a commission consisting of the Corporation Counsel, Mr. William C. Whitney, Mr. Peter B. Olney, and Mr. Bliss, who were appointed under an act passed in 1879. Since 1813 there has been no authorized consolidation and revision of the laws relating to this city; and the Commission's work, which has been done with a great deal of thoroughness, is therefore a statute of vast importance. It should be understood that it is strictly a compilation, the Commissioners having had no authority to amend. The act contains no provision expressly repealing the laws and parts of laws believed to be superseded by it. Mr. Bliss says, however, that it is intended "after a time" to advise the passage of a law expressly repealing all prior provisions on subjects embraced in it. Of course, as a final revision, the act is incomplete until this is done, because, while conclusive as to anything which is expressly inserted in it, still, "so far as anything has been omitted which ought to have been inserted," the provision omitted must still be resorted to by courts and lawyers. The revision in this respect seems to be in very much the condition of the Revision of the United States Statutes. If the work of legislation at Albany and Washington could be stopped for a few years, there would be some chance of getting revisions which would be at least for a time final. But this is a mere dream. Mr. Bliss has ingeniously corrected an error made in binding, so that the value of the copy now published is not in any way affected by it.

History of the Twenty-first Regiment Massachusetts Volunteers. By Charles F. Walcott. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A HISTORY of a regiment, like one of a family name, is apt to suggest a mass of trivial details of insignificant persons. No such apprehension, however, is justified by this history of General Walcott's. The Twenty-first was a good regiment, of exceptional service. It was engaged at Roanoke Island and Newbern, forming part of one of General Burnside's three brigades. These were commanded by three able regular officers — Foster, Reno, and Parke — and their brilliant success is probably responsible for the subsequent unfortunate promotion of Burnside to a command entirely beyond his capacity.

In the year 1862 the regiment was in eight general actions, including the second battle of Manassas, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, in each of which it suffered a loss of one-third of the men engaged. At Antietam it was one of three regiments which in the afternoon carried Burnside's bridge. By an unfortunate omission in the report of the corps commander, General Cox, followed in the reports of Generals Burnside and McClellan, it has not generally shared with the Fifty-first New York and Fifty-first Pennsylvania, as it should, the glory of this action. The position was a strong one, resolutely defended, but what was finally done at one o'clock could have been more easily achieved at eight, when the Rebel left needed all its force to hold its own against the main attack of the morning. General Burnside's delay in carrying the bridge, and his dilatoriness in operating beyond it, alone kept the battle from being a complete and crushing victory. The fault lies between him and General McClellan, and it is doubtful whether it will ever be clearly and justly apportioned. Whosever the fault, the failure here was only second to that soon after at Fredericksburg, which forms an appalling example of the evil a well-meaning but incapable man may do. The regiment was in all the bloody battles of the advance on Richmond, and in the battle of the mine at Petersburgh. Its last battle as a distinct organization was at Poplar Spring Church, where again it brought out only two-thirds of the men it took in. On the march to Petersburgh, Company A was reduced to three privates. The regiment was finally reduced to 59 muskets for duty, and was transferred to the Thirty-fifth Massachusetts.

A clear and simple account of such a career, by an intelligent and cultivated man who was an eye-witness and principal actor in the scenes he describes, could not fail to be interesting. General Walcott usually confines himself to what he saw, with sufficient explanation of the main course of events to show the bearings of the action of his own regiment, and, on the whole, resists successfully the temptation to digress into the general topics of the war. The personal records and anecdotes of the regiment, which, by the way, are sometimes of general interest, are collected at the ends of chapters in convenient form to skip.

Portions of the narrative throw a curious light on the state of feeling and notions of discipline of the time. One punctilious sentinel shot and killed his corporal, and another his lieutenant, for not giving the countersign. One of these events occurred at the Annapolis Naval Academy—"a place as safe as Boston Common"; the other at a picket outside of Annapolis. The Governor of Maryland missed a slave in the Academy grounds. At his request the military commandant ordered the officer of the day to institute a search for the negro, who had crept up a chimney. This officer, greatly to his credit, tore off his sash and flatly refused to obey. In this he was imitated by each of the captains. After dark the men stole a boat, in which they launched the slave on his voyage to freedom. It does not appear that the officers' moral virtue but military vice cost them any penalty. The Colonel gave a pass to a citizen to take ammunition "for sporting" across the lines. The Lieutenant-Colonel, who was an Italian, and had got his notions of service under Garibaldi in Europe, refused to recognize the pass. It was referred to General Dix, commanding the department, and confirmed by him. The Lieutenant-Colonel, with a juster appreciation of the circumstances than his superiors showed, still refused to obey. He was placed in arrest, but soon released and put in command of the regiment. Thereupon he ordered a general jail delivery, including a man under sentence of a general court-martial. When this man returned to his company his Captain thought it came from a mistake, and returned him to confinement. He appealed to the Colonel, who again released him on his own responsibility. Thereupon he frankly told his Captain that for his action he proposed to shoot him the first safe chance he got, in battle or out. In this case "the dog it was that died," as the man was shot at Camden, and the Captain lived to write this book. Just before reaching South Mountain the regiment came upon two corpses in ragged gray uniforms on a tree beside the road, hanged by Stonewall Jackson for stealing. "Although the Rebel army (ragged and half fed) had just passed over the road by which we were moving, the ripe apples were left hanging untouched on the trees that lined the road; but, in sad contrast with Rebel discipline, the straggling plunderers from our well-provisioned delivering army left few apples, chickens, or growing pigs behind us on the march." General Reno, on another occasion, took Lieutenant-Colonel R. B. Hayes, afterward President of the United States, and then commanding the Twenty-third Ohio Volunteers, "severely though justly to task, in the presence of his men, for their piratical conduct" in plundering the country.

The book closes with a sketch and several graphic narratives of survivors of the nightmare horrors of Andersonville. The definiteness of the facts and figures gives a peculiarly vivid idea of the awful accumulation of extreme and long-sustained human suffering which will always make the place infamous.

Nasby in Exile; or, Six Months of Travel in England, Ireland, Scotland, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Belgium. By David R. Locke (Petroleum V. Nasby). Profusely illustrated. Toledo and Boston: Locke Publishing Company. 1882.

THOSE who have known Mr. Locke in his character of Petroleum V. Nasby, the depraved Democratic postmaster of Confederate Cross-Roads, will not find what they expect in this six-months' itinerary. It is professedly a serious work. It appeared originally in the European correspondence of the Toledo *Blade*, Mr. Locke's newspaper; and, as he modestly says in his preface, it is "not issued in compliance with any demand for it." He adds: "The ground we went over has been gone over by other writers a thousand times. We went where other tourists have gone, and what we saw others have seen. The only difference between the book and the thousands of others that have been printed describing the same scenes is purely the difference in the eyes of the writers who saw them. I saw the countries I visited with a pair of American eyes, and judged of men and things from a purely American standpoint." This is perfectly true, and it is something which may perhaps be expected to heighten the value of the book to other Americans, if not to Europeans. Europeans care less to know what Americans think about them than Americans do to hear what an American thinks about Europeans. There is something fascinating about the crudity of Mr. Locke's impressions. He travelled with a select little party, embracing what he calls a "faro-bankeress" and a fast young man from Chicago. The latter is drawn from the life, and shows Mr. Locke's literary faculty at its best. But Mr. Locke saw Europe with the eyes which he brought with him; and as his mind is quite destitute of original literary powers, except in the way of humor, he saw simply what he expected to find: in England, horse-racing, betting, brandy-drinking; in Ireland, oppression and tyranny; in France, marital infidelity, much cheerfulness, and dancing. All these impressions he had before he went to Europe, having got them in early life through the ordinary channels of English literature; and finding them verified by observation, he puts them naïvely down on paper as if his noticing them were a matter of some importance. Far be it from us to quarrel with the result. We have no doubt that thousands of American homes will be amused by the perusal of Mr. Locke's book, but it will, we regret to say, be more frequently the depraved humor of the work that pleases them than its value as a book of travel.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aiken, E. E. The Secret-Society System. New Haven: O. H. Briggs.
Alexander, Mrs. Look Before You Leap: a Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Bacon, E. F. A Guide for Learning the German Language. London: G. W. Bacon & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 14, 1882.

The Week.

THE absurdity of the verdict rendered on Monday in the Star-route trial is so glaring that it is difficult for anybody who has followed the proceedings with care to believe it honest. The foreman, Dickson, is evidently an intelligent man, and his conduct cannot be set down to stupidity; but his voting to acquit Brady and Dorsey, while bringing in Rerdell as guilty, is a monstrous piece of inconsistency. Rerdell, to be sure, made a confession as to the conspiracy, but if there was any conspiracy, Brady and Dorsey were necessarily parties to it. When the verdict came in, Brady and Dorsey are reported as having looked rather glum, and this may be accounted for by the fact that this peculiar verdict leaves them in a rather more awkward position than they were in before. Had the jury found that there was no conspiracy, or disagreed as to all, they would be no worse off than they were at the beginning of the trial. But now two of their "pals" have every reason for turning State's evidence and telling all they know. Rerdell has already shown that he cannot be relied on, and both he and Miner, if they feel that they are being sacrificed to let greater villains escape, will have the desire for revenge added to the desire to secure a pardon to lead them to make a clean breast of it. A pardon for these minor criminals would be well worth all the time and expense of the trial, if it could be used as a means of at length securing a verdict against Brady and Dorsey.

The story told by Dickson of the attempt to bribe him on the part of the Government is, of course, very silly, but taking it for granted that the verdict is not an honest one, it is just the sort of "cover" for a disagreement which it might have been expected such a rascal as Brady would furnish. Brady is a very sharp and long-headed man. His discovery of the Tilden cipher despatches, and the part performed by him in "carrying Indiana," showed this; but his sagacity where his own interests are concerned was displayed still more plainly in the petitions for expedition on which he always based his orders for increased pay to contractors. These petitions, though quite worthless for the purpose of excusing Brady from a charge of conspiracy, served throughout the case the end of befogging the issue, so that nothing but the very plain language of Judge Wylie in charging could have made plain what it was. In the same way, assuming that improper influences have been brought to bear upon the jury by the defence, nothing would be more like Brady than to attempt to produce an impression that the prosecution were hard at work trying to corrupt the jury. Brady's friends have been maintaining all along that there was something very extraordinary in the appearance of the Attorney-General in the case at all. It looked like a piece of persecution. Had the jury brought in nobody guilty, or disagreed, the result, coupled with a story of an attempt to bribe on the part of the Government, might have left the matter in a very confused condition.

Messrs. Hoar and Crapo, of Massachusetts, as well as Mr. W. A. Russell, have now both denounced assessments on officeholders, in letters to officeholders who had asked for their advice. Mr. Hoar is the last to appear in print on the subject. He thinks the first of Hubbell's circulars "unfortunate"; the second one "doubly so," as containing a sort of threat. He considers it "exceedingly indelicate and improper" that Senators and Representatives should solicit money from officeholders, as they are consulted about and have a large influence in appointments, and he hopes "the practice of such solicitations will stop." This is all very good; only we do wish that when Senators and Representatives dislike this sort of thing they would speak out and clear their skirts of it at once, without waiting for poor officeholders to write to them to know whether they had better give their cash to Hubbell's Committee, or use it in paying their debts, or supporting their families. Hubbell has been carrying on his operations for three months. He has on several occasions during that period defended them with the utmost effrontery, to the great scandal and injury of the party. He is now, and has been for some time, circulating as a campaign document a thoroughly sophistical defence of these assessments, made in June last by Senator Eugene Hale. It would seem, therefore, as if much mischief might have been prevented if these denunciations of his methods had been uttered at an earlier period.

When Mr. Robeson made his last speech on the Navy in the House, he remarked that what he had been he still was, and what he was he should continue to be. He might have added that what he had got he still kept, and what he kept he did not mean to part with. He is, however, having some trouble in securing a renomination for Congress. Notwithstanding his having got through some appropriations for improving the creeks in his district, he is "developing a good deal of weakness" in some parts of his district, and it is doubtful whether he will control the Convention. Public opinion seems to count for very little in the contest. Mr. Robeson evidently cares nothing about it so long as he can get the primaries; but if he does secure a renomination, the stories about his use of money now so rife will make his election far from certain. What a piece of luck it would be for his party if he were kept at home! His performances in Washington furnish so many valuable arguments to the Democrats that they, instead of trying to defeat him, ought to long for his election.

"One of the younger members of the Tariff Commission" has written a letter containing "the bottom facts about the Commission," which is interesting, but not news. He says that the manufacturers take no interest in the labors of the body, and do not give themselves the trouble to come before it. The reason of this is that they look on it as representing them, and therefore sure to take care of them. At Rochester and Indianapolis, he says, "the meeting was a farce," and at Buffalo, Detroit, and Cleveland only a few appeared. At Cincinnati matters were no better, and the writer begs that enough manufacturers may be got to come before them at Chicago to prevent the whole thing becoming the laughing-stock of the country. The Commission, if it can get nothing else, wants "the moral support of their [the manufacturers'] faces and presence at its meetings." Part of this explanation of the indifference of the manufacturers is sound. They do stay away because they think the Commission was intended to hold them harmless, and in this they are right. But they also stay away for the very good reason that they do not wish to be examined. They are quite satisfied with the tariff as it is, not because they would not like it higher, but because they know that if any change is made it will be in the direction of reduction, and that if they gave the Commission any account of their business whatever, it would be evidence in favor of reduction. Expecting them to go before the Commission voluntarily, therefore, and tell all they know, or expose themselves to being asked questions, is very like expecting a man who is doing a good business to publish the state of his affairs and the secret of his success for the benefit of jealous rivals. If the Commission were composed of freetraders or had a free-trade Congress behind it, doubtless the manufacturers would attend diligently and defend themselves; for men only defend themselves when they are attacked. Shrewd men only talk about their affairs when there is something to be gained by it.

They have another motive for silence in the fact that they find the managers of the Republican party assuming for the party, in all their utterances, that the voters are satisfied with the tariff as it is. Hubbell's Committee, as we mentioned last week, is issuing campaign documents, nearly half of which are defences of the tariff as it is and as it has been. He has nothing to say about revision or emendation. The documents all assume that the Republican party is not simply for protection to native industry, but for protection in the form and degree in which it has been afforded during the last twenty years. It is, therefore, much simpler and safer to support the Republican party, and "all that the name implies," than to go before the Commission to tell everybody what one's profits are and how he makes them. In supporting the Republican party half-a-dozen reasons can be given besides love of high duties. Moreover, manufacturers have much reason to feel encouraged by the success of the River and Harbor Improvement Bill. They know very well that such men as Messrs. Hoar and Crapo in Massachusetts would never have supported so outrageous a measure except under the influ-

ence of protectionist feeling. No man can believe in the present tariff without having his judgment warped or clouded about the whole question of public expenditure. He cannot remain economically-minded, no matter how high or pure his principles may be, if he thinks such a mode of promoting native industry as our present duties necessary or beneficial. He must consciously or unconsciously become friendly to lavish outlay, and disinclined to inquire too closely into demands on the Treasury.

Mr. Matthew Arnold had, a year or two since, a little magazine discussion with Mr. Conant, on the subject of copyright, in the course of which many arguments in favor of the right to steal foreign books were produced and examined. Mr. Conant urged, among other things, that the foreign author ought to make allowances for the Pirate, who had to make books cheap in order to help diminish the floods of ignorance poured into this country from abroad. Here, he said, you are sending over to us millions and millions of degraded and uneducated countrymen of yours, and imposing upon us the burden of educating and civilizing them, and then you abuse us for stealing your books for the purpose of accomplishing this very task. We beg now to call Mr. Arnold's attention to Mr. Munro, the New Pirate, for whom Mr. Conant never had a word to say. The Old Pirate may have made this country attractive to the class of population which Mr. Arnold's needed to get rid of, but nothing he ever did for it compares with what Mr. Munro is doing every day. Since the invention of the printing-press there has been nothing like Munro in the world. He has made the supply of books like that of air or water. He has not confined himself, we believe, to any one class of literature, but, like Bacon, has taken "all knowledge" as his province. Whether he, too, has pirated Mr. Arnold we do not know; but there is no doubt that he would if he thought that his books would do good here.

The *Sun* accuses us of gross injustice to Mr. Munro and other publishers of cheap reprints in calling them Pirates, and says that the people to assail are "the men who are preventing an international copyright which will protect the rights of the English author," or, in other words, "the English publishers." This is unfair. We called Mr. Munro a Pirate, not as a term of abuse, but for the purpose of giving him the highest praise. The term may be technically incorrect, and has unpleasant historical associations, but it is in common use to designate one who makes books cheap to the public at the expense of the author. Mr. Munro's life has recently been published, and this, it appears, is the business in which he is engaged. If we were to call him the Benefactor, or the Well-Doer, this would not be understood. We have been using the term in a good sense, and have shown that the New Pirate is doing a much finer work than the Old, because he really does what the old Pirate only pretended to do. Just now he is very unjustly assailed by all the class interests connected with literature, by the publishers and authors of Great Britain, Canada, and the United States. It may be that the British publishers are at the bottom of the trouble, and that they are trying to divert attention from themselves by denouncing the Pirate; but however this may be, we shall continue to defend him, and we have no doubt that if he keeps steadily at his work, the public confidence in him will be fully justified. The selfish greed of the British publisher, and his determination to get all of the business he can, are so notorious that we strongly advise the *Sun* not to waste its time in exposing him.

Mr. Blaine's New York organ thinks it "indecent and brutal" to doubt the sincerity of his talk about civil-service reform. It may be, but it would be almost silly to believe in it. He has practised civil-service abuses all his life, and risen by means of them in his management of State politics, through a period of over twenty years, and has never, during the whole of that period, uttered a word to indicate that he did not consider the spoils system a good one, while sneering much, both publicly and privately, at everybody who protested against it. When he came into office as a member of the Administration, far from giving his mind to reform, he plunged into spoils, and wallowed in them for three months, like a rhinoceros in an African pool, using every office he could lay hands on for the reward of his henchmen and hangers-on, without shame or scruple. He comes to the surface now in his adversity, and tells reformers that he believes in reform, but is overwhelmed by the difficulties of the subject. This is good as far as it goes, but he must remember that confidence is a plant of slow growth, and he must not feel hurt if some are silent and others laugh when he expresses a love of a stable tenure and appointment for merit. It is becoming the fashion now for old and hardened spoilsmen to talk reform, and say they desire it even more than the reformers, and have a plan of their own, which is always something different from the reformers' plan, and because different is sure to be something eminently practical. But this has gone on long enough. The reformers are not particular about plans. What they ask of Mr. Blaine and his kind is to prove their reforming sincerity by supporting *some* plan. Of course all plans are difficult of execution. All reforms, since the beginning of the world, have been surrounded by difficulties; but it is the business of statesmen to meet the difficulties, and not keep on walking round them, and whining, and telling everybody what a tough job it is going to be, and asking for more time for reflection. One may have patience with a toper who topes, and says frankly that he does so because he likes it; but a toper who topes, and says that at heart he is a temperance man, and only keeps on toping because he sees so clearly the difficulties of abstinence, or even moderation, is a sorry wag.

It is suggested by the New York *Times* that Mr. Frank Hurd, of the Toledo (Ohio) district, is a better representative of enlightened opinion on the subject of revenue reform than his Republican opponent in the Congressional contest in that quarter, and that there is no national exigency which should restrain Republicans who favor revenue reform from giving him their support. It may be added that Mr. Hurd is one of the few Democrats who have made an aggressive and consistent fight against the iniquities of the existing tariff, and that he has been singled out for punishment by the protectionists accordingly. He is entitled, by virtue of his earnest and effective support of tariff reform, to the votes of those Republicans whose views coincide with his own on this subject. It cannot be said that the rights of any human being, white or colored, will be put in jeopardy by his election, while it may be said truthfully that the right of American citizens of all shades of complexion to enjoy and dispose of their own earnings will be advanced by the return to Congress of so outspoken an advocate of freedom of trade.

The investigation of the trouble at Union College, between Dr. Potter, the President, and the Faculty, has been brought to an abrupt termination by the technical dismissal of the charges against him by the Trustees, for the purpose of enabling the Board to pass on the general question of his fitness for the Presidency. This action was taken unanimously. A resolution requesting his resignation was then passed by a vote of 9 to 8. The charges, if we may judge from the synopsis communicated to the press, were all frivolous in the extreme. If Dr. Potter had pleaded guilty to every one of them, it could hardly have affected his character in the smallest degree. They in fact suggested a boarding-school girls' quarrel rather than a conflict between the professors of a college and its chief officer. But then the mere fact that the Faculty were not ashamed to come forward with such accusations and urge them with pertinacity, is probably sufficient justification for the conclusion reached by the majority of the Trustees, that the interests of the College will be best served by Dr. Potter's withdrawal. Inability to get on with his subordinates, for whatever reason, is always good cause for the abdication of a man in power, however estimable or able or blameless he may be. The usefulness of the head of an institution is, in fact, often destroyed without any definable fault or shortcoming whatever on his side. That subtle force called incompatibility of temper is as fatal to the good management of a college or church as to the discipline of a ship or regiment, or the success of a marriage. When it shows itself, there is nothing for it but separation, and the time spent in investigating the charges and counter-charges which grow out of it is simply time wasted. They are almost always trumpery. About the indebtedness of Union College in all sorts of ways to Dr. Potter, there seems to be no question. He found it in almost a moribund condition, and he has placed it in a condition which may be called not only secure, but flourishing. That he has been unable to secure the support of the Faculty, therefore, is a misfortune for the institution as well as for himself.

Mr. Wm. E. Robinson, of Brooklyn, has been interviewed by a reporter on the condition of society and politics in Washington, and he gives a most alarming picture of the state of affairs. He found, he says, that "English ideas have poisoned our democratic republican system. All kinds of aristocratic snobbery are in vigorous growth. There is caste seen in the society of the employees of the Government. The Army and Navy and civil pension lists are menacing our institutions. Salaries have been enormously increased, and extravagance of every kind is running riot. There is a supercilious and impudent aristocracy, whose hands are in the public treasury up to their elbows. The balls, and dinners, and parties, the show of employees with liveried servants, and the disgusting snobbery of would-be monarchists are domineering all circles of society. The giddy heads of silly girls are crazy for something like court style and aristocratic etiquette." This accounts, of course, for the manner in which the Administration has allowed American citizens to be thrown into dungeons by the British. Mr. Robinson is an old observer, having been in Washington in "former times," so that it will not do for our contemporaries to pooh-pooh what he says, as if he were in the habit of making hasty or reckless statements.

The *Tribune* calls upon the women of America, who "saved Mount Vernon," to unite in a movement to save Niagara and keep it free from the vulgar desecration from which it is now suffering. It says: "If neither Congress nor the State of New York will move in the matter, why do not the women of America?" There is a fundamental difference between the case of Mount Vernon and that of Niagara which the *Tribune* seems to have overlooked. The interest in Mount Vernon is due to historical, political, and patriotic causes, and was widespread. The amount of money, too, required was very small. But the work of saving a waterfall from desecration involves an appeal to the love of the beautiful—a sentiment much less strong in the United States than some other sentiments. Governor Cornell probably fairly represents the feeling of the average American man as to Niagara, and his observation on hearing of the movement for an international park was an inquiry as to whether the defeat of the scheme would prevent the water from coming over the falls. There is no doubt, however, that for the American woman the beautiful possesses a deeper interest than for the American man, and if she can be roused to do something for Niagara, there is no telling what she may accomplish. A good deal has been made of the violent opposition of the hackmen, guides, and other waterfall parasites who now make money out of the *laissez-faire* system prevailing at Niagara. But this has been a good deal overestimated. It is indifference which is at the root of the trouble.

Although the Treasury began early in the week the prepayment of the $16,000,000 of called bonds due on the 13th instant, the reserve of the New York banks was nevertheless further reduced $1,726,250, and lacked nearly $2,000,000 of the 25 per cent. required by law of the national banks. The Treasury prepayment lowered the rates for loans for a few days, but the rate is now fairly 6 per cent. for demand loans and discounts. The rates for foreign exchange declined on account of the more liberal supply of commercial bills. The European money markets have tended toward higher rates. At the Stock Exchange it was a week of advancing prices. United States bonds advanced ½@1⅛ per cent., partly on a report that the Treasury intend buying bonds for the sinking fund instead of calling bonds for redemption. Railroad stocks advanced on the increasing tonnage of the roads, and the prospect of a large winter business at profitable rates. The crops of cereals are turning out much better than was expected, both in this country and in Europe, and the result is a heavy decline in all descriptions of breadstuffs. General trade is large in volume, and in other respects satisfactory.

A sensation has been produced in Austria-Hungary by the discovery at Kalinovitch, in Herzegovina, of authentic documents throwing an unexpected light on the Herzegovinian insurrection. The papers, which were left behind by fugitive insurgents, prove beyond a doubt that the intellectual leaders of the insurrection are not only to be sought, as was always supposed, in the camp of the Servian "Committee of Action" at Belgrade, and the Slavic branch committee at Moscow, but also in the immediate circle of Prince Nikita of Montenegro. It appears that the chief dignitaries of the principality have been acting the part of conspirators against Austria. Thus, the son of an influential Senator, who was sent, at the request of the Austrian Colonel Thömmel, to remonstrate with the insurgents who had sought refuge in Montenegro, really improved the opportunity to fan the spirit of rebellion among them. The documents contain detailed accounts of the insurgent forces and their positions, and while not implicating the Prince himself, point clearly to the active coöperation of his nearest relatives in the plot against Austria. Popular feeling in the empire loudly calls for active steps against Montenegro, whose ruler, until now *persona grata* at the Court of Vienna, immediately after the discovery hastened to that city to explain matters. However, the dogma that a quarrel with Montenegro means war with Russia will most likely be as sacredly respected by Count Kálnoky as it was by his predecessor, Baron Haymerle.

A story arrived on Thursday that there is a secret treaty between Turkey and Great Britain regarding the disposition of Egypt after the war. The *Sun* says it is "awaiting with not a little curiosity authentic information on this head." We would not, however, were we in our esteemed contemporary's place, wait very long, because we doubt if the authentic information will ever come. There is nothing in the whole Eastern question so unlikely as any such treaty. Turkey cannot dispose of Egypt. Her consent to England's taking it would be worth no more than her consent to the seizure of the Canal, and the Gladstone Ministry is bound by every consideration of expediency, as well as of honor, to deal with Egypt under the European concert, and to avoid secret agreements. Anybody, therefore, who has any curiosity to spare, would do well to expend it on some other topic.

The capture of Tel-el-Kebir on Wednesday by a simple rush, and the flight of Arabi's army almost without resistance, in utter disorder, is what everything that was known of the Egyptian troops and of Arabi himself fairly justified us in expecting. The fanatical Arabs, who were to die at their posts for Mohammed and Egypt, the immense host—about 150,000 strong—of well-drilled soldiers, commanded by accomplished young officers from the Military School in Cairo, which was to be divided in a suitable manner and hurled on Wolseley's flanks, the False Prophet who was to come down from the Sudan with half the Mussulman world at his back and bury the British under another wave of religious fervor, were, as we now see, creatures of the imagination. There are no such Egyptians and no such Arabi as various accomplished publicists and tourists and retired soldiers have been telling the reporters about for some weeks. Moreover, Sami Pasha, who is a sensible man, probably gave the *Herald* correspondent the other day in Paris a very correct account of the False Prophet, when he said his following probably consisted mainly of dervishes and beggars, armed, he might have added, with big sticks and bags for cold victuals. In fact, the Arabi movement has been from the beginning an immense imposture, favored by undoubted griefs on the part of the Egyptians. It was a monstrous and oppressive thing for the late Khedive to borrow and spend money as he did. It was, if not monstrous, very injudicious for the French and English, when they deposed him, to step in and take charge of the Egyptian finances, even ostensibly for the benefit of the bondholders. If anything can justify foreign interference with the financial administration of a country, it is the welfare of the taxpayer, not the interest of the public creditor. Interference of this sort was even more inexcusable in the case of a despotically-governed country than of one whose money affairs were in any degree under the control of a representative assembly. It was aggravated, as far as regards its effect on the Egyptian mind, by the displacement of large numbers of native employees to make way for foreigners. No worse injury could, in fact, be inflicted on a people in the condition of the Egyptians than the association, in their eyes, of financial reform with foreign meddling and office-hunting. The remedy for all this was not, however, a military mutiny. In no country in the world has a soldier's successful revolt ended in anything but disorder and corruption, and in Oriental countries this result is surer than elsewhere. To expect a Mussulman colonel, who has got up a revolt among the troops against his sovereign, to turn out what Christians call a patriot and a reformer, is to expect an improbability of the wildest kind. Nothing of the sort has ever been seen, and probably nothing of the kind will ever be seen.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, Sept. 6, to TUESDAY, Sept. 12, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

As the Star-route trial drew to a close, great interest was manifested in the proceedings at Washington. On Wednesday morning, when Colonel Ingersoll concluded the closing argument for the defence, the court-room was crowded. He summed up the case with considerable power, making a searching analysis of Walsh's testimony. He then dwelt upon the personal issues involved, in a manner to excite the sympathies of his audience. The speech was considered the most persuasive made by the defence. Attorney-General Brewster began his argument, the last for the prosecution, on Wednesday afternoon. He made an effective legal argument as to the difficulty of proving a conspiracy by positive and direct testimony. He concluded his speech at noon on Thursday. The counsel for the defence next presented the points which they wished Judge Wylie to charge. Judge Wylie then made the startling announcement that members of the jury had been approached in the most disgraceful way in attempts to bribe them. He had first heard of it about a week before, and had then advised the jurymen to say nothing about it, as he did not wish to stop the progress of the case. Within the past twenty-four hours, he said, he had heard of one attempt more villanous than the others. He therefore advised the jury to turn from such men with scorn. He wished to warn these men that they were not to commit such outrages without punishment. After the trial perhaps an investigation would follow. All the counsel for the defence then arose and demanded an immediate investigation. Foreman Dickson of the jury said that when the cases were disposed of he would lay all the information in his possession, in regard to the attempted bribery, before the Court. Judge Wylie announced that in his charge he did not intend to traverse the case from beginning to end, and then the court was adjourned for the day. On Friday morning he delivered his charge to the jury. It was unprejudiced and judicially fair, but the weight of it was against the defence. He took a few specimen routes and showed how extravagant and unnecessary the expedition had been. The law points raised by the defence were generally dismissed as untenable. In closing he warned the jury not to be influenced either for or against the defendants by the attempted bribery. At a few minutes before 3 o'clock the case was given to the jury. About 6 o'clock they came into court and announced that they had agreed only as to one defendant. The Court sent them out again. On Saturday morning at 10 o'clock they came before the Judge again and asked for further instructions. Judge Wylie's answers were very explicit, and were strong against the defence. They were again dismissed until 2 o'clock, at which hour, not being ready to report, a further recess was taken until 6 o'clock. They then appeared, and the foreman reported that the jury had come to an agreement as to some of the defendants named in the case, not as to others. The Court said that he was not ready to receive a partial verdict, and another adjournment was taken until 10 o'clock on Sunday. The jury at that hour announced through their foreman that they were no nearer an agreement than when their first report was announced. At 2 o'clock in the afternoon they sent word to the Court that they had nothing to report.

A verdict was finally presented to the Court on Monday. In the morning the foreman announced to Judge Wylie: "We report that the jury stand the same as they did when the report was made on Saturday last—decided as to four of the defendants and not able to agree as to the others." The Court would not then accept a partial verdict, but when a similar report was made in the afternoon, he admitted it. The jury then rendered a verdict of acquittal as to Peck and Turner, of guilty as to Miner and Rerdell, and as to the others they were unable to agree. On objection by Mr. Merrick that Peck had not been arraigned, being dead, his name was withdrawn from the verdict. After an angry passage between Messrs. Ingersoll and Merrick, and an earnest request on both sides to probe the alleged attempt at bribery to the bottom, the Court adjourned until Wednesday morning at 10 o'clock, when arguments on the motion in arrest of judgment will be heard. The vote on the final ballot, as to those against whom no verdict was rendered, stood as follows: Brady, conviction 10, acquittal 2; S. W. Dorsey, conviction 9, acquittal 3; J. W. Dorsey, conviction 10, acquittal 2; Vaile, conviction 11, acquittal 1. The verdict has occasioned a great deal of unfavorable comment, on account of the inconsistency of finding two of the lesser conspirators guilty and the principals not guilty. The Government will proceed immediately to summon its witnesses and try the parties in regard to whom there was a disagreement.

Foreman Dickson has made a general statement in regard to the charges of bribery. He alleges that on August 23 he was approached with an offer of $25,000, by an officer connected with the Department of Justice, if he would vote for the conviction of Brady and S. W. Dorsey. The man who approached him said that he represented the Attorney-General. Other jurors had been approached, but the sums offered were small.

Senator Hoar, of Massachusetts, has written a letter to an inquiring officeholder, in which he says: "I do not think any national officeholder need have the least fear of any unpleasant consequences to himself if he sees fit, in the free exercise of his own judgment, to refuse a favorable answer to the circular issued in the name of the Congressional Committee. When the first circular was issued the Secretary of the Treasury, by the direction and with the cordial approval of the President, caused a public statement to be made that every holder of office should feel as free to give his money or to refrain from giving it as he would in the case of any private object. Unfortunate as was the first circular, this second one is doubly so. What right has anybody who has once asked a freeman or a gentleman to contribute to a public object to inform him that he is 'surprised' by his refusal?"

Ex-Secretary Blaine, in a political speech at Winterport, Me., on Wednesday, said, in reference to civil-service reform, that he would be glad to see every Federal officer appointed for a specific period, during which he could not be removed except for cause, which should be proved and made a matter of record. He opposed a life tenure, but approved a term of seven years.

An election was held in Maine on Monday. It resulted in the election of Robie (Rep.) for Governor, by a plurality of more than 6,000 votes. The four Republican Congressional candidates, who were voted for on a general ticket, were all elected by about the same plurality. The State Legislature is strongly Republican, assuring the reëlection of Senator Frye to the United States Senate.

In the New York State campaign there have been no startling developments during the week. A large number of delegates to the State Republican Convention have been elected. On Saturday they were divided as follows: Cornell 57, Folger 43, Wadsworth 21, Wood 13, doubtful 5. An estimate of Governor Cornell's probable strength at the Convention is a total of 133 votes; 249 are necessary to a choice. Conkling's faction met with a severe defeat in the First Utica District on Friday by the election of four Anti-Stalwart delegates, headed by the late postmaster of Utica, whom President Arthur removed at Conkling's dictation.

A State Convention has been called by a committee, representing various temperance organizations in this State, to meet at Syracuse, October 4, to take steps to secure the submission to a popular vote of a prohibition amendment to the State Constitution.

A Workingmen's State Convention met on Tuesday at Buffalo, N. Y. It is probable it will join with the Anti-Monopolists in making nominations for the State ticket.

Samuel W. Hale was nominated for Governor, on Tuesday, by the New Hampshire Republican State Convention.

J. W. Adams has been nominated by the Democrats of Nevada for Governor.

On Thursday the Democrats of Illinois nominated Alfred Orendorff for State Treasurer, and adopted a platform favoring civil-service reform and condemning political assessments. It was anti-prohibition in its sentiments.

The State Central Committees of the two wings of the Republican party in Georgia held a meeting on Wednesday and agreed upon a common State ticket. This will greatly strengthen the opposition to Mr. Stephens in Georgia.

An important political meeting was held at Philadelphia on Friday. It was attended by leading Stalwarts and Independents, and was for the purpose of effecting a compromise between the wings of the Republican party in that State. No result of the conference has been announced. Another meeting was held on Monday.

The Philadelphia *Times* publishes, over the signature of its editor, a letter to T. P. O'Malley, Secretary of the Central Branch Land League, accusing John C. Delaney, State Librarian, of bargaining to sell the Land League vote of Pennsylvania to Cameron and the Stalwarts. One of the conditions for 30,000 Irish votes was to be the removal of James Russell Lowell from the Court of St. James.

President Arthur arrived at Wood's Holl, Mass., in the steamer *Despatch*, on Wednesday morning. He visited Nantucket on Thursday, but steamed away in the evening, reaching Marblehead, Mass., on Friday morning at 7 o'clock. He there received several informal visits on board the *Despatch*. Saturday was spent at Portsmouth, N. H., and vicinity. On Sunday he was at Bar Harbor, Me. There was a naval drill of the North Atlantic Squadron on Tuesday morning, and in the evening he started on his return trip to New York.

The Marquis of Lorne and Princess Louise are making a journey through the United States from Niagara Falls to San Francisco.

The Tariff Commission held meetings in a number of cities during the week. On Wednesday a hearing was given in Louisville, Ky. During the latter part of the week meetings were held in Chicago.

A private letter written by one of the younger members of the Tariff Commission, said to be Mr. R. P. Porter, has been published, in which he admits that the manufacturers take no interest in the Commission, and that the meetings which have been held in various cities have been a good deal in the nature of a farce.

A circular has been secretly distributed by the Mormon priesthood in Utah, giving instructions to their people directly opposite to the law rulings of the Commissioners appointed by the President under the Edmunds law.

Reports from the corn sections of the West are much improved. Oats are yielding beyond previous estimates.

The yellow-fever epidemic is increasing at Pensacola, Fla. There is little change at Matamoras, Mexico, the deaths averaging four a day. In Brownsville, Texas, on Monday, there were fifty-seven new cases and one death.

In the trial of President Potter, of Union College, Schenectady, N. Y., the Trustees voted unanimously on Friday to dismiss the

charges made by the Faculty against him, without reflection upon the Faculty, in order that the Board might consider the fitness of Dr. Potter for the Presidency. They then, by a vote of 9 to 8, resolved "that this Board, under a conviction of the necessities of the college, respectfully requests the resignation of the President."

The second annual Fair of the New England Manufacturers' and Mechanics' Institute was formally opened on Wednesday evening in Boston. Mr. Edward Atkinson delivered the oration of the day.

An Industrial Exhibition was opened at Cincinnati on Wednesday with great ceremony.

FOREIGN.

The Egyptians in the neighborhood of Kasassin began to exhibit increased boldness on Wednesday. Infantry disguised as peasants frequently fired at the British vedettes. General Wolseley requested the presence of a naval brigade in the army at the front, in order that the Navy might share the honor of the advance. In compliance with the request, 100 blue-jackets, ten officers, and a battery of four Gatling guns left Port Saïd for Ismaïlia on Thursday. The British outposts at Ismaïlia were strongly reinforced on Wednesday, and drove the enemy back. On that day an English train of 300 mules was attacked by Bedouins, but they were repulsed by the escort. Mounted infantry made a spirited reconnoissance at Mandara on Thursday. On Friday it was reported in Alexandria that Arabi was ill with dysentery. A reconnoissance was made near Kasassin on Friday with the object of driving out the Egyptians reported to have occupied a village near there, and also of erecting a field telegraph line. The village was found deserted, but the enemy's earthworks were discovered not far distant. They soon appeared in great numbers, and a skirmish was kept up with activity for about half an hour. While the British were retiring the enemy pursued them with considerable vigor. In the meantime Arabi continued defensive preparations with great activity. All the troops from Cairo were brought to Tel-el-Kebir; also the black regiments, which are the best in the Egyptian army. Night and day they worked in the intrenchments across the fresh-water canal. On Friday it was reported that this canal had been cut above Tel-el-Kebir, thus flooding the low-lands to the south of that place.

Early on Saturday morning, scouts and the Royal Lancers came into the British camp at Kasassin with the report that the enemy were approaching in great force. The British army was at once put in motion, and by 7 o'clock a lively artillery duel had begun. Arabi's troops of all arms, to the number of 13,000, with twelve guns, were spread over the long ridge in front of the British position. Their artillery fire was very active. The British replied with a forty-pounder, Krupp guns, and horse artillery. General Willis then slowly advanced with the infantry, and by noon the enemy had been driven to their works, from which they kept up the cannonading at 5,000 yards range. Five guns and many prisoners were captured by the British. Their loss was roughly estimated at 100 killed and wounded. General Wolseley, who arrived at the front soon after the battle began, reported that a very effective reconnoissance of the enemy's position was made during the engagement.

General Wolseley left the camp on Tuesday morning to make a final reconnoissance and prepare for the attack. The bulk of the English forces were in camp at Kasassin on Tuesday, and the army was ready to move. The march to the front was begun about midnight.

A fire broke out in Alexandria on Wednesday morning in the Rue Sherif Pasha. Several arrests were made for the offence. Antono Paulo, the Greek who was arrested on suspicion of being connected with an anti-European plot, was sent to Greece. The Egyptian Council of Ministers has considered the question of indemnifying inhabitants of Alexandria for losses sustained by incendiarism or pillage. They have proposed to the Powers to appoint an International Commission to settle the claims. The Nile has risen very high. On Wednesday it was reported that part of the enemy's position at Kafr-el-Dwar was flooded. The murderer of the Englishmen, Dobson and Richardson, was hanged at Alexandria, on Thursday morning, by the native police. A correspondent at Alexandria, from a most reliable source, reports the exact strength of Arabi's army as follows: Infantry, 44,000; cavalry, 18,000; Bedouins, 30,500; guns, 143; rocket tubes, 18. A large body of Bedouins approached Meks on Saturday morning and were shelled by the English. A few of them succeeded in entering, but were dislodged at the point of the bayonet. The British shelled the Bedouin intrenchments south of Meks during the whole afternoon.

The Rothschilds have presented to the British army in Egypt twelve tons of tobacco and 5,000 pipes, which the Khedive has allowed to enter duty free. A prominent financier has estimated that Egypt will lose about $350,000,000 by the war. The cotton crop, which is entirely lost, would have been worth about $200,000,000.

After a conference of three hours between Lord Dufferin and Saïd Pasha, at Constantinople, on Wednesday, the Anglo-Turkish military convention was informally signed. The proclamation of the Sultan against Arabi significantly states that his designs justify his "being described as a rebel." Lord Dufferin is dissatisfied because it does not expressly proclaim him a rebel. The formal signing of the convention will not take place until Lord Dufferin has received final instructions from England. Clause ten, which names Port Saïd as the point of disembarkation for the Turkish troops, has been reserved *ad referendum*. The difficulty in regard to the final signing hinges upon the question whether the Turkish troops, having arrived at Port Saïd, will be allowed to disembark or be required to await instructions from General Wolseley. The proclamation against Arabi has produced considerable agitation among the Arabs. It is reported that Arabi has expelled all Turks and Circassians from his camp.

A grand council was summoned in Constantinople on Monday to deliberate upon the relations of Turkey and England. It decided that the military convention must clearly indicate the landing-place of the Turkish troops in Egypt.

Two vague and unauthenticated rumors were set afloat on Thursday. One originated in Paris and was to the effect that England, with the assent of Russia, had signed a secret treaty with Turkey relative to the ultimate organization of Egypt. The other was spread in Alexandria, and alleged that the Sultan had offered Egypt to England two months ago, on the same conditions on which she took Cyprus, and that England had declined.

It is asserted that the British Government have decided to fortify Aden immediately, at the entrance to the Red Sea. A number of heavy guns will be sent there.

An armistice has been concluded between the Greeks and the Turks on the Thessalian frontier, based on the *status quo ante*. The Turks propose to compromise by ceding three of the disputed places on the frontier to Greece, if the latter will cede to Turkey the remaining two. Greece opposes this concession, and will mobilize an army if the negotiations fail.

Germany has advised the Porte to use moderation in dealing with the Greek frontier question. The differences are still unarranged.

There is a bitter feeling between the border populations of Albania and Montenegro. On Thursday a large party of Albanians collected on the frontier, and hostilities were only prevented by the moderation of the Montenegrins.

All of the dismissed Dublin constables were summoned to the Castle on Wednesday, and separately questioned as to whether they had been present at any meetings, and then informed that their cases would be considered. On Thursday 208 of the 225 dismissed constables were granted free pardon by Earl Spencer, and reinstated. On the same day a number of suspects were released.

Mr. Clifford Lloyd made a conciliatory speech at Loughrea, Ireland, on Thursday.

Francis Hynes, whose conviction for murder in Limerick, Ireland, was the cause of the recent charges of drunkenness against a jury, and the following complication which led to the arrest and imprisonment of E. Dwyer Gray, was executed in Limerick on Monday. There was no disturbance.

Mr. Stephen J. Meany, the American newspaper correspondent recently arrested at Ennis, Ireland, has given notice to the resident magistrate that he surrenders his recognizances to keep the peace, entered into on August 11. He says: "I cannot, as an American citizen, carry the stigma of a British bondsman, and, unaccused and unconvicted of offences, continue the confession of lawlessness that a continuance of the bonds would involve." The authorities in Washington deny that Mr. Meany has been instructed by them, as alleged.

Earl Grey died in England on Sunday, at the age of eighty. His father was Premier in 1830-34, during which time the son acted as Under-Secretary for the Colonies. He subsequently held for a short time the position of Under-Secretary for Home Affairs, and in 1835 became Secretary at War in the Melbourne Ministry. In Lord Russell's Ministry of 1846 Earl Grey was Secretary of State for the Colonies. Earl Grey was the author of a work called 'The Colonial Policy of Lord Russell's Administration,' in 1853, and of an essay on 'Parliamentary Government as to Reform.'

The health of the Archbishop of Canterbury, England, has greatly improved.

Madame Elise Van Koerber's plan for the international protection of female emigration has attracted attention in Liverpool and in other large cities. The Duke of Manchester, Lord William Seymour, and other prominent men are supporters of the project.

M. Duclerc, the French Prime Minister, in a recent conversation, declared that France needed no alliances, and that her aim was peace.

The strained relations between France and Italy have been aggravated during the week by the sentence passed by a French council of war in Tunis on an Italian, condemning him to a year's imprisonment for attacking a French soldier.

An engagement is reported to have occurred at Kairwan, Tunis, in which the French lost fifty killed, and the Arabs 150.

Two French officers of high rank were arrested in Berlin on Thursday while engaged in making sketches of the ground where cavalry manœuvres were being conducted.

It is reported that the difficulty between Japan and Corea has been arranged by Corea agreeing to pay $2,500,000 to Japan as compensation, and $250,000 to the relatives of murdered Japanese subjects. The difficulties between China and Japan, relative to Corea, have also been adjusted. A later report asserts that the Chinese intervened boldly, seized the father of the King, who led the insurrection, took him to China, and reinstated the King, protecting him with Chinese troops and ships.

At 3:24 o'clock on Thursday morning, there occurred at Panama one of the severest earthquakes ever known on the Isthmus. The Cathedral and many of the largest buildings in Panama were injured. The loss is estimated at several hundred thousand dollars. Several lives were lost in Aspinwall.

MR. BLAINE AS A REFORMER.

MR. BLAINE has at last given his views on civil-service reform in one of his speeches in Maine. We believe this is the first time he has taken the subject up. In all canvasses hitherto the only Federal topics he has touched upon have been the dangerous condition of the South (which he has now entirely abandoned), the finances, and protection to native industry. He now says that—

"he should be glad to see every Federal officer, however honorable his position, appointed for a specific period, during which he could not be removed except for cause, which cause should be specified, proved, and made a matter of record. He should be glad to see the tenure of all subordinate officers made longer at least than a Presidential term, so that the incoming of a new Administration would not be crippled or injured. Seven years would be a good length for a term, and would effect the desired end. He did not believe that a life tenure would be wise even if practicable, and was sure it was not practicable because it means pensions in the end, and might create a 'privileged class'; nor was he sure that life tenure insures the best, most faithful, and most honorable service, but believed a man would be a better officer if his mission should expire at stated periods, and his reappointment depend upon his efficiency. It will prove a far easier task to educate public opinion to the renewal of appointments to efficient and valuable officers, with sufficient salary to enable them to lay by something for a rainy day, than it will to get popular consent to life tenures with pensions, to a large civil list, constantly growing in number and constantly provoking opposition in the popular mind. This system belongs with royalty, and he did not believe that it can be domesticated in this Republic, and that those who agitate it will ever reach a practical result."

This is important as coming from a politician who has hitherto professed to consider the reform a somewhat ridiculous subject, and who, when he came into office last year under Garfield, at once began to commit and advise every variety of civil-service abuse. That his speech proves that his opinions on the subject have undergone any change, we do not believe; but it does prove that he thinks other people's opinions have. His own mind is, with regard to nearly all political subjects, very like the sheet on which lecturers throw illustrative views from the camera. It is ready to take and exhibit anything the audience is likely to find entertaining. So that though his utterances may not have much value as opinions, as testimony they have a good deal. They show that he, who is a very competent observer of the current of popular feeling, believes that there is a growing popular hostility to the use of the officers of the Government as the electioneering agents of the party in power, and that something is to be gained by a politician who advocates stability of tenure.

His plan of reform is to appoint all officers for a term, say, of seven years, which would have the effect of relieving them of anxiety about the Presidential election, and would relieve the incoming President from the pressure of officeseekers, which now takes up most of his time during the earlier months of his administration. During this term of seven years Mr. Blaine would allow no officer to be removed except for cause, to be specified, proved, and recorded. He is, however, unalterably opposed to tenure for life, as monarchical and leading inevitably to a system of pensions, which is monarchical too, and might create "a privileged class." For this change he thinks the popular mind might be readily prepared.

We believe a considerable number of leading politicians have now reached Mr. Blaine's position—that is, they have given up sneering, and declare themselves in favor of some reform. They are ready, for instance, for a short fixed term—President Arthur says four years, Mr. Blaine says seven. The trouble is, however, that they are never ready to legislate to this effect, and never ready when power is in their hands to practise in this direction. The reformers, we believe, will be glad of *any* step toward reform: a four-years' tenure if they cannot have seven; a seven-years' tenure if they cannot have tenure during good behavior. They will be glad if, even without any legislation at all, the President will refuse to remove officers except for cause, and Senators and Representatives will cease to quarter their personal followers on the public service as rewards for personal services. What they seek from politicians is, in short, *action* of some kind, and not incessant talk about monarchy, and aristocracy, and privileged classes, "visionaries" and "idealists." Let us have the four-years' term or the seven-years' term, and the irremovability except for cause, without humbug or evasion, and we will see how it works. If it works well, there will be an end of the matter; if it works ill, it will have to be changed. But do let us have an end of theorizing.

Mr. Blaine's horror of pensions, "as belonging to royalty," is rather diverting, considering the plunge into pensions without the slightest excuse made by Congress in 1879. One may search in vain the records of the most corrupt monarchies of ancient or modern times for a measure like the Arrears of Pensions Act. Corrupt monarchs used to give pensions to a few favorites whom they knew and liked, and to politicians who had done them definite service, but we have actually thrown the Treasury open to all the swindlers and perjurers in the country, and invited every scoundrel who wants a little money and does not mind shamming and false swearing to come in and get an annuity from the Government. It is possible that a community which can stand this spectacle could not bear seeing a few worn-out civil-service employees drawing small salaries during the closing years of their life, but it is not probable. It is also possible that they could bear it very well, and some day wonder what anybody could ever have found in it to object to.

"CORNERS" IN GRAIN.

THE subject of "corners" in the grain market is attracting more than the usual amount of attention just now, by reason of the bitter controversy going on at Chicago over the "July wheat deal," a phrase applied comprehensively to a series of transactions on the Chicago Board of Trade, in the course of which the firm of Armour & Kershaw bought up all the No. 2 spring wheat in the market, and in addition thereto bought a large number of July "options," which the sellers were not able to fill because Armour & Kershaw held all the grain of that grade within reach. In other words, Armour & Kershaw cornered the market, contrary to an express statute of the State of Illinois, and when business opened on the 1st day of August invited the "shorts" to come up and settle. The shorts declined the invitation, and appealed to the Arbitration Committee of the Board of Trade. The Committee decided that $1 35 per bushel was a fair price to be paid by those who did not or could not fill their contracts. Some of the shorts settled at this price; others refused to pay more than $1 30, and, lest the Board should expel them for infraction of the rules, applied to the courts for protection. A temporary injunction was granted; and so the matter stands, with the chance of somewhat protracted litigation. If the injunction is made permanent—as is not unlikely, seeing that the case is before Judge Jameson, whose denunciation of "corners" in a former case still rings in our ears—the Board of Trade will be compelled to appeal, seeing that the interference of the Court will virtually put an end to all discipline and destroy every bond which holds the body together.

We have said that a statute of the State of Illinois prohibits "corners" in the grain market. It does more: it makes the act of cornering, or attempting to corner, a criminal offence, punishable by fine and imprisonment, and declares all "options" to be gambling contracts and void. The theory upon which the law proceeds is evidently the same as that upon which the old English statutes against forestalling and regrating were based. The idea is that without some statute of this kind a few persons may possess themselves of all the food in the market, and advance the price to any point they please; in other words, produce a famine in the midst of plenty. Yet there is a material difference between the ancient law against forestalling and the modern law against option contracts. The former was directed specifically against an act deemed dangerous to the community—the act of monopolizing the food supply of the country. The latter is an attempted interference between two sets of "gamblers" in favor of one of them. The man who agrees to sell a certain quantity of wheat next month at a certain price, expecting to buy it meanwhile at a lower price, is not *prima facie* entitled to more consideration at the hands of law makers and judges than the man who agrees to buy it expecting that it will command a higher price. Neither of them, unless he is a miller, needs more wheat than will suffice for his daily bread. What he buys or sells above this is, in one sense, in the nature of gambling; but why one of them should be preferred to the other, and why a grain-producing and grain-selling State should give its preference to the one whose gambling is in the direction of lower prices for grain, it is not easy to see.

But, it is alleged, cornering the market is not fair play. This raises the question whether the sovereign power has any interest in fixing a limit to the losses of one set of gamesters, who are presumed to act with their eyes open, and, if so, whether the resulting advantage is sufficient to offset the harm which flows from interference with private contracts which are not necessarily hurtful to the community. If the short seller keeps down the price of grain

to the consumer, the cornerer puts up the price for the producer. The effects of their action upon prices are very much exaggerated in popular estimation, as was shown by Mr. W. F. Ford, the editor of *Bradstreet's Journal*, in his statement to the Senate Investigating Committee of this State a few months ago. Mr. Ford presented a table showing the fluctuations in the prices of cash wheat for fifteen years—that is to say, during a number of years before and a number of years since the practice of trading in options came in vogue to any considerable extent. No difference could be found between the two periods as regards the scale of fluctuations. Unless such difference can be shown, it cannot be argued that the community at large has suffered from option trading or from corners. When a corner is operated successfully the immediate gains of the cornerers and the losses of the cornered impress the popular imagination, and produce a feeling that something ought to be done for the "victims." This is the part which is seen. What is not seen is the fact that the cornering party have loaded themselves with an immense quantity of grain at extravagantly high prices, which they must sell at a loss. The price of regular spring wheat in Chicago on the 31st of July was $1.34@1.36. On the 1st of August the same wheat was quoted at 96@98c. It is always a matter of doubt whether the cornering party can get back from the shorts and the public together as much money as they have already paid to the public for their holdings.

That corners are, on the whole, injurious to trade may be readily admitted. But it is not by any means clear that they are more hurtful than arbitrary proceedings, under color of law, to set aside private contracts. It appears to us that the commercial bodies under whose rules the trading takes place are the proper and only safe tribunals to deal with them, and that however much the legislative authority may seek to interfere, the final and real decision must be made by those bodies. The interests of trade are their only interests, and they are bound by the very law of their existence to reach conclusions which will stand the tests of time.

A CURE FOR REPUDIATION.

THE case of The State of New York *vs.* The State of Louisiana, now pending in the Supreme Court at Washington, is as important as any which has ever come before that tribunal for consideration since its establishment.

The plaintiff sues the defendant on repudiated State bonds, under an act of our Legislature authorizing the holders to transfer them to it, and directing suit to be brought in its own name as assignee. The main question at issue relates to the jurisdiction of the Court. The Constitution provides (Art. III., Sec. 2) that the judicial power of the United States shall extend to "controversies between two or more States," and to "controversies between a State and citizens of another State"; but after the decision of the Supreme Court in Chisholm *vs.* Georgia, that these provisions made a State liable to suit like a private person, the strong State-rights feeling of the day led to the immediate adoption of the Eleventh Amendment, which was designed to prevent suits of this kind absolutely. This amendment is as follows: "The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State."

Under this provision, the New York holders of repudiated Louisiana bonds cannot sue the State of Louisiana, and the question is whether what cannot be done directly can be done indirectly by virtue of an assignment to the State of New York, which, under Art III., Sec. 2, is capable of suing. In other words, is this a "controversy between two States," or is it really a case in which citizens of one State are suing another, and resorting to a sham assignment to give jurisdiction? This question has been fully argued by Attorney-General Russell, who takes the ground that the assignment to New York makes the case a real "controversy between two States," because at the time of the adoption of the Constitution the right of any sovereign government, such as the States then were, to make the claims of its citizens the basis of a demand for redress against another sovereign government was recognized by international law. By this we suppose he means that it is entirely within the discretion of a State what claims of this sort it will press, for of course, by the universal modern practice of States, no government ever makes a *casus belli* of repudiated bonds. No government could maintain such a principle of liability against another, without admitting that if it repudiated its own bonds a *casus belli* would exist against itself; and, as most modern states have at one time or another repudiated, or "scaled," or "readjusted" their obligations, they have taken very good care not to insist upon any international liability of this nature. Therefore, on this point the Attorney-General's argument is hardly entitled to much weight, and it is, moreover, at the best something of a juggle with words; for, no matter what the framers of the Constitution intended, what the framers of the Eleventh Amendment meant was to frustrate their intention, and therefore the question recurs, Can this amendment be practically nullified by permitting a suit brought in the name of a State, but really for the benefit of its citizens?

The adoption of such a construction would undoubtedly deprive the States of that very immunity from suit which it was the intention of the Eleventh Amendment to guarantee. If a State may assume one class of obligations it may assume any, and the consequence would be that any one who could get the Legislature of his own State to pass a law adopting any claim of his against another State could in this way bring it within the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. In reply to this, however, it must be said that the objection is not a serious one, because repudiated bonds constitute the only sort of claim that is likely to produce such legislation. The notion of the Attorney-General's office of each State being converted into a "claim agency" appears to us to be a mere bugbear.

The real legal difficulty in the case is that a decision in favor of the plaintiff must be placed on the extremely technical ground that the Eleventh Amendment guarantees a State immunity from suit only when the plaintiff of record is shown to be a citizen of another State, or a citizen or subject of a foreign government. It is of course possible for the Court to say that the plaintiff is the State of New York, and that it is entirely immaterial for whose benefit it brings the suit. The State *might* hold bonds of its own; it might, again, purchase the bonds in suit, and then the Eleventh Amendment would have no application. But if it might do this, the fact that it has actually chosen to proceed in another way, and sue as trustee for the owners, makes it less difficult for the Court to make the necessary decision.

That some means may be found for overcoming the difficulty everybody must hope, because otherwise the disease of repudiation will always break out from time to time, and the honor and credit of the entire country suffer in the future as it has done in the past. How great is the total amount of outstanding repudiated State debts which the decision will affect is not accurately known, but so many of the Southern States have settled with their creditors that the amount in itself does not present the same obstacle that it would have presented ten years ago. Some of them are able to pay their entire repudiated debt if they desire to do so.

THE MEXICAN WARWICK.

NEW YORK, September 8, 1882.

"WHAT all this signifies"—the curious political doings in Mexico mentioned last week—is a probable return of ex-President General Porfirio Diaz to power even sooner than was as a matter of course looked for. "Don Porfirio," or more familiarly yet, as he is termed by the populace, "Porfirio," is the Mexican power behind the throne. Everybody has long known that he was to be the next incumbent. Everybody has known that his creature, General Manuel Gonzalez, was but a *locum tenens*, who kept the place warm for him. It should be explained that the Mexican Constitution, as amended of late years, prohibits the holding of the Presidential office for more than one term, of four years, at a time. "Porfirio" himself, in his revolution against Lerdo, was an enthusiastic one-termer. With this motto inscribed upon his banners and the aid of his military prestige and personal popularity, he swept the troops of the more pacific, if not less unscrupulous, Lerdo before him in 1876, and seated himself in his place.

But there seems to be a good deal more in the wind just at present than the candidacy of Porfirio Diaz for the next term of the Presidency in 1884. Having the field indisputably to himself, since there is nobody in the country strong enough, even at three or four removes, to make head against him, the next year or two might naturally enough be "off-years" in politics. General Gonzalez, the stop-gap, however, is in a critical condition of health. He lost an arm at Puebla in the defence of that town against the French, and the wound has never healed. Puebla, entitled, after the patriotic custom in vogue, "de Zaragoza," in honor of the general in chief command, is a celebrated name in Mexican annals. It has given rise to the great Cinco de Mayo (Fifth of May), a date after which streets and boulevards are named, and which calls forth more processions, illuminations, and speech-making than even the 16th of September, the anni-

versary of the national independence. Gonzalez lost an arm at Puebla, and the stump of that arm, together with the exigencies of Porfirio Diaz, raised him to the Presidency. Gonzalez, like Diaz himself, sprang originally from the position of a common soldier in the ranks, but, though possessed of an equal amount of education with the latter—it cannot be very great in either case—he is a person of far more mediocre abilities. His imperfectly-treated arm has been a constant menace, and on at least one occasion of late there has been mounting in hot haste by persons who had especial interest in the event, under the impression that his decease was at hand. It may be either that the President will die, or that he will be found physically incapable of continuing his term to the end. There are indications that he may have begun to look at the case in the last-mentioned light, and to provide for his retirement himself. Although but a poor man when going into office, two years ago, and enjoying but a moderate salary, he has lately purchased the great hacienda, or agricultural property, near Tezcoco, once belonging to the Jesuit fathers. It is not given out publicly that he has done so; indeed, the effort is made to keep it quiet. Inasmuch as the cost was somewhere between a quarter and a half million of dollars, the populace would naturally begin its arithmetical calculations upon this surprising piece of economy, its speculations whether or not something might not have been saved from the labor of signing all the American railroad charters and those for other public improvements that have been going through so profusely of late. However, it is one of those things that leak out and everybody begins to know, and this although the purchaser has not himself taken possession, but has put in General Lalanne, the Governor of the place, to take charge for him.

Now, supposing that President Gonzalez is either to be retired in some such comfortable circumstances as this, or to die of his wound patriotically got at Puebla, his intending successor is naturally interested in seeing that nothing should occur thereupon to jar unpleasantly with the purposes which he has put himself to the trouble to form. Under the Mexican system there is no Vice-President, elected as such, to step into the Chief Magistrate's place in case of his death or withdrawal. The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court has been, up to the very last session of Congress, *ex-officio* Vice-President, and eligible to the seat. But it was confidently said by knowing persons in the spring that in case of Gonzalez's death, Vallarta, the somewhat venerable Chief Justice, would never take the vacant place. "Why not?" one asked with interest. "Oh, we shall see what we shall see," was the astute reply. Sure enough, at the earliest moment a law was put through Congress providing that the presiding officer of the Senate, and not the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, should succeed to the office in case of the removal of the President of the nation, and should thereupon order a new election. This is being, or has been, ratified into a constitutional amendment by the phenomenally docile States. By a singular coincidence the President of the Senate who will have the ordering, or what, under the farcical system in vogue is the same thing, the absolute decision, of this new election is—Romero Rubio, the father-in-law of Porfirio Diaz.

Thus "Don Porfirio" sits back on his vast estates in Oaxaca, which he too has amassed with an exemplary economy, pleases himself to be Governor and commander of the military forces of this fighting State in the interim, and controls the destinies of his country with such ease as if he moved the ponderous weight with his little finger. In the absence of any efficient electoral system, and consequent means of redress by the ballot, Mexico is under as absolute a dictatorship to-day as was France under its last Emperor. The case is even worse, because under the ostensible division of powers there is no way of tracing the responsibility to its source. Not that there is the least danger of anybody's trying to do so. The country is tired of revolutions. "A bad government is better than a good revolution," is one motto. Another is: "There will be no more revolutions; all the grabbers have got places." Further than this, the railroads make it easy to put them down. Further than this, the railroads give employment to idlers who formerly had nothing better to do than follow the banners of insurgent chiefs.

How Porfirio manages to exert such absolute control it is not at first sight easy to see. Here is a great Congress of unbiassed men, as one might suppose, from all parts of the country. Surely some of these would stand out against dictation. Meekness is not a Mexican trait. Here are some who have declaimed fiercely against the French oppressors; here is a fervid Indian speaker who professedly models himself upon Mirabeau; here are poets and prose writers who have turned off diatribes against tyranny and odes to freedom, and all great ideas, after the most classic and republican French models. These Brutuses, however, if some there be, make no headway against the arts of Don Porfirio. Their inspiration is rather literary than practical. They are not particularly heard from, in fact; and his majorities are not merely sufficient, but enormous. Still, the case is fairly simple when looked into. The men are rarely unbiassed. They are sent by the Governors of the several States, and these Governors have been manipulated in advance. Porfirio avails himself, too, of the arts of the Strong Man, the Man on Horseback, all through history. He has both promises to make and threats. If everybody cannot expect a better office, he can at least lose the one he has. If he could be sure, too, that in case he held out, a band of heroes would hold out with him to the bitter end; but he cannot be sure of that. He may be left in the lurch, the only one of his clan to suffer the penalties. "The boys" are much given to "going back" on each other in Mexican history. From the year 1810 downward it is a record of tigerish personal courage, with conspiracies and betrayals.

The Latin race admires the military type, and Porfirio has captivated the popular imagination by his exploits in the field. The chief of them, it is true, have been in his own service. He has headed two revolutions, in the first of which he was defeated and pardoned, in the second successful. Lerdo, whom he finally dispossessed, was a civilian, an ex-schoolmaster. Lerdo, it was thought, tried to govern the country in the same pedagogue spirit in which he had governed his school. He succeeded to the Presidency from the office of Chief Justice. "Don Sebastian" (Lerdo) is spoken of as the most scholarly and really competent President the country ever had, but he lost favor by his lack of military talent, taking flight to New York when his fortunes were by no means in a desperate condition. The country people were strongly on his side at first, but this singular thing happened: that, finding him unable to protect them against the roving bands of revolutionists belonging to Diaz, they joined the latter in disgust, and went on with him to the capital.

Whether it is that Porfirio, putting some trust in the old motto, "Let me make the songs of a nation, and I care not who makes its laws," subsidizes a little the ballad-singers, or that they break forth with spontaneous admiration, certain it is that on Sundays up the Viga Canal, at Santa Anita, whither the populace swarm to indulge in unlimited pulque, tomales, cheap flowers from the floating gardens, and dancing, the strolling minstrels mingle in the revelry frequent long-drawn refrains to the praises of "Don Porfirio Di-i-az." The subject of these remarks is a person neither talkative nor taciturn. He is of commanding height, swarthy Indian skin, a figure stalwart but not heavy, and of a military, yet somewhat nonchalant bearing, all of which may add to the attraction. I saw him during the excursion down to Cuautla on the opening of the Morelos Railway—an opening followed a week later by an accident unparalleled, in extent and accumulation of horrors, in the annals of railway catastrophes. All official Mexico was there, and if the five hundred lives had been lost that day instead, the republic would have had to be reconstructed from the foundations. It is characteristic of something strangely happy-go-lucky and illogical in the Mexican temper, with all its fierceness, that in the decorative festoons hung around the banqueting hall of the old convent, now utilized as a railway station, for our dinner on this occasion, were set impartially the names of all the Presidents and various other great men of the Republic, from the Emperor Iturbide, who was shot for treason, down to Lerdo, who was driven out as a tyrant and traitor too—and to Don Porfirio, who ejected him. In the same way, though they have been so often one another's Brutuses and Cæsars, their portraits are impartially honored in the National Palace. The sword of Iturbide, too, is invoked in the sonorous national anthem, which, if the reasons were really good for shooting him the moment he set foot on shore at Vera Cruz, seems much as if we should invoke the sword of Benedict Arnold.

Porfirio is a romantic figure in his career, and his is a country, it may be said in passing, which bristles with romantic incidents to an extent we perhaps hardly give it credit for, since it is so far away. I shall not go into his strategic seizure of Matamoras, his capture by Lerdist troops while concealed on shipboard, his escape by leaping into the sea, his recapture and reescape by aid of the French captain, whom he afterward made consul at St.-Nazaire. He is romantic even in his Macchiavellian policy. One cannot say how powerful the Lerdist element in the country, after its complete overthrow and the flight of Lerdo himself six years ago, may be. At any rate, it was the only source from which danger was to be apprehended, and it was well worth conciliating. It was worth conciliating, too, from the social point of view. The real *crème de la crème* in Mexico are the "Mochos" as they are called. They may be said to consist of a Catholic element which regrets ineffectually the confiscation of the Church property, the few lineal survivors of the Spanish titles antedating the Independence in '21, and the survivors of the Court of the ill-starred Maximilian. The Mochos are rich, pass much of their time abroad, keep aloof with a refined horror from the vandalism of the later state of things, and occupy a good deal the same position as that of the old Legitimist clique in the Parisian Faubourg Saint-Germain. They have taken little voluntary part in the successive revolutions, leaving these to be chiefly fought out by the professional soldiers of fortune.

Now, Lerdo, as a man of education at least, and representing the respectable part of republicanism, is conceded to have been "in society," to have been received by the *gente honrada*. All this government of the *populacho* (the rabble) which has followed is not. The Mochos temporize a little, go, perhaps, to the wedding ceremony of some rich railway contractor's daughter, not to draw upon themselves direct persecution, but they do not open their houses in return;

they do not entertain. Mexican "society," apart from the hospitality of the Foreign Ministers, is of very slim proportions. Porfirio Diaz has known how to effect an alliance with the Lerdist faction, and to conciliate opposition from that quarter in what is probably a most effectual manner. He has married, for his third wife, I believe, the daughter of Senator Romero Rubio, who was the right-hand man and exiled partisan of "Don Sebastian" himself, and is now the President of the Senate and empowered to regulate the next election, which shall seat his new son-in-law in the chair. Nor has Don Porfirio had to hide any qualms of personal repugnance in this match. His prevailing fortune does not desert him. The young lady is under twenty, accomplished, and of a high-bred air. She will be recollected by Americans as among the very prettiest of the belles who took part in the round of festivities given in honor of General Grant at his last visit. This, too, will be pleasing to the people. Don Porfirio means that the people shall be pleased with him. When General Grant, on his first visit to the country in his tour around the world, was the curiosity and hero of the hour, Don Porfirio was his inseparable attendant and courteous host. A certain resemblance was traced between them. Both had been illustrious generals, both Presidents. When Grant returned a second time, and was now much less popular on account of his interest in railway concessions, and of a jealousy which had arisen of American aggressions, Don Porfirio was unfortunately obliged to be far distant, engaged in distributing charitable funds to sufferers on the northern confines of the Republic.

It is not simply in his marriage that he conciliates the Lerdists: the work has long been going on piecemeal. Veteran Army officers and others, thrown out of service by the defeat of that cause, after having been reduced to sufficiently gloomy straits, have been approached and won over in a taking way. I had the good fortune to make a long journey in Mexico with a colonel of the Army who had belonged to this category, passing with him among other places through Iguala, where Iturbide's famous Plan (of independence) was first drawn up. I will admit that my travelling companion had his defects, but he was of a philosophic turn, and we talked, as we jogged on day after day on horseback, of many interesting things connected with his country. He was on his way to take a command on the frontier. He said to me that the President, Gonzalez, who knew somewhat of his doings in virtue of an espionage to which he had been subjected, sent for him and asked, "Why do you continue to talk against the Government, and pass your time in idleness—you who were once so good a soldier?"

"Sir," the Colonel replied, "you know my sentiments and my cause. I cannot deny that I fought for it, and I take the consequences. I have pawned my valuables and my clothing for food. As to my idleness, I have no regular occupation to turn to."

"I admire your manliness," the President, instead of flying into the expected rage, replied. "Here is your appointment to the command of a regiment. Your cause is dead, as you know. I ask of you no political services. I ask you only to be, as before, a soldier."

It is needless to state that after this there was decidedly one Lerdist the less. I am not finding fault with all this astuteness and conciliation. Indeed, though the aggrandizement of an individual be at the bottom of it, it augurs well for the peace of Mexico, at least. The hammer-and-tongs policy has so long been in vogue there that a recourse to the chicanery of a charming matrimonial alliance and the affectation of bluff and soldierly sentiments will be welcomed, certainly by the foreign capital in the country, as a great improvement upon throat-cutting. Some further talk to the Colonel, in my hearing, I thought much more typical and indicative of debasement. We fell in with another travelling companion, an officer in the Customs service. When he learned that the Colonel was going to the frontier, with a view, among other things, to suppress the extensive smuggling carried on there, he said: "You had better make your little $20,000 or $30,000 by protecting it. That will be much less trouble. The smugglers will buy up your soldiers any way; so it amounts to the same thing." W. H. B.

THE DEATHS OF PROFESSORS BALFOUR AND JEVONS.

LONDON, August 24, 1882.

THE beginning of our holiday season has been clouded by the death—a death through what may be called holiday accidents—of two eminent men whom English science could ill spare: Professor F. M. Balfour, of Cambridge, and Mr. W. S. Jevons, lately Professor in Owens College, Manchester, and afterward in University College, London. Mr. Jevons, a man of only forty-seven years of age, drowned in bathing on the coast of Sussex, was of so modest a character and such retiring habits that he was not personally familiar to the world of London, but among students of his own subjects his reputation stood very high, and his works are doubtless well known to the scientific public in America. Considering that Britain was the birthplace of political economy, and that so many of the ornaments of that science have flourished here, it is somewhat remarkable that we should at present have comparatively few economic writers of eminence. Among these Mr. Jevons stood in the front rank—indeed, if one looks to the work he did, he may be pronounced distinctly the first. His was a thoroughly English mind—patient, careful, sober; accumulating facts with great industry, reasoning cautiously from them, comparatively indifferent to the graces of style, but stating what he had to state in a manner which was not only lucid but weighty. Those who met him for the first time were sometimes disappointed by the absence of vivacity in his conversation; but the longer they knew him the more they were impressed by the substantial strength of his powers, the soundness of his judgment, the cogency of his logic. Personally, he was a singularly likable man—simple and unassuming, with a fund of geniality which only disclosed itself after a time, and was then prized all the more because one had hardly guessed it. Though he wrote several valuable books on logical subjects—having, among other things, developed Sir William Hamilton's doctrine of the quantification of the predicate, and having expounded the methods of inductive and deductive reasoning, with singular fulness of knowledge, in a book on the 'Methods of Science and Logic'—he was probably best known in England by his economical treatises, and best of all by his book on the 'Coal Question,' published some fifteen years ago, in which he collected a vast number of facts bearing on the consumption of our supplies of coal, determined the rate at which the process of exhaustion is going on, and called attention to the probable results of that exhaustion at no very distant period. The work produced a great impression, and did much to stimulate Mr. Gladstone to his scheme for the reduction of the national debt. Nor ought it to be forgotten, in estimating Mr. Jevons's services, that he was one of the first teachers who by the fame of his writings gained credit and respect for the college at Manchester which has now ripened into a university, and which promises to be no unworthy rival to the ancient schools of Oxford and Cambridge.

Mr. Balfour's death is an even greater loss than that of Mr. Jevons, in so far as he was much younger, and had, to all appearance, a longer period of activity before him. Though little over thirty years of age, he had, by his physiological work, especially in the direction of embryology, placed himself in the front rank of scientific students. Probably there was no man of his standing who had done so much, or from whom so much was expected. Within the last year or two he had been elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and had been selected by the Committee of the Athenæum Club as one of the nine eminent persons whom they annually choose, *extra ordinem*, to be members of the club. A few months ago the University of Cambridge had founded a special new chair of Animal Morphology to be occupied by him. Possessed of independent means, and connected with some of the most considerable families in the country, he had resolved to devote his life to the study of physiology, and was just undertaking the laborious duties of secretary to our principal annual scientific congress, the British Association. No branch of research has made more progress at Cambridge of late years than physiology, and Professor Balfour was regarded as the most brilliant product and future head of that school. Being also a very cultivated and agreeable man, he is mourned by the whole of Cambridge, and indeed by many outside the University who knew him only as a friend. Since his death, which happened in the attempt to scale, with the help of one guide only, one of the most difficult pinnacles of the range of Mont Blanc, the Aiguille Blanche de Pétéret, two other fatal accidents have befallen English climbers in the Alps—one on the Wetterhorn, usually an easy mountain, the other on the Dent Blanche, a peak near Zermatt, seldom ascended, and only fit for practised mountaineers.

People often ask why it is that when the dangers of Alpine climbing are so well known these accidents should happen; and, further, what it is that induces men, and among them so many men of intellectual power and reputation, to risk their lives in an amusement from which no solid benefits are derived. As the practice of mountaineering is less common among Americans than among Englishmen, your readers may perhaps care for some remarks on a pursuit which has played, and still plays, so large a part among the English youth. Its dangers are not, when proper precautions are taken, really serious. Considering the number of persons whom Great Britain sends every autumn to ramble over glaciers and snow-fields, the percentage of accidents is very small. What makes it seem considerable is the amount of public attention called to each, and the fact that the victims are so often persons of vigor and promise; for the amusement is one to which the more intellectual men, especially the younger fellows of colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, eagerly devote themselves, while their duller contemporaries are more attracted by hunting or shooting. But well known as the proper precautions are, it constantly happens that they are neglected. A man who has waited for a week, through showers of rain and snow, to climb a peak or cross a pass, starts at last when a somewhat better day presents itself, although prudence would have told him that he ought not to venture till the weather was perfectly settled, and that the risks have been greatly increased by the fall of fresh snow. Perhaps he cannot get both the men he wants to have as guides, and therefore he takes the risk of having one only where two are needed. Perhaps he has a pet theory that there

is a shorter cut to the top than the usual route, and insists on taking it in spite of the guide's warnings. The very fact that mountaineering is now a developed art, some twenty-five years old, makes people forget the dangers and despise the safeguards, and leads them to assume that all will go well. And as all the greater peaks and all the more important passes have now been disposed of, adventurous spirits are driven to seek excitement or distinction in attempts on pinnacles which their predecessors had passed by as impracticable, or on passes which lead nowhere, and are only interesting because hitherto untried. So many things have been found possible, ever since the famous instance of the Matterhorn, which had been long thought inaccessible, that it is no wonder that desperate expeditions should sometimes be undertaken, and sometimes end in disaster. However, the commonest cause of mischief is mere carelessness or over-confidence; and, after all, the lives lost in mountaineering are few compared to those recorded every year in England from the use of fire-arms in shooting grouse, or partridges, or pheasants.

It is a more generally interesting question to determine what are the causes which have made Alpine climbing so popular among Englishmen, and so much more popular among them than in any other continental country. The French and the Russians climb scarcely at all; the Italians rather more; the Germans more, again; but none of these peoples nearly so much as the English. The love of natural beauty and grandeur, which seems to be stronger among the Teutonic races than in any others, is no doubt one of the causes. The scenery of lofty mountains, of towering crests of rock and extended snow-fields, is, indeed, not generally so beautiful as that of the valleys and middle slopes; but it is often more striking, or, at least, more strange and awe-inspiring — naturally, therefore, more attractive to the young. There is a sense of solitude, of vastness, of the terrible silence and severity of nature dominating these upper regions, which is felt nowhere else, and which powerfully draws men back to them who have once submitted to the spell. No one who merely looks at the snow-mountains from below, or takes a lady's stroll of half an hour upon a glacier at its lower end, can appreciate the intensity of the impression which the ascent of one of the great summits of the Alps or the Pyrenees makes upon imaginative minds. Doubtless, however, among our mountain-climbers there are many who have not much poetry in their composition. These are attracted partly by the mere love of violent exercise, and of exercise in the keenest and most invigorating air, partly by the passion for overcoming difficulties, for doing something new, for becoming conscious of their strength and courage and skill in undergoing fatigues and facing dangers which others shrink from. The need for this sort of excitement is a permanent need in human nature; and, though moralists may condemn people for exposing their lives to unnecessary risks, the fact that the condemnation is so often repeated shows how strong is the love of danger for its own sake. Our ancestors indulged it in war and in the chase; now, when war has become confined to a profession, and the only danger in the pursuit of wild creatures arises from one's own or one's companions' carelessness, the old passion insists on finding new avenues. And the mountaineers claim that their pursuit, even regarded in its lowest aspect, as a mere form of exercise, has the advantage over rowing and other forms of athletics that there is nothing vulgarizing or brutalizing in it, that it is not liable to be corrupted by betting, that it brings men into the best company—that of the grandest and most inspiring scenes of nature—and makes them seek success, not by defeating others, but by overcoming physical obstacles.

Whether the taste will be a permanent one, it is hard to predict; as it is quite recent, so it may prove transitory. Already it has lost some of its charm by the conquest of all the higher and more striking summits, and also by the way in which it has been reduced to a system. No book could be written now about the Alps which would have the charm of novelty that surrounded Professor J. D. Forbes's book, or the three volumes of 'Peaks, Passes, and Glaciers.' Still, while Englishmen continue fond of violent exercise and of grand scenery, while Switzerland annually draws thousands of German, English, and American tourists, the ice-axe and rope are likely to continue familiar objects in mountain inns. Nor is it at all impossible that this form of amusement may survive fox-hunting and grouse-shooting. They would be seriously shaken by any great change in the social order of England, and the growing tenderness toward the lower animals may perhaps in another hundred years make them seem barbarous to our more refined descendants, while mountain climbing will still have its poetical side. Y.

WHY DO PEOPLE HATE MR. GLADSTONE?

LONDON, August 24, 1882.

MR. GLADSTONE counts, of course, his thousands of admirers: the Liberal party is at this moment kept in power in virtue of his widespread popularity; but by many educated men and women he is abhorred with an intensity of abhorrence felt toward no other politician. What is the cause of this hatred? The answers given to this inquiry by rabid foes or by devoted followers are equally unsatisfactory. If I am to believe the *St. James's Gazette*, the Premier is a singular mixture of the fool and the knave; he is a sort of weak-brained Mephistopheles—a combination, so to speak, of treacle and sulphur. He is, in short,

> "a creature of such hideous mien
> As to be hated needs but to be seen";

and the only wonder is how any one can be simple enough to trust a villain whose portrait has been painted in the darkest colors every day during the last three years by the literary staff of the leading organ of Conservatism. If, on the other hand, I am to believe my excellent friends of the *Spectator*, Mr. Gladstone's one fault is that he is a great deal too good for this world. He combines all the various graces which have ever adorned any English statesman. He has the patriotism and disinterestedness of Chatham; he displays the financial genius of Pitt and of Peel; he possesses more than the eloquence of Sheridan; his wisdom surpasses the wisdom of Burke; and in ready wit and power of managing men he is more than the equal of Palmerston. Add to this that Mr. Gladstone is, like the lady who is described on her tombstone as the cousin of "Edmund Burke, commonly called the sublime," "beautifully religious." He is, in fact, in the judgment of the few who really appreciate his character, the leading theologian no less than the leading statesman of his age. His defects, his vices (if he has any) all lean to virtue's side. His one fault—the sole reason for the hatred entertained toward him by the "carnal mind"—is the excess of his goodness. Being created for paradise, he is hardly fit for this earth. His angelic temper is so good that it is mistaken for irritability, and his simple love of truth so deep that an ignorant world somehow confounds it with a tendency to disingenuousness or prevarication. It is, in short, the old, old story of Aristides. The English Philistine is wearied with hearing Mr. Gladstone called, in one form or another, "the Just." Future ages will appreciate his virtues; meanwhile, he shares the hatred felt at all times by the wicked toward all the best and noblest members of the human race.

I am myself a disbeliever in the existence no less of monsters than of angels. I utterly repudiate any explanation of the animosity undoubtedly felt toward Mr. Gladstone by large bodies of intelligent persons, which rests at bottom on the absurd supposition that the most eminent of English politicians is an idiot or a maniac, whose imbecility is surpassed only by his cunning. I find it impossible to acquiesce, on the other hand, in any explanation of the fact that many good and wise persons distrust the Premier which assumes that to dislike Mr. Gladstone is to be the foe of virtue. The one explanation is a gross calumny on a minister of the very highest talents and character, who has rendered the most important services to the English nation; the other explanation is a slander on some of the best and most sensible men to be found in the English nation. Mr. Gladstone, like every man who has ever ruled a great country, combines extraordinary talents and rare virtues with some very marked faults. The explanation, in short, of the hostility which his very name excites among some classes of his countrymen, is to be found in the circumstances of his position and the peculiarities of his character. The distrust and dislike of the Premier felt (often very unjustly) by almost all Conservatives, and by a considerable number of so-called educated Liberals, is, in the main, due to four causes.

First. Mr. Gladstone is the Premier who has first made well-to-do Englishmen realize the fact that they live under a Constitution which in theory, if not always in practice, is democratic. He has given actual effect to most of the reforms vaguely demanded by the English democracy. The abolition of the system of purchase in the Army, the disestablishment of the Irish Church, the Education Act, the introduction of vote by ballot, the two Irish Land Bills, are mere specimens of the kind of legislation which has been carried through by Mr. Gladstone. Each one of these enactments has in itself offended not only the prejudices, but the principles, of large and influential classes; and Mr. Gladstone's legislation, taken as a whole, has produced an effect far greater than can be attributed to each of its parts. It has proved that under a competent guide the English democracy—that is to say, a lot of Dissenters, shopkeepers, and artisans—can govern as well as reign. Now, hosts of gentlemen who theoretically delight in popular government do not really wish that the people should be king. They are therefore naturally irritated when a Minister enables the true sovereign of the country—the mass of the electors—actually to exert sovereign power. We may be quite sure that the Conservatives who, under Disraeli's guidance, "dished the Whigs" by the Reform Bill of 1868, did not intend to introduce a system of administration opposed to all the principles of Conservatism. They thought that the householders would be, if not Tories, yet far less ardent reformers than the traders whose votes decided the policy of the nation under the Constitution of 1832. Nor is it certain that but for Mr. Gladstone this hope would not have been more or less justified. There was, when he first became Premier, no ardent cry for political or social reforms. A Palmerston or a Russell would either have deadened the desire for change, or else have shown himself incapable of giving any practical effect to the demand for innovation. It is quite on the cards that but for Mr. Gladstone the Church of Ireland might still be connected with the state, and the land law of Ire-

land be still the same as that of England. He made the English democracy conscious of their power, and turned this power to practical account. During his earlier ministry he gave a democratic bias to domestic legislation. By the agitation against the foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Government, and by his own action on coming into power in 1880, he made the English electorate feel that their wishes could dictate the foreign policy of the country. Can any one wonder that Conservatives detest a man who has (perhaps almost unconsciously) hurried the country along the path of democratic progress? The Minister who has done this was, it should be remembered, at one time a Tory of the Tories. He was never a Whig. Not much more than twenty years ago, he was a possible ally or leader of the Conservative party. He is hated by Tories with that special animosity which is the fruit of unrequited or of rejected love.

Secondly. Mr. Gladstone, though the head of the Liberal party, has never been, and never will be, in full sympathy with the Liberals who most truly represent the traditions—many of them very noble and sound traditions—of the Whigs. He is a man of far more democratic fibre than any leader who has ever come out of the great Whig houses. He is, like his master, Sir Robert Peel, far more closely connected by feeling and by principle with the mercantile and trading classes than was Lord Russell or than is Lord Hartington. He possesses, moreover, a confidence in popular sentiment, he shows a tendency to appeal to and to trust in popular feeling or emotion, utterly foreign to Liberals of the Whig type. But if Mr. Gladstone's Liberalism in some respects exceeds and goes beyond the Liberalism of the Whigs, it falls in some respects far short of the liberality even of Lord Palmerston. On every ecclesiastical matter he has always displayed the sentiment, if not the principles, of a High Churchman. The one legislative reform carried by Lord Palmerston was the Divorce Act. Its bitterest opponent was Mr. Gladstone. To get rid of ecclesiastical influence in all places of education, and especially to make the universities absolutely and completely open to the whole nation without distinction of creed or denomination, has been and is a main object of every Liberal who cares for intellectual freedom. It is assuredly no secret that Liberals of this type have received but very qualified assistance from the Premier. To this may be added that Mr. Gladstone's tendency (in some respects a very sound tendency) to yield attention to popular sentiment has more than once, and notably in his Irish legislation, led him to disregard the principles of political economy. How far he has acted wisely in this it is not my present object to discuss. All that I wish to point out is, that Broad Churchmen, and what are termed rigid economists, may legitimately enough look with suspicion on a leader who, however wide his sympathies, assuredly does not share some of the strongest convictions of men who are, after their lights, at least as zealous as Mr. Gladstone in the cause of reform and progress. Mr. Gladstone, in short, is in more than one respect the disciple of Peel; he is a man who, born a Tory, has become a democratic leader. It is reasonable that such a man should, to the end of his career, excite some distrust even among his followers.

Thirdly. Mr. Gladstone is by descent a Scotchman. No one could have read the speeches or "sermons" by which he aroused all the enthusiasm of the electors of Midlothian without perceiving that Mr. Gladstone's character of oratory and of feeling was as Scotch as his blood. There is about Scotch eloquence, as (I venture to hold) about Scotch sentiment, a good deal more heat and fervor than light or clearness. If you take two such different, yet such preëminently typical, Scotch writers as Christopher North and Carlyle, you will find in each of them a kind of verbosity and vehemence which, in spite of North's talent and Carlyle's undoubted genius, a good deal offends English taste. You feel as if the writer intentionally substituted violent assertions for argument, and tried to lash up his own moral feelings no less than those of his readers. Carlyle never argues at all. He denounces, he prophesies, he exhorts—he is, in short, a preacher. His sermons are often excellent for their purpose, but, like all sermons, they must be read for edification, instruction, or reproof; they must not be looked upon as an attempt to argue out calmly, rationally, or fairly the positions which the author means to enforce. Something the same may be said, at any rate, of Mr. Gladstone's Scotch speeches. They were suited for his audience; they attained their object; they expressed the genuine feelings of the speaker. But they were certainly not really suited for the taste of the large English public, who, to speak plainly, do not like Scotch sentiment or Scotch eloquence. The addresses were too hot, too vehement, and too wordy really to please educated Englishmen. If any one wishes to see how much Mr. Gladstone's Scotch type of eloquence differs from that of a genuinely English speaker, he should read side by side with any oration of Mr. Gladstone's the speeches either of Cobden or of Bright. You may disagree with every sentiment uttered by the leaders of the Anti-Corn Law League, but you must admit that the style in which their sentiments are expressed is admirable. I doubt whether the most ardent of Mr. Gladstone's English followers could read with pleasure his series of Midlothian addresses. Sermons are dull reading. Now, difference of style is a more weighty matter than men are apt to think. The features in Mr. Gladstone's style when he addresses popular audiences which do not meet the critical taste of educated Englishmen, betray a difference of feeling between Mr. Gladstone and his English readers. He is, in more respects than one, far too much of a preacher. The vehemence, the warmth, the hortatory morality of the pulpit is apt to irritate the audience. We suspect that at least half of the irritation caused by Mr. Gladstone's utterances arises from his being in substance a Scotchman who has to address an English public.

Fourthly. Mr. Gladstone has been before the world for half a century, but he is still, and always will be, *l'homme incompris* of English politics. No one doubts his high moral and religious principles. Every one knows his almost painful desire to make his meaning and his position precisely understood: his career has been a career of explanations. Yet, somehow, ordinary Englishmen cannot understand him. Bright, Russell, Palmerston, Sir Stafford Northcote, almost every other English statesman who has flourished during the last two generations, has been perfectly intelligible to his countrymen; he has spoken their language and thought their thoughts. With Mr. Gladstone alone it is otherwise. One does not "know where to have him," as the expression goes. Before he entered Parliament he astonished and charmed the Oxford Union by attacking the Reform Bill on Liberal principles. You will find, it is said, in the books of that debating society a long and elaborate note explaining why W. E. Gladstone on some momentous occasion spoke on one side of a question and voted on the other. And this trifling incident is typical of the Premier's whole course. The persons who agree with his principles rarely agree with his conclusions, and acts which meet the approval of his supporters have been defended by him on grounds which did not commend themselves to the judgment of the adherents who supported his policy. Americans, no less than Englishmen, have had some experience of the difficulty of understanding Mr. Gladstone. There probably was no man throughout the Union who was not convinced during the War of Secession that Mr. Gladstone was a supporter of the South. There probably is now no man throughout the Union who can understand the explanations or apology by which Mr. Gladstone some years ago proved, to his own satisfaction, that to announce that Jefferson Davis had made the South into a nation was consistent with the feeling of genuine friendliness to the North. The sort of perplexity felt in this matter by Americans will explain to them the hopeless state of muddlement into which Mr. Gladstone's explanations sometimes throw his best friends. An impertinent and ignorant correspondent once pestered the Premier with the inquiry whether he was or was not a Papist. It is reasonable to assume that the writer who raised this question was a fool and a bigot. It would have been perfectly easy to understand Mr. Gladstone's refusing to reply to a silly insult. It is not easy to understand how it came to pass that Mr. Gladstone's ultimate answer did not take the form of a direct negative; but it amounted, if my memory does not deceive me, to the assertion that if the Prime Minister were a concealed Papist, he would be a knave. Contrast this needlessly tortuous reply with the sort of "chaff" which Lord Palmerston would have lavished upon any fool who had asked him whether he was in the pay of Russia, and you will understand why Mr. Gladstone, who has passed his life in defining his position, has never contrived to make himself completely understood.

Enthusiastic Gladstonians will, no doubt, assert that the fault lies on the side of the English public. A statesman may, it will be said, supply his audience with explanations, but he cannot supply them with understandings. But though I doubt not that a certain kind of moral sensitiveness, with which ordinary Englishmen have but too little sympathy, has really been a cause of their not entering into the views of the Prime Minister, no one, I think, can fail to see that two peculiarities—or, to speak plainly, two defects—which are very characteristic of Mr. Gladstone, as they have been characteristic of some other eminent men, are the chief causes of the constant misunderstanding between him and large classes of the English people. He has, in the first place, never been able to admit that he, like other statesmen, has, under the teaching of circumstances, changed his views and, to a certain extent, his principles. To preserve his belief in his own consistency, he has constantly been forced to misrepresent, first to himself, and then to the public, the true and generally quite adequate grounds for his changes of policy. The hero of the Midlothian election refuses to acknowledge that he has sanctioned an act of intervention in the affairs of a foreign country. Hence he deliberately confounds attack with defence, and justifies the bombardment of Alexandria on the extraordinary plea that the English fleet, which might at any moment have sailed out to sea, battered down the Egyptian forts as a simple act of self-protection. He has, in the second place, never acquired that directness of expression and simplicity of language which is needed by any statesman who wishes to avoid, at all costs, the danger of being misunderstood by hearers who can neither enter into subtleties nor make allowance for reservations or provisos. It is reasonable to conjecture that Mr. Gladstone's mode of feeling, of thought, and of expression was profoundly influenced by Cardinal Newman and by Sir Robert Peel. Neither teacher was exactly the man to foster in a disci-

ple that kind of plain speaking which, often very wrongly, the English public fancy to be the sole and the sufficient guarantee for plain dealing.

A. V. DICEY.

Correspondence.

ERRORS OF THE CENSUS.—IV.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In this letter attention will be directed to discrepancies between the rainfall maps and tables contained in the Population volume of the Census; to contradictory statements in the same volume as to the temperature and rainfall of Colorado; and to errors in the table giving the population in 1880 of each square degree.

Table I *ff*, p. 40, shows the distribution of population in 1880 in accordance with annual rainfall. According to it, 136,542 residents of Alabama lived under an annual rainfall of 45 to 50 inches, and 462,259 under a rainfall of 50 to 55 inches. The map which shows the annual rainfall represents that no part of Alabama has less than 50 inches. Moreover, that part of the State which the map places under a rainfall of 50 to 55 inches did not contain at most over 350,000 people, as against the 462,259 which the table (I *ff*, p. 40) credits to it.

From the same map it appears that the section of Illinois which has a rainfall of over 45 inches lies south of a line drawn due west from the mouth of the Wabash to the Mississippi. The counties of Massac, Pulaski, Alexander, Union, Johnson, Pope, Hardin, Gallatin, Saline, Williamson, and Jackson make up this part of the State. The total population in 1880 of these counties was 155,848 (see pp. 56, 57). The table (I *ff*, p. 40) puts the population of the strip of Illinois which has an annual rainfall of 45 to 50 inches, at 351,285.

The map just mentioned indicates that no part of Massachusetts has a less annual rainfall than 40 inches. According to the table (I *ff*, p. 40), however, 69,049 inhabitants of that State lived under a rainfall of 35 to 40 inches.

The table (I *ii*, p. 43) places 1,012,117 of the population of Kentucky in the region having a spring and summer rainfall of 20 to 25 inches, and 636,573 in that having a rainfall of 25 to 30 inches. From the corresponding map, it appears that all portions of the State having a rainfall during the spring and summer less than 25 inches lie to the east of a straight line drawn from Chillicothe, Ohio, to a point on the southern boundary of Kentucky, about thirty-five miles west of the 85th meridian. The aggregate population in 1880 of the counties east of that line was 524,515 (see pp. 62, 63). If the map is correct, the table assigns half a million too many inhabitants to the 20 to 25-inch region, and half a million too few to the 25 to 30-inch one.

From the hypsometric sketch, it will be seen that a part of central Colorado is more than 10,000 feet above the level of the sea; and that a still larger section is between 6,000 and 10,000 feet above. Comparisons with the temperature and rainfall maps will show that the region above 10,000 feet, as well as a greater or less proportion of that between 6,000 and 10,000, has a lower temperature and a heavier rainfall than the other parts of the State. Thus, the mean annual temperature of this central belt is less than 40°, its mean temperature in July between 55° and 65°; its mean temperature in January between 5° and 10°; its maximum temperature under 95°; its minimum temperature from 40° to 50° below zero; its annual rainfall 20 to 25 inches; its rainfall during the spring and summer months between 15 and 20 inches. Of course the extent of this central tract on the various maps is not precisely the same, but the similarity in size and shape is close enough to be striking. On consulting the corresponding tables, it will be discovered that they widely diverge from the maps in more than one instance.

The section of the State which the map showing the distribution of the lines of mean annual temperature depicts as having a mean temperature of less than 40°, comprises the counties of Grand, Gilpin, Clear Creek, Park, Lake, Chaffee, Fremont, Hinsdale, San Juan, and Saguache, besides parts of others. The population in 1880 of the counties named was 58,056 (see pp. 51, 52). According to the table (I *m*, p. 17), however, the population of the part of Colorado in which the mean temperature was less than 40° was only 3,003. In this case, as in many others, any one can satisfy himself at a glance that something is wrong. On the map, Leadville is distinctly marked as in the region having an annual temperature below 40°, and the population of Leadville in 1880 was 14,820 (see p. 113).

Table I *u*, p. 25, distributes the population in accordance with the mean temperature of January. According to it, no inhabited part of Colorado has a January temperature below 10°. The corresponding map marks, as having a January temperature of 5° to 10°, a portion of the State made up of the counties of Gilpin, Clear Creek, Park, Grand, Lake, Chaffee, Saguache, San Juan, and Hinsdale. The population in 1880 of these counties was 53,321 (see pp. 51, 52).

The map showing the distribution of the lines of minimum temperature indicates that, with trifling exceptions, all that portion of Colorado which lies between the 105th and the 108th meridians has a minimum temperature of 40° to 50° below zero. This section of the State comprises twelve square degrees of surface. Seven of these are wholly within the —40° to —50° area, viz., the six square degrees included within the 38th and 41st parallels and the 105th and 107th meridians, and the square degree bounded by the 40th and 41st parallels and the 107th and 108th meridians. The population in 1880 of these seven square degrees was 91,992 (see p. lxx). The population of the other five square degrees, the great bulk of each of which is in the same minimum-temperature belt, was 21,859 (see p. lxx). According to the table (I *cc*, pp. 34, 35), the population in 1880 of the belt of Colorado which has a minimum temperature from —45° to —50° was 4,530, and of that which had a minimum temperature of —40° to —45°, 40,170; the total for both belts being only 44,700.

If Table I *ii* (p. 43) is to be relied upon, the population of that part of Colorado which has a spring and summer rainfall of 15 to 20 inches was 6,459. On the corresponding map, the section which is marked as having that rainfall comprises the counties of Grand, Summit, Saguache, San Juan, Hinsdale, Rio Grande, Gilpin, Clear Creek, Park, Lake, and Chaffee, containing in 1880 a population of 60,724.

There are several more or less serious mistakes in the table (XLII, pp. lxx and lxxi) purporting to show the distribution of the population in 1880 by square degrees. According to it, no part of the population of the country lives north of the 47th parallel and east of the 68th meridian. The extreme northeastern corner of Maine is thus situated. The section map, opposite page 49, indicates that a portion of this tract had in 1880 from 6 to 11 inhabitants to the square mile. A township map of the State will show that all of Hamlin Plantation and parts of the plantations of Cyr and Van Buren are in the square degree included within the 47th and 48th parallels and the 67th and 68th meridians. The first named had in 1880 a population of 612 (see p. 200). There are entries in this table (XLII, pp. lxx, lxxi) as small as 92, as in the case of the square degree bounded by the 47th and 48th parallels and the 124th and 125th meridians.

The towns of Grand Isle, Madawaska, Frenchville, and Fort Kent, the plantations of Walla Grass, Eagle Lake, Saint Francis, and Saint John, townships 17, range 4, and 17, range 6, and parts of the plantations of Cyr and Van Buren—all in Aroostook County, Maine—are situated within the square degree bounded by the 47th and 48th parallels and the 68th and 69th meridians. The aggregate population in 1880 of the places named, excluding the plantations of Cyr and Van Buren, was 7,374 (see p. 200). The population of the plantations of Cyr, Hamlin, and Van Buren was 2,280 (see p. 200). The aggregate population north of the 47th parallel and east of the 69th meridian was, therefore, 9,654. We have already seen that the table (XLII, pp. lxx, lxxi) credits no population to the part east of the 68th meridian; and it gives the population between the 68th and 69th meridians at only 4,160.

The towns of Limestone, Fort Fairfield, Easton, Mars Hill, Blaine, Bridgewater, Monticello, Littleton, Houlton, and Hodgdon—all in Aroostook County, Maine—are situated east of the 68th meridian and between the 46th and 47th parallels. Their aggregate population in 1880 was 12,567 (see pp. 199, 200). The table (XLII, pp. lxx, lxxi) puts the population of this square degree at 4,170.

The same table places a population of 4,180 in the square degree included within the 47th and 48th parallels and the 69th and 70th meridians. The portion of this square degree lying within the United States has an area of about 820 square miles. If the table (XLII, pp. lxx, lxxi) may be trusted, it has, therefore, a population of about 5 to the square mile. Both the settlement maps for 1880 indicate that no part of it has as many as 2 inhabitants to the square mile. The only inhabited parts of this tract are the townships 16, 17, and 18 of range 10, and 16 and 17 of range 11, Aroostook County, Maine. Their aggregate population in 1880 was 246 (see p. 200).

There is a similar mistake in the figures for the square degree bounded by the 46th and 47th parallels, and the 69th and 70th meridians. According to the table (XLII, pp. lxx, lxxi), the population in 1880 of this square degree was 5,657. A reference to the section map opposite page 49 will show that this square degree includes parts of Aroostook, Piscataquis, and Somerset Counties, Me. On this map this section of the State is represented as having less than two inhabitants to the square mile. I believe its only inhabited portions are the plantation of Seven Islands and townships 15, range 11, and 14, range 16, in Aroostook County, and townships 5 and 7, range 13, in Piscataquis County, with an aggregate population of 196 (see pp. 200, 202). There are some three or four places mentioned in the Census as being situated in Aroostook, Piscataquis, and Somerset Counties whose position I cannot locate on any map at present available. It is possible that some or all of them may be in the square degree under consideration; their aggregate population was, however, only 495.

In the table below I contrast the results which I have obtained, and which are at least approximately correct, with the figures given in Table XLII, pp. lxx, lxxi. The population of Cyr and Van Buren Plantations has been evenly divided between the two square degrees in which those plantations lie:

Square degree.	Census figures.	Correct figures.
47°–48° lat., 67°–68° long.	—	1,446
47°–48° lat., 68°–69° long.	4,160	8,208
46°–47° lat., 67°–68° long.	4,170	12,567
47°–48° lat., 69°–70° long.	4,180	246
46°–47° lat., 69°–70° long.	5,657	196

As will appear from an inspection of the sec-

tion map opposite page 49, the population of that part of Maine north of the 46th parallel is concentrated in a thin fringe of towns and plantations running along the eastern and northeastern boundary of the State. If the table were correct, that population would be not very unevenly distributed over the entire northern part of the State.

The aggregate population in 1880 of Kittson and Marshall Counties, Minnesota, Pembina County, Dakota, and Angus and Riddewold townships, Polk County, Minnesota, was 7,038 (see pp. 66, 53, 229). These counties and townships, as well as parts of Beltrami and Itaska Counties, Minnesota, and of Cavileer, Ramsey, and Grand Forks Counties, Dakota, lie north of the 48th parallel, and between the 94th and 99th meridians. According to Table XLII, pp. lxx, lxxi, the population in 1880 of the five square degrees comprised within the boundaries just mentioned was 5,161.

In my next letter I hope to conclude the discussion of the errors in the Population volume of the Census. JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, MD., Sept. 5, 1882.

PROHIBITION IN MAINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Usually the *Nation* is found on the right side of a question, and deals with one it may be opposed to in a fair manner; but in the issue of August 31 there is a departure from such practice. In your notes of "The Week" in that number, you comment on the Chicago Convention of Prohibitionists. Then you say as follows: "Liquor is sold as openly in Maine to-day as it was before the Maine law was heard of." If that statement is made as applying to all of Maine, it is made against strong contradictory evidence. If made as applying to a small part of the territory of Maine, it is misleading. What will you do with the following testimony on this point?

In a message to the Maine Legislature in 1870, Gov. Chamberlain of that State said: "The laws against intoxicating liquors are as well executed and obeyed as the laws against profanity, unchastity, and murder." Gov. Perham, another of Maine's Governors, said in 1873: "It is probable that less intoxicating liquors are drunk in Maine than in any other place of equal population in the country, and perhaps in the civilized world." Gov. Dingley, also of Maine, in a written statement addressed in 1874 to the Commissioners appointed by the Canadian Parliament to inquire into the workings of prohibitory legislation in the United States, said:

"In nearly all our cities, with perhaps two or three exceptions, the law is enforced to a great extent with evident beneficial results; and even in the two or three cities where there is greater looseness in this direction, the traffic is by no means so free and open as it would be under a license system. In more than three-fourths, especially in the rural regions, the law is as faithfully enforced as any of the laws of the State, and *open dram-shops are unknown.*"

To this can be added the testimony of many other of Maine's high officials of earlier and recent date.

You further say: "When they have got their constitutional amendments adopted, they still have to meet the old difficulty of enforcement. The question is something like that of 'abolishing polygamy.' Would they employ troops? Would they break up all liquor-shops by means of a national police and throw the 'rum' into the streets? What would they do?" I would answer to the above: They would rely upon the moral pluck of the nation to enforce a law that it had made. They would do just what those States like Maine and Kansas have done—enforce the law as they do others upon the statute-books, by the ordinary officers and means of justice. It would require no more troops or police to enforce a prohibitory amendment to the Constitution than it now takes to look after illicit distilleries. It's a poor opinion one takes of the moral power of this nation if they are so helpless when arrayed against a few thousand brewers and rum-sellers. B.

FLORENCE, N. J., Sept. 8, 1882.

[The statement cannot be "misleading" if it be applied, as it was meant to be, to the large towns of Maine. It is in the cities that the liquor traffic does most mischief, that most drunkards are found, and that a liquor law is most needed. They are "a small part of the territory of Maine," but for the purposes of this discussion they are by far the most important part. It matters little that the prohibitory law works well in Aroostook County, if it does not work in such places as Bangor, Portland, and Rockland; and that it does not work there, we assert as the result of personal observation. In one of these cities we have seen three open bars, within a space of one hundred yards, in one street. Against this those very sonorous documents, Governors' messages, naturally count for little with us. They are seldom evidence of anything under heaven except the Governor's own state of mind. Moreover, the moral power of the nation "is not, on the liquor question, arrayed against a few thousand brewers and rumsellers" simply. This is one of those sounding fallacies with which politicians so often escape from impending corners, like the member of Congress who asked, in opposing a reduction of the whiskey tax, whether "a Government which had put down the greatest rebellion the world ever saw could not collect a tax of one dollar per gallon." The liquor problem lies in the question whether the moral power of the nation can, through material agencies, such as police and inspectors, prevent a very large minority of the population from creating a good and steady market for intoxicating drinks. The moral power of the nation has long been arrayed against the liquor traffic, but it does not, and cannot, prevent a man who desires liquor finding a man to sell it to him, except through constables. Governor Chamberlain's illustration touching the laws against profanity, unchastity, and murder is difficult to deal with, owing to its being a jumble. He can hardly have meant to say that the moral and legal preventives of murder in Maine were no more effective than those of drinking. One obvious distinction disposes of this. The murderer and his victim are never confederates in the commission of the crime, as the liquor-dealer and liquor-drinker always are. The laws against unchastity and profanity are not enforced at all, owing to the difficulty of proof, but people are not troubled by this, because the condemnation of both by public opinion is so powerful that the need of any law at all is doubtful. Moreover, there is no opinion anywhere in the civilized world favorable to profanity and unchastity on which the profane and unchaste can fall back for support. The Maine drinkers and liquor-dealers, on the other hand, can, and doubtless do, excuse themselves for violating the law, by saying that the great majority of civilized men do not regard the manufacture and consumption of alcoholic drinks as *mala in se.* In short, the state of opinion in most countries about drink, combined with the fact that the dealer and consumer are always *participes criminis* in breaking the law, make it necessary to have, not as efficient a police to execute a liquor law as any other law, but a police tenfold more efficient. Nor can the need of it be got rid of by general phrases, such as the "moral power of the nation," or "the moral pluck of the nation."—ED. NATION.]

NEW HAVEN FREE FROM CRIME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of Sept. 7 you speak of the display and notoriety attending the funeral of a person who was executed in this city on Sept. 1. You begin by saying that "there was a disgraceful exhibition on Sunday in New Haven at the funeral of 'Chip' Smith, the murderer, who was hanged on Friday." In conclusion, you say "that it is with something like despair that we see a community like New Haven so little regardful at once of its own reputation and the public good."

The funeral upon which you comment took place at Ansonia, ten miles from New Haven. The murderer and his victim lived in the same place, and there the crime was committed. As New Haven is the county-seat of New Haven County, the offender was tried, convicted, and executed here.

New Haven is a well-governed city, and is remarkably free from crime. A contrary impression seems to prevail in some quarters, owing, I presume, to the fact that some sensational criminal trials have been had here in recent years. The offences were, however, committed in other sections of the county. We are willing to bear our own burdens, but do not think it quite just that the sins and misdeeds of other communities should be imputed to us.

JOHNSON T. PLATT.

NEW HAVEN, Sept. 9, 1882.

SCIENCE AT MONTREAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to add to your correspondent's list of prominent European scientists who honored the recent meeting of the American Association with their presence, the name of Prof. Joseph Szabó, the distinguished mineralogist and geologist of the University of Buda-Pesth. Prof. Szabó has, during his brief stay in this country, availed himself of the opportunity to examine some of its principal mineralogical and other scientific collections, and to make an extended tour across the continent.

Very respectfully, A. H.

ACADEMY OF NATURAL SCIENCES, PHILADELPHIA, Sept. 5, 1882.

THE DUTY ON BICYCLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "M. B. T.," writing under the above title in your issue for August 24, is in error, and you were right. "The manufacturer" *did* "ask to have the duty on steel lessened," *and also* "the duty which falls on bicycles"; and he filed a formulated statement with the Tariff Commission to that effect. He recommended that the duty on bicycles be reduced from 35 per cent. to 25 per cent. Of course, he did not "inform the Committee that, by means of this heavy duty and $10 royalty charged for patents, the Pope Manufacturing Co. has established a monopoly which . . .

is exceedingly oppressive," as your correspondent puts it—perhaps because the company which Colonel Pope represented has done nothing of the sort, not only in his opinion, but in that of the majority of wheelmen. As that remark seems to do injustice, you may permit me to answer that by him and his company the royalties under patents have been reduced and kept down from about $25 to $10; licenses have been offered to all who were ready to go regularly into the business of making or importing with capital and enterprise, and they have extended facilities for obtaining and acquiring the use of bicycles all over the country. That there is no "monopoly" is shown by the fact that there are six other importers and seven other makers in the United States already.

But to return to the tariff. Not only was a reduction asked on both steel and bicycles, but for very good reasons. The duty on steel is 45 per cent. A little calculation will show that that puts the American maker, when the duty on bicycles is 35 per cent., at $4 25 disadvantage with the English maker; and the former might have asked that either the rate on bicycles be increased to 43½ per cent. or the rate on steel be reduced to 17 per cent. Instead, he, being a "freetrader," asked that the rate on the former be lessened to 25 per cent., and on the latter to 15 per cent. and 10 per cent., according to the degree of removal from the state of raw material; and this was asked solely for the increase of export trade. In the language of Henry Clay, fifty years ago, "the tariff must—ought to be reduced," on both articles, and wheelmen are glad that a fair representative of them has asked it.—Respectfully, C. E. P.

Boston, Sept. 9, 1882.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish during the autumn a Household Edition of Bret Harte's poetical works, and two new stories, 'Flip, and Found at Blazing Star'; a Holiday Edition of the complete poetical works of Thomas Bailey Aldrich; a wholly new Riverside Edition, and also a limited *édition de luxe* of Hawthorne's complete works, with bibliographical notes by George P. Lathrop; a Household Edition of Saxe's poetical works; a Riverside Shakspere in three volumes, edited by Richard Grant White; a new edition of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' carefully revised, and containing a new preface and bibliographical notes by the author; a new and uniform edition in seven volumes, crown 8vo, of Robert Browning's complete poetical works, including his "Agamemnon," "La Saisiaz," "Pauline," and "Dramatic Idyls" (First and Second Series), which will also be printed separately in one volume; a new edition in six volumes of the complete works of Edwin P. Whipple; Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' with sixteen illustrations by Darley, and also his tragedy of 'Michael Angelo'; a 'Life of George Ripley,' by the Rev. O. B. Frothingham; a 'Life of Ole Bull'; the following volumes in the "American Statesmen" series: 'John Randolph,' by Henry Adams; 'James Monroe,' by President Gilman; 'Daniel Webster,' by Henry Cabot Lodge; 'Thomas Jefferson,' by J. T. Morse, jr.; in the "American Men of Letters" series, 'J. Fenimore Cooper,' by Prof. T. R. Lounsbury; 'Oddities in Southern Life and Character,' by Henry Watterson; 'Doctor Zay,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; 'The Book of Fables, chiefly from Æsop,' and 'The Bodley Grandchildren and their Journey in Holland,' by Horace E. Scudder; 'The Nature and Form of the American Government Founded in the Christian Religion,' by Judge Shea; 'History of the Papacy during the Reformation,' by the Rev. M. Creighton; Francis Bacon's 'Promus of Formularies and Elegancies,' now first published from private MS. notes of 1594, and illustrated by passages from Shakspere, by Mrs. Henry Pott; 'Notes on Foreign Picture Galleries,' by C. L. Eastlake; and 'Notes on Men and their Books,' by James T. Fields.

The same publishers have gathered for the first time, in a Household Edition, the poems of Alice and Phœbe Cary, who deserve to be remembered among the minor singers of America. A steel portrait of each introduces the collection composed by each.

Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge's excellent collection of 'Ballads and Lyrics' for children has had the success it merited, and has just been brought out in a larger form and more luxurious apparel by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. A red-line border has been given to the pages, and sundry full-page illustrations scattered through the volume. While it will be no easier to read, these adornments and the gilded covers and edges accent the book as a gift, which was not the case with the previous edition.

Henry Holt & Co. publish immediately Mrs. Kemble's 'Records of Later Life,' from the English edition; and 'Goodholme's Domestic Cyclopædia,' reduced in price one-half.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, have now in the press Dr. Edward A. Freeman's 'Lectures to American Audiences,' embracing "The English People in its Three Homes" and "The Practical Bearings of General European History."

J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce 'A Cruise under Six Flags,' by Prof. O. A. Ericsson.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately 'Spoiling the Egyptians: A Tale of Shame, told from the British Blue-Books,' by J. Seymour Keay. Mr. Keay is an Englishman, and possibly not a friend of Mr. Gladstone's.

Harper & Brothers have nearly ready a translation of Prof. Wilhelm Müller's 'Political History of Modern Times (1816–75).' They have just added to their Rolfe edition of Shakspere 'Troilus and Cressida.'

Mr. J. Brander Matthews has made a volume of 'Poems of American Patriotism,' which Chas. Scribner's Sons will publish in October. The chronological arrangement reveals the fact that almost every telling incident in our history has been put into verse, and that this work has been shared among all our leading poets, scarcely one of whom is unrepresented in the volume.

Taking advantage of the revived interest in Landor caused by Mr. Colvin's 'Selections,' as well as by the life in the "English Men of Letters" series, Roberts Bros. have put his 'Imaginary Conversations' within reach of ordinary purses, bringing them out in five neat and tasteful volumes, "Oxford style." They will adorn any shelf, and will not fatigue the hand or the eye.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, have issued, in good style (we trust by arrangement with the authors or their English publishers), Messrs. Butcher and Lang's prose translation of the 'Odyssey.'

The fixed character of Mr. Edward McPherson's 'Handbook of Politics' makes praise or extended mention of that for 1882 superfluous (Washington: James J. Chapman). It contains messages and addresses of three Presidents, and shows the latest action of the Government on subjects such as Mormonism, the Chinese question, the Geneva Award, the liquor traffic, inter-State commerce, the status and rights of women, etc. The usual party platforms, and electoral and financial statistics conclude this invaluable record of our political history.

The Census Office has published a map of Alaska and adjoining regions, on a scale of 1:3,500,000, compiled by Special Agent Ivan Petroff. It is not above criticism in its mechanical execution, but it undoubtedly possesses the highest authority. Already excursions from Puget Sound to Sitka have begun to be made for the sake of the magnificent scenery of the coast and inland waters; and two years hence the practice may well become regularly established, when the completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad has enabled tourists to embrace in one short jaunt the wonders of the Yellowstone Park, the grandeur of the Columbia River, and the physical and anthropological attractions of Alaska.

The *International Review* has again changed hands, being made over to the *Industrial Review* Publishing Company, of Philadelphia. Mr. Robert P. Porter becomes sole editor.

We have received from Robert Clarke & Co. the Illustrated Catalogue of the Art Department of the Cincinnati Industrial Exposition now open. Though the first ever attempted, it does not suffer by comparison with those of New York and Chicago; on the contrary, there appears to be more than the usual proportion of sketches on a large scale. The pottery department has the merit of representing home manufacture.

J. W. Bouton has received the etching which *L'Art* gives gratuitously from time to time to its subscribers. It is an effective reproduction by Ulysse Butin of his own painting called "Waiting: Saturday at Villerville." A number of eager watchers on the wet strand, and notably a sturdy fisherman's wife with baby and little boy, scan the horizon to make out the sails of the already approaching fleet.

We have already described the new edition of Brehm's standard work, 'Thierleben,' with its 170 colored plates and more numerous woodcut illustrations (Leipzig, and B. Westermann & Co., New York). The division of Birds, with which it has been begun, is now extended by parts 28–44, in which the plates are not more remarkable for the singularity of many of the species depicted than for their artistic qualities and the care bestowed upon their execution.

The eminent Danish critic and essayist, Georg Brandes, who, by his long residence abroad, has become almost completely alienated from the land of his birth, was lately offered by a number of anonymous countrymen of his an annuity of 4,000 crowns for a period of ten years, provided he agreed to return permanently to Denmark. This seemed, indeed, a flattering recognition of literary labors which have deservedly won renown throughout Europe, Brandes being, perhaps, the most brilliant contributor to the German periodical press, especially on subjects connected with modern French literature. Brandes is said to have accepted the offer, but it is now thought that his anonymous admirers are in reality his enemies—that is to say, members of that Conservative party whom his unsparing criticism of the Danish Government, particularly in his late work on Lassalle, has so much displeased. In a word, the annuity was offered as a bribe. This explanation sounds plausible enough, in view of the simultaneous report that Brandes is to be offered a professorship in the University of Copenhagen, showing that even in Government circles the desire is felt to silence, or at least tone down, his vigorous opposition.

A French journal has discovered that Descartes was born at Sucé-sur-Erdre, near Nantes, and not at La Haye near Tours, having found an entry in the church at the former place of the baptism on September 9, 1644, of René, the son of "d'Escuyer-Messine-Joachim des Cartes conseiller du roi," and of "Marguerite Dupont dame de Chavagne." To appreciate the importance of this discovery it must be remembered that the great philosopher died, as another

French journal hastens to point out, February 15, 1650, which would make him less than six years old at the time of his death, the most remarkable case of precocity known, especially as he must then have produced his famous 'Discours. sur la Méthode,' etc., about seven years before his birth.

—We have received from Soule & Bugbee, Boston, a catalogue of law books to be sold at auction by Bangs & Co., on the 26th and 27th instant. The list comprises 1,660 numbers, among which we notice many interesting and rare books. In the first division ("Trials") is a set of Howell's 'State Trials,' in thirty-four volumes octavo, which is described in the catalogue as a "fine copy." The date is not given. There is also a "fine copy" of Hargrave's 'State Trials' (eleven volumes large folio, bound in six, 1776). No. 205, which should be very rare, contains the "Arguments of Sir Richard Hutton and Sir Geo. Croke, etc., upon a *Scire Facias* brought against John Hampden; and also the several votes of the Commons and Peers, etc.," a small quarto edition, published at London in 1641. No. 502 contains the trial of Stafford (folio, paper, London, 1680), bound up with which, to judge from the catalogue, is his speech on the scaffold, supplemented by "animadversions upon said speech, etc., etc.," these being "published to prevent the deceiving of Protestants" (London, 1681). There is also (No. 573) the trial of Sir Harry Vane (London, 1662, the year of the trial), described as "very rare—one leaf imperfect"; several different editions of Webster's trial for the murder of Parkman, one of which, Bemis's, is, we believe, hard to find; and (No. 600) a rare report of a witch-trial before Sir Matthew Hale in 1664. The collection of session laws, statutes, and law magazines is less interesting to the general book-hunter than to persons who are trying to complete sets, and to whom the intrinsic value or rarity of books is as nothing. In the next division ("Ancient Works on English Law") we find (No. 823) a first edition of Britton, black letter, small quarto, London, "no date"; (No. 884) a Fitzherbert's Abridgment, with the imprint 1516; a Fortescue's 'De Laudibus,' in Latin and English, 16mo, calf (1573); a copy of an interesting, if not ancient, work, Edward Livingston's 'Project of a Penal Code' (London, 1824), which is probably not often seen in this edition; a black-letter folio Lyttleton, without date; several copies of the 'Natura Brevium,' the oldest of which is in black letter; a black-letter Plowden of 1613. Nos. 1048–1062 have rather a political than a legal importance, being all books and pamphlets published by Prynne during the struggle between King and Parliament in the seventeenth century. The last division ("Ancient Works on Civil and Canon Law") is very full, and it would need careful going over to sift the chaff from the wheat. The cataloguers are probably quite safe in describing No. 1225, an original copy of the Code Napoléon (1807), as "scarce"; and a black-letter quarto edition of the Grand Coustumier (vellum), "in fine condition," published at Rouen in 1513, ought to be a prize, whether to bibliomaniacs or professional book-lovers. A Grotius, in octavo, published at Amsterdam in 1651 (No. 1333); numerous Justinians (going back to 1518); a black-letter copy of the Lombard Laws (Venice, 1537), and, curiously enough, a complete edition of Macchiavelli (1550), are also comprised in this division.

—A singular bid for fame is made by Mr. Lawson Valentine, of this city, in a pamphlet printed at the Riverside Press, at Cambridge, and entitled 'Houghton Farm.' Wishing "to provide a pleasant country home within convenient distance from his place of business," and having "in mind the realization of a long-cherished plan for doing something toward the progress of American agriculture," Mr. Valentine has taken in hand a thousand acres of land, not far from West Point, and has there established a residence "facing westward, and surrounded by lawns and an extensive natural park." "On the crest of the hill, at the eastern corner of the farm, a summer camp has been built, and a rustic tower from which there is an extensive view of the surrounding country"—to say nothing of other material constructions and "improvements" which the pamphlet sets forth. To crown the whole, Mr. Valentine has established at the farm "a scientific department devoted to agricultural investigation and experiment," and he has enlisted for this special service a "General Manager," a "Director of Experiments," and a "Botanist and Chemist." The pamphlet contains a detailed and, as it seems to us, a particularly dry account of a series of experiments on the growth of Indian corn made at Houghton Farm in 1880–81; together with a couple of brief essays by the well-known English experimenter, J. B. Lawes, relating to researches carried out on his estate at Rothamsted.

—The August number of the *Antiquary* (J. W. Bouton) contains several articles of interest to historical students. The first article, by Mr. Gomme, is upon Lammastide, and gives an account of several usages in the south of England, survivals from the village community: this date (August 1) was, as is well known, the time when the fences were taken down, and the enclosed fields thrown open to pasturage. The village community affords a subject for another paper also, by Mr. Fenton, entitled "The Influence of Pastoral Life upon the Village Community." It is an attempt to trace one stage in the evolution of this institution. Mr. Fenton being one of the soundest and most learned inquirers in this field, his paper is one of great value and importance. Dr. Brandes, of Göttingen, contributes a very interesting paper entitled "Old Footsteps of the Saxon Ancestors of the English Nation in Germany." It treats of the country about Detmold, and points out a number of names and linguistic peculiarities that attest at once a high antiquity and a near kinship to the English nation. In some respects the most important article is by Mr. Hubert Hall, "The Great Case of the Impositions." It treats of the Bates case, determined in the Court of Exchequer Chamber in the reign of James I. (1606), touching the right of the crown to lay "an imposition of 5s. on the cwt. of currants, in addition to the 2s. 6d. already levied." This case, it will be seen, touches the principle of the tonnage and poundage contest, and that for ship-money, of which it may in a sense be considered a forerunner. The article is to be continued, and we shall look with interest for its further discussion. Meanwhile it is enough to say that Mr. Hall has pointed out a serious mistake in Stubbs, in the assertion that the prisage of wines in the thirteenth century was "the right of the crown to take one cask out of every ten at 20s. the cask." In reality it was "taking for the King one cask before the mast and another behind—that is, one or both, according to the bulk of the cargo" (cargoes of less than ten tuns going free); and its value was far more than twenty shillings the cask. He shows further that Stubbs is wrong (vol. ii., p. 524) in asserting that "imported wines paid, besides the ancient prisage, 2s. on the cask"; the fact being that two shillings on the cask was the commutation agreed to by foreign merchants, while native merchants continued to be subject to prisage.

—At the last meeting of the British Association, on August 23, Sir John Lubbock vacated the chair in favor of Dr. A. W. Siemens, a German by birth, who has lived forty years in England, half that time as a naturalized citizen, so that the Mayor of Southampton could justly pronounce him an Englishman in moving the vote of thanks for his address. This address, which covers over six columns of fine print in the London *Times* of August 24, is hardly inferior in interest to that delivered last year by Sir John Lubbock, although it is of a very different character, Sir John's having been a summary of scientific progress within the last fifty years, while Dr. Siemens's address is concerned with the present, and still more with the future. As Dr. Spottiswoode said of the new President, "In an electrical age he is the special representative of electricity, and combines the highest theoretical knowledge of the subject with the widest application of that knowledge to practical purposes." To him are due many discoveries in the sphere of applied electricity, anastatic printing, the chronometric governor, the regenerator engine and gas furnace, the first electric railway, the electrical transmission of power, etc. It was but natural, therefore, that his lecture should deal principally with these and allied phenomena. After dwelling on the advantages of a closer union between theory and practice in science than has been customary in bygone times, a plea is made for the introduction in England, through the efforts of the Society, of the metre and kilogramme, with especial reference to the accurate unit measures now available in electricity, on account of the clear line separating conductors from non-conductors. How distinct these separating lines are, is graphically illustrated by the statement that the electricity from a small galvanic battery prefers the long journey to America in the Atlantic cable and back again through the earth to the shorter journey across the 4 mm. of insulating material. In another part of the lecture allusion is made to Sir William Thomson's improved compasses on Airy's principles, which neutralize the effect of iron and steel in ships; to Thomson's sounding machines, by the proper use of which, in connection with a good chart, mariners are in foggy weather rendered independent of astronomical observations, and such accidents as that which a few weeks ago befell the *Mosel* are rendered impossible; and to various accomplished and projected engineering tasks, among them the Channel Tunnel, which Dr. Siemens thinks depends at this moment upon military and political rather than financial and technical considerations—the submarine strata of impervious gray chalk having minimized the engineering difficulties. A new proof of the accelerating effect of electric light on vegetable growth is afforded in the fact that of two sections of land sown with cereals, the one which was subjected to the influence of electric light gained a height of four feet and ears in full bloom in three months, while in the other the grain stood only two feet high and had no sign of the ear.

—The most interesting portion of the address is that which discusses the prospect of lighting by gas and electricity. Dr. Siemens is understood to have large investments in both fields, so that his testimony may be accepted as impartial. Electric light, he thinks, will be preferred for drawing-rooms and dining-rooms, theatres and concert-rooms, museums, churches, and factories, and for passenger steamers, even if its ultimate cost should prove greater than that of gas. Gas, on the other hand, is of the utmost value to the artisan, as it requires little attention, and effects a saving on fuel by supplying warmth as well as light. Doubtless, too, gas will soon come into general use as the most convenient, the cleanest, and the cheapest of heating agents,

The application of gas for heating purposes has always been made difficult by the objectionable practice of reducing the pressure in the mains during the daytime to the lowest possible point consistent with the prevention of atmospheric indraught. The rivalry of electricity will remedy this, just as it has already overcome the monopolistic stagnation of the gas companies, and provided in some of the principal London streets improved burners, rivalling the electric light in brilliancy. The amount of light given out by a gas flame depends upon the temperature to which the particles of carbon in the flame are raised. In an ordinary gas flame not more than one hundredth part of the heat evolved in combustion is converted into light—a proportion which could be greatly improved by increasing the temperature of combustion, either by intensified air currents or by regenerative action. A pound of gas yields just twice as many heat units as a pound of ordinary coal, and the gas producer will, before many years, take the place of the complex and dangerous steam-boiler. This new arrangement, in connection with the dynamo-machine, "must mark a new era of material progress at least equal to that produced by the introduction of steam power in the early part of our century." When coal is consumed in the ordinary way, all the by-products obtainable in the manufacture of gas are lost. These by-products (coloring matter, ammonia, creosote, carbolic acid, gas-coke) exceed the value of the coal annually consumed in English gas works by £3,000,000. And not only are these valuable products lost when raw coal is used for heating purposes, but in their stead the cities are poisoned with carbonic oxide and the tons of smoke and coal dust which are mainly instrumental in the formation of fogs.

—Meyer's 'Schriftsteller-Lexikon' fully sustains the reputation for comprehensiveness and general accuracy which the preceding volumes of the *Fachlexika* have established for the whole series. Of course the 'Schriftsteller-Lexikon' is no more a universal cyclopædia of contemporary authors than is Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire Universel des Contemporains,' or Gubernatis's 'Dizionario Biografico,' but it is relatively less German than Vapereau is French, Gubernatis Italian, or 'Men of the Time' English. Vapereau, which retains most of the old plates in the new edition published in 1880, fairly bristles with notices of insignificant French journalists; while the patriotic preponderance of Italians in Gubernatis is made doubly apparent to the eye by its illustrations. Good distribution of the work among foreign contributors has given the 'Schriftsteller-Lexikon' a much more cosmopolitan look, and guarded it against glaring omissions of foreign celebrities, such as that of Ebers from the new edition of Vapereau. Still, Germany's own Helmholtz somehow was overlooked, a liberal construction of the word *Schriftsteller* justly including such other scientists as Tyndall, Huxley, etc. Altogether, the English portion seems to us particularly well done, the literary criticism, as in the case of Oscar Wilde, Ruskin, etc., being pithy and telling; whereas the American biographies are rather conventional and somewhat out of proportion to each other, Bayard Taylor being assigned more space than Emerson and Holmes combined. The notice of Motley is entirely insufficient. Of Joaquin Miller's 'Songs of the Sierras,' it is said that "it created in England a sensation such as has not been known since the days of Byron." American scientific writers are rather neglected. We look in vain for Dana (the geologist), Asa Gray, and Agassiz. The last was not excluded by the plan of the book, which reckons as contemporaries all those whose death has taken place since 1870, although the line is confessedly not strictly drawn. On the other hand, it is a little surprising to find Walter Savage Landor, who died in 1864, and Schopenhauer, who died in 1860. The biographies of Germans naturally err on the side of fulness. A little pruning would have excluded such meaningless characterizations as that of Count Schack, "who is at home not only in the halls of poesy, but in the great temple of art, . . . and whose heart beats warmly for all that is great and beautiful"; not to speak of the absurdly exaggerated praise bestowed on a writer of the calibre of Gustav Kastropp, whose dreary 'Kain' is "not lacking in deep problems of thought, while preserving the poetic bloom." The notice of Erckmann-Chatrian, which patriotically deplores the French Chauvinism of these writers developed by the late war, leaves it in doubt on which side of the Rhine their alleged loss of popularity has taken place.

—The 'Lexikon,' however, is open to serious criticism only in regard to its system of pronunciation, which is far from consistent. While the pronunciation of almost all French names is given (no general key to pronunciation being furnished), that of English names—like Molesworth, Stubbs, Kavanagh, Saxe—is often wanting. Similarly, other foreign names are neglected whose pronunciation is by no means self-evident to Germans, as, for instance, Arany, Szujski, Szymanowski, etc. The pronunciation of Greenwood is given as "grihnwudd," that of Bagehot as "bäschot"; and the syllable "ey" in almost all English words, as in Ripley, is directed to be pronounced like the German *e*. In spite of such small blemishes, we can only repeat our praise of the general accuracy of the 'Schriftsteller-Lexikon,' which is amply shown in the care taken to verify doubtful dates of birth, etc., a feature of encyclopædic work whose difficulty is entirely hidden from the general reader. We may mention as an instance of this the case of so well-known a contemporary as Louis Blanc, the date of whose birth is given in Meyer as October 28, 1813, in Gubernatis as 1814, in Vapereau (edition of 1870) as "vers la fin de l'Empire," and in the edition of 1880 as October 29, 1811. A pleasing omission is that of the many perplexing Christian names preceding the real name of so many Germans (although we suppose this innovation is responsible for *Henry* [C.] Lea and *John* [G.] Saxe); while a long list of pseudonyms is a very useful addition.

—As usual, the French theatrical annuals are very slow in appearing. The first was the ever-amusing 'Soirées Parisiennes' of M. Arnold Mortier (Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern), with its usual lively gossip and fantastic wit. M. Mortier is surprisingly successful in keeping up the freshness and the general level of his entertaining sketches. The preface is supplied by M. Ludovic Halévy, who has now broken off his partnership with M. Henri Meilhac, given up the stage, and set up as a novelist. Second comes the seventh volume of the 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique,' a most useful work of reference. Although its five hundred solid pages could readily have been reduced to four hundred by the vigorous excision of needless chatter, yet the bulk of the book is less than last year's and the workmanship is somewhat better. Worthy of remark is the list (given in a note to page 3) of forty-three operas, grand or comic (not bouffe), written by French composers and ready for the stage, of which only four have been acted in the past year. To be compared with this is the list (page 501) of the forty operas produced in Italy in the one year 1881.

MRS. OLIPHANT'S LITERARY HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

The Literary History of England in the End of the Eighteenth and Beginning of the Nineteenth Century. By Mrs. Oliphant. 3 vols. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

WHATEVER else may be said of this work, it is entertaining. Nor would it be fair to assert that this fact is due to the perpetual interest we take in the men and times of which it treats. There is no subject, however exciting, which judicious treatment cannot cause to seem dull, and in producing this effect the historians of literature have usually left the writers in all other departments of learning far behind. That it is interesting is an acknowledgment that must first be paid to a work which lacks a great deal of what it claims for itself and of what has been claimed for it by others, but which, nevertheless, rarely fails to keep its hold upon the reader's attention.

The work itself does not justify its title. It consists in reality of a series of detached sketches of the leading writers who flourished during the latter half of the reign of George III. These men are often grouped together in a purely arbitrary manner. The chapters are in great measure independent of each other; many of them can be read separately, and the reader would not be annoyed by his ignorance of what has gone before. No general principles are anywhere stated, except some of the most superficial and conventional character. The work is simply a collection of essays, and as a collection of essays it would not subject itself to severe criticism. Unfortunately, Mrs. Oliphant has chosen to style it a history. She herself evidently regards it as a production of that kind, and apparently desires that it should be so considered and criticised by others. It must therefore be tested by the standard to which she herself has undertaken to have it conform; and, judged as history, it can only be pronounced a failure. The general views expressed are of the most superficial kind, the special information is exceedingly scanty, and, in addition, a good deal of the little that is given is inaccurate or misleading. A history of this period could not be written properly by any one unless as many years were spent upon it as Mrs. Oliphant has apparently spent months.

The criticism that will most obviously suggest itself is the scantiness of the information that the author has contrived to impart. Let any reader after finishing a chapter ask himself what he has learned, and he will be sorely puzzled to give an answer. There is appended, indeed, to each chapter a brief bibliography, and the date of the life and death of the authors mentioned in it; but these, of course, no one reads, or, if he does, the facts recorded make no impression upon the mind, because they do not enter into the regular current of the narrative. Most of the information given in the body of the work is so vague and general that there is little of it tangible enough to be retained in the memory. The writer presupposes the reader's knowledge of everything mentioned. There are references, for instance, to the Della Cruscan school of poetry, and to the scheme of Pantisocracy devised by Coleridge and Southey; but what is meant by each, or what was the story of each, will be vainly looked for in these pages. Equally unsatisfying are the accounts given of the personal career of the authors who are discussed. It may be said that we are all supposed to know these things. This is a position which the writer of essays or sketches can properly and fairly take, but it can never be justly assumed by the writer of a history. The one duty which the latter cannot shirk is to fur-

nish information: and even in regard to what are deemed facts generally known, he is bound to conform to the rule laid down by our old friend *Monsieur Jourdain:* "Of course I understand Latin, but you can talk to me as if I did not."

When we come in this work to writers now little known, this scantiness of information becomes a more conspicuous defect. There is a chapter on Dr. Darwin and Miss Seward, which may be taken as an illustration. A certain interest must always attach to the former on account of the greatness of his grandson; but he was interesting both for what he was himself and what he did, and for that new style of poetry which many of his contemporaries fondly thought was to influence profoundly the future literature of the English race. All that is really given of him here are a few bits of rather unsavory gossip, which, in addition to their unsavoriness, have the defect of untrustworthiness. Mrs. Oliphant blindly follows Miss Seward, in utter unconsciousness of the little reliance that is to be placed on that tuneful virgin's assertions, especially whenever anything that touched her own vanity came into the question. Equally meagre is the knowledge we get of Miss Seward herself and her little achievement, which she fancied so great; or even of her detestation of the critics who, according to her view, were little better than a band of pirates who cruised about, infesting the literary seas, with no other object than to scuttle every frail poetic bark that they felt themselves strong enough to attack. We seem to have heard similar opinions expressed in these later days. In all these cases, while it cannot be said of this work that the reader who asks for bread receives in its place a stone, it is certainly true that he is pretty frequently soothed, and sometimes smothered, with adjectives and flowery phrases, and gets for an account of what has been full descriptions of what may have been.

Still, scantiness of information can be pardoned if the information, such as it is, be accurate. Here is Mrs. Oliphant's greatest failure. She has all the skill of a practised writer in gliding skilfully over the thin ice of knowledge without breaking through; but the ice is very thin nearly everywhere, and the special student of the period cannot fail to see through it into abysmal depths of ignorance below. The trick of omniscience, which consists in reference or allusion to things little known without really saying anything about them, is always sure, in process of time, to tire; but it does more than tire when it is used to save the labor of investigation on the part of the writer, or to hide his lack of information. Mrs. Oliphant's inaccuracy about what is but little known can be inferred from her inaccuracy in regard to matters generally known or easily ascertained. We have space for but a few examples, but these are so easily capable of verification that the very fact makes them suggestive. She speaks of Southey as being "compelled to publish" "Wat Tyler" by "the malice of ungenial critics." Not only was "Wat Tyler" not published by Southey, he strove hard to prevent its appearance. He never included it among his works until long after it had been brought out by his enemies. Again, it is a natural and legitimate inference from Mrs. Oliphant's statement that the verse in which "Christabel" was written was borrowed from Scott; whereas we not only know that "Christabel" was produced much earlier than "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," but Lockhart directly assures us that it was Sir John Stoddart's casual recitation of the unpublished manuscript of Coleridge that suggested the strain to the Scotch poet. Mrs. Oliphant, on another occasion, refers to "Jeffrey's review" of Byron's early poems. Nobody has ever manifested anxiety to claim the paternity of that particular criticism; but whoever wrote it, Jeffrey certainly did not. In another place she refers to Jeffrey's "confusion" at his publishing the review of Wordsworth's "Excursion," beginning with the famous sentence: "This will never do." The fact of the matter is, that when Jeffrey came, in his old age, to publish selections from his criticisms in the *Edinburgh Review*, he displayed the extent of his confusion by reprinting this particular one, prefacing it with the statement that he retained the opinions which he then held. This review, indeed, which is altogether different in spirit and character from the account generally given of it, would not itself meet with wide dissent at the present time. It occupied thirty pages of the *Edinburgh Review* for November, 1814, and one-half of it was given up to extracts of fine passages. Mrs. Oliphant herself, after referring to Jeffrey's imaginary confusion at his declaration that the "Excursion" will never do, goes on to show, with some fulness of detail, that it never has done. The really blundering review of Wordsworth came out in the *Edinburgh* for October, 1807; but it is rarely, if ever, referred to by the Wordsworthians, and Jeffrey took care not to reprint it.

Mrs. Oliphant, again, is merely reëchoing the cant of the Wordsworthian school in exaggerating the disfavor with which the "Lyrical Ballads" were originally received, in order to make more marked by contrast their subsequent success. From the very beginning they had a band of ardent admirers, and some of the poems met with as much praise as others did with ridicule. First published in 1798, the volumes had gone in 1802 to a third edition. This is not great success, especially as the editions were small, but it was far from being failure. On this point we have the unimpeachable testimony of one of those "new gladiators of literature" who, according to the author, "fleshed their swords" upon the work. "The 'Lyrical Ballads,'" said Jeffrey in the review previously referred to, which appeared in 1807, "were unquestionably popular, and we have no hesitation in saying deservedly popular." An essayist is perhaps not to be held to strict responsibility for repeating these customary stories about the "Lyrical Ballads" being received as a whole with universal ridicule; but an historian can claim no such immunity.

This same lack of investigation colors all of Mrs. Oliphant's statements about Scott. She is constantly professing herself unable to understand why certain opinions should be held of his character as a man. It is, of course, impossible for her to understand, so long as she does not take the pains to investigate. If she had ever even heard of the Ballantyne-Lockhart controversy, which followed the publication of the 'Life of Scott,' there is nothing to indicate the fact in these pages. In the same spirit she treats the Byron controversy. She has clearly not read the letters of Lady Byron to her sister-in-law which have been for some time published. In discussing the matter she goes out of her way to attack by allusion Mrs. Stowe. She gently blames Lady Byron for telling any one about her domestic troubles, mainly because "some blabber, sooner or later, is sure to let the most unsavory relation out." It was a relation that ought to have been let out even earlier than it was. In no other way could it be met and overthrown. A slanderous story was told of a dead brother and sister; it was whispered in corners; it was confided to a friend here and a friend there. Its harm was in its secrecy. The publication of it was the probable cause of the salvation of the manuscript testimony that showed its falsity. Had it been deferred a generation or two—for it was confided to too many not to have been preserved and published eventually—the proof that destroyed it would in all likelihood not have been in existence. Mrs. Oliphant's account of Byron is, for that matter, the most inadequate and unsatisfactory of all her notices of the great writers. The criticism is of the most pronounced goody-goody type; the import of the facts in his career is misapprehended, even when the facts themselves are not misstated. Perhaps this utter misconception of the real situation, literary and political, reaches its height in the assertion that Byron's "Vision of Judgment" found no publisher for the reason that the poet, it seems, was losing his hold upon the public.

Nor can Mrs. Oliphant be regarded as more fortunate in her general views of the literary movement that manifested itself with such extraordinary power at the close of the last century. She does not appreciate the fact that it itself was but one form of a universal movement that was going on throughout Christendom. So little does she understand the time, that she even repeats the superficial assertion that it was Cowper who broke the spell of Pope. The reaction had begun long before Cowper published a line. His poetry was only an incident in the struggle that was going on between the old and the new. Early in the latter half of the eighteenth century, Joseph Warton had aroused the wrath of the adherents of the classic style by demonstrating, with a painful display of erudition, that Pope was only a poet of the second class. How far and how rapidly the feeling had spread may be inferred from the fact that Cowper himself tells us that he knew many men who maintained that Pope was no poet at all. This was a century ago.

We should be giving an unjust impression of these volumes were we, however, to treat them as the history which they purport to be, for cursory reading shows many other mistakes or misconceptions to which we have neither time nor space to refer. Looked upon as a series of sketches, however, they are justly entitled to a good deal of praise. The style, though diffuse, is always interesting. Much the greater portion of the matter is not taken up with detail of facts, in which the author is rarely to be relied upon implicitly, but with criticism and comment. Even when the reader dissents from the view expressed, he can ordinarily see that it is a legitimate conclusion from the writer's premises. And, finally, these essays record the impressions that have been made upon a cultivated woman of much more than ordinary ability by the lives and works of the great writers who belonged to the period she describes.

RECENT COLLECTIONS OF POETRY.

THE weak point of poetic collections and cyclopædias is usually the preface. Instead of simply bringing together his favorite pieces, and letting them stand on their merits, each editor tries to prove that he has hit upon some new device for selecting his materials. Thus, in 'Golden Poems by British and American Authors,' edited by Francis F. Browne (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), there are three preliminary pages which aim to show that some new and peculiar chemical process has been adopted to detach from the whole body of literature the very best things. The editor says of such collections as Emerson's 'Parnassus' and Whittier's 'Poems of Three Centuries,' "it is no disparagement to them to note their limited range," the limitation being that they "express the individual tastes and preferences of their compilers"—as if any compiler could escape this restriction. When Mr. Browne inserts five poems by Richard Realf, four by

Dr. Holland, and only two each by Emerson, Longfellow, Holmes, and Whittier, he simply expresses his individual preferences, which in this case do not happen to coincide with ours. If not to please his own taste, for whose taste should he edit his book? *Pour le plaisir de qui alors?*—as the little girl said when her father explained that it was not for his own pleasure that he gave her a chastisement. Apart from this false assumption, and from some individual preferences with which we cannot coincide, the book is a good one, and ought to be a favorite, being well printed and not inconveniently large.

Some such collections aim at a definite class of poems, as in the amusing volume bearing the clumsy title, 'Here and There; Quaint Quotations: A Book of Wit,' selected by H. L. Sidney Lear (London: Rivingtons). It contains Praed's best poems and *Punch's* best hits; scraps from Swift and Peter Pindar; and it reveals the source of many a rhyme which beats time to nothing in many a man's head, and which no dictionary of quotations will ever elucidate. In some cases it is merely some modernization of an old joke, as where Sydney Smith applied to the chapter of St. Paul's Church the old suggestion of Mather Byles to the Boston city government—to lay their heads together and obtain a wooden pavement. Other scraps are too graceful to be lost, as is the case with Swift's pretty verses on "The Vowels":

> "We are little airy creatures,
> All of different voice and features;
> One of us in glass is set,
> One of us is found in jet;
> T'other you may see in tin,
> And the fourth a box within.
> If the fifth you should pursue,
> It can never fly from you" (p. 75).

Others recall the once famous improvisations of Theodore Hook, whose wit has left so little behind it. This, for instance, he sang on the entrance of a man named Winter, who came into the room as Hook was playing on the piano:

> "Here comes Mr. Winter, surveyor of taxes;
> I advise you to give him whatever he axes,
> And that, too, without any nonsense or flummery,
> For, though his name's Winter, his actions are summary" (p. 144).

And since jokes on law and lawyers are always in order, we cannot omit this "brief report of a case by a Master in Chancery" (Sir George Rose):

> "Mr. Leach made a speech,
> Angry, neat, but wrong;
> Mr. Hart, on the other part,
> Was prosy, dull, and long.
>
> "Mr. Bell spoke very well,
> Though nobody knew about what;
> Mr. Trower talked for an hour,
> Sat down, fatigued and hot.
>
> "Mr. Parker made the case darker,
> Which was dark enough without;
> Mr. Cooke quoted his book,
> And the Chancellor said, 'I doubt'" (p. 59).

'Tender and True: Poems of Love,' selected by the editor of 'Quiet Hours,' might seem to have too sentimental a title had not those two adjectives been associated on Prince Rupert's battle-flags as well as on the lips of lovers. The object of this volume is to exhibit human love in its most peaceful and domestic aspect, excluding the stormier emotions. Even the sorrow of absence is not portrayed, but only what is cheerful and hopeful. The result is an exquisitely selected little book, enclosing within somewhat narrow limits some of the best poetry ever written. We can criticise nothing in it except what seems a slight inaccuracy of reading here and there. In the sonnet from Petrarch, on page 25, "pathway be" should be "path may be."

There have been two recent additions to the growing library of books devoted to the English sonnet. The smaller of these, 'English Sonnets by Poets of the Past,' edited by Samuel Waddington (London: George Bell & Sons), is intended as a companion volume to his 'Sonnets by Living Writers.' These collections indicate the progress of public taste. When we consider that the selections of the Rev. Alexander Dyce attempted to preserve many of the sonnets of John Bamphylde and Miss Anna Seward, we can pardon Mr. Waddington for some things present and absent in his book, and even for rejecting Chapman as a "minor poet" (p. ix). He gives us, for the first time, two sonnets by Robert Burns, and there are other good additions. But some of his omissions seem almost whimsical, as, for instance, where he preserves Leigh Hunt's 'Nile' and 'Grasshopper,' and omits his fine sonnet on receiving a lock of Milton's hair; and while inserting seven sonnets by Drummond, leaves out his 'Icarus.' The notes, too, are rather scanty; there are poems which have a literary history, for the criticisms they have called out. Thus, Lord Thurlow's sonnet "To a Water-Bird" must always be associated with Charles Lamb's fine enthusiasm over it, as described in De Quincey's 'Literary Remains,' and also in a letter from Lamb to Bernard Barton.

The modest volume just named finds itself quite eclipsed by the sumptuous quarto in which Mr. T. Hall Caine has for the first time set these gems in a setting which is worthy of them. His 'Sonnets of Three Centuries' (London: Elliott Stock) wants nothing that can delight the external senses, and the editor has been liberal of notes and criticism, as well as almost too generous in his amplitude of selections. In his analysis of the structure of the sonnet, too, he is perhaps ultra-refined, and his strictness as to form can hardly sustain itself in a literature where, after all, the best examples, those of Shakspere, are in the less regular fashion. We note a few misprints, as where the best passage in Charles Tennyson Turner's fine sonnet on the Ocean—

> "Flung shoreward now, to be regathered soon
> With kingly pauses of reluctant pride
> And semblance of return" (p. 121)—

is spoiled by the substitution of the words "Hung shoreward." The editor also gives the later and inferior form of another exquisite poem by the same author, "The Traveller to his Wife's Ringlet" (p. 124); and yet, if authors will spoil their works, it can hardly be expected that editors shall not follow them. He adds some very valuable sonnets to those usually found in the collections—one especially by Charles Whitehead—and sometimes shows a positive want of taste, as in inserting a disagreeable one on "The Army Surgeon," by Sydney Dobell (p. 180). Perhaps his chief offence in American eyes will lie in his well-meant effort to include sonnets written on this side of the Atlantic; for he knows so little of our literature that his selections are almost always taken from inferior poets, or are samples of the cruder work of better poets, as in the case of Lowell. Of the profound religious sonnets of Jones Very, for instance, Mr. Caine has never heard; nor of "H. H.'s" "Burnt Ships" and "Ariadne's Farewell" and "Thought"; nor of Gilder's "I will be brave for thee"; nor of that unique sonnet by David Wasson, in the Shaksperian form, and having in it Shaksperian lines, and possessing as good a title to immortality as that of Blanco White's one sonnet:

> "As unto blooming roses summer dews,
> Or morning's amber to the tree-top choirs,
> So to my bosom are the beams that use
> To rain on me from eyes that Love inspires;
> Your love—vouchsafe it, royal-hearted Few,
> And I will set no common price thereon;
> Oh! I will keep, as Heaven his holy blue,
> Or Night her diamonds, that dear treasure won.
> But aught of inward faith must I forego,
> Or miss one drop from Truth's baptismal hand,
> Think poorer thoughts, pray cheaper prayers, and grow
> Less worthy trust, to meet your heart's demand;
> Farewell! your wish I for your sake deny.
> Rebel to love in truth to love am I."

This sonnet we find preserved for us, with other good things, in a little volume by Messrs. Alcott and Sanborn, which, like a good deal of the Concord literature, is quite as notable for what it quotes as for its original contributions—'Sonnets and Canzonets,' by A. Bronson Alcott (Boston: Roberts Bros.). Mr. Alcott's sonnets have an interest in view of his advanced years, and are certainly both clearer and simpler than his prose; they have sometimes great vigor and terseness of expression, and give some striking touches in the way of portraiture. But they have this peculiarity of arrangement, that on each alternate page there is some striking selection of prose or verse, often quite eclipsing the original contribution which fronts it on the opposite side. We do not remember, for instance, to have before seen this fine bit of Orientalism:

> "One knocked at the Beloved's door, and a Voice asked from within, Who is there? And he answered, It is I. Then the Voice said, This house will not hold me and thee; and the door was not opened. Then went the Lover into the desert, and fasted and prayed in solitude. And after a year he returned and knocked again at the door. And again the Voice asked, Who is there? And he said, It is Thyself. And the door was opened to him.—*Persian Poet.*" (P. 115.)

The volume, as it stands, is another literary fruit of that curious partnership of widely differing natures which has given to the world, for good or for evil, the "Concord Summer School of Philosophy," and which aims, with perhaps too self-conscious and overt a purpose, to prolong the intellectual fame of that celebrated town. As Mr. Alcott prefaces Mr. Sanborn's 'Life of Thoreau' with a sonnet, so Mr. Sanborn prefixes a letter and an essay to Mr. Alcott's book; and in the latter case, at least, the addition could not well be spared, and helps to justify us in classing the work rather among poetical collections than as a separate work. Passing lightly by the "canzonet"—which is really the vaguest part both of the title and of the book, and makes it remind one a little of the country chorister who knew two tunes, one of which was Old Hundred, while the other was not—Mr. Sanborn gives some keen remarks and criticisms on sonnet-writing and a rather varied mixture of good and mediocre examples. Among the former should certainly be classed two of the best early poems by that most unequal and disappointing poet Ellery Channing—those, namely (for the editor does not give the author's name), beginning,

> "Thou art like that which is most sweet and fair" (p. 22),

and

> "The day has past, I never may return" (p. 23).

Of this last, by some curious inadvertence, the editor omits the last two lines, thus spoiling it as a "fourteener." He gives, also (p. 31), that sonnet by Wasson which we have already quoted.

Another book lies before us, which resembles that just named in being a composite production and in being quite as valuable for its indirect as for its direct use. 'The Rhymester,' by the late Tom Hood, edited, with additions, by Arthur Penn (New York: D. Appleton & Co.), may or may not be a good rhyming dictionary, but the preliminary essay includes an uncommonly good anthology of poems, especially in the different French and Italian measures now so much in vogue. The original work was by Tom Hood, as he preferred to style himself—son of Thomas Hood. It was published some dozen years ago, and the American editor has taken it to pieces, inserted many good paragraphs and quotations, and added three new chapters to the original nine. These three treat of the Sonnet, of the Rondeau and the Ballade, and of other fixed forms of verse. They contain much curious knowledge and many quaint quotations, and we know no writer who has put so much agreeable information on this subject into so compact a

form. Many old-fashioned people will, no doubt, think that it is all a waste of time and space, and that all these mediævalisms are well enough summed up in Mr. Calverley's parody:

"The farmer's daughter hath soft brown hair
(Butter and eggs and a pound of cheese);
And I met with a ballad, I can't say where,
Which wholly consisted of lines like these."

TIBETAN TALES.

Tibetan Tales derived from Indian Sources. Translated from the Tibetan of the Kah-gyur by F. Anton von Schiefner. Done into English from the German, with an Introduction, by W. R. S. Ralston, M.A. [Trübner's Oriental Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

Two causes of widely different character have led to the collection and publication of a large mass of Oriental tales within the last few years. The theory of Benfey and his followers that the popular tales of Europe were consciously borrowed from Indian Buddhistic legends, invested these latter productions with an interest for a large class of readers who would never have cared for them in their specific religious character. On the other hand, it was soon discovered by the students of Buddhistic dogma and literature that anything like a complete conspectus of Buddhism involved an examination of its later development in the countries into which the ardor of its missionaries had carried it. It was just here that the two classes of investigators met. The peculiar value of the legend (letting this word cover every form of popular tales) in Buddhism is too well known to be dwelt on here; and it was soon found that an enormous number of these existed in China, Mongolia, and Tibet, sometimes as independent stories, often without any expressed Buddhistic moral or religious connection. It had previously been supposed that the great mass of Indian tales had entered Europe from the south, through Hebrew, Latin, and Spanish translations from Arabic sources, which, in turn, represented Indian originals through the intermediate stage of Persian. The publication of Jülg's 'Mongolische Märchen' (Innsbruck, 1868) showed that there was also a northern channel through which Oriental elements flowed as far west as Russia, and were thence disseminated, though not as extensively, of course, as from the southern point of distribution in Spain.

The above shows sufficiently the double interest attaching to Oriental tales and the expectations each new collection awakens. The title of the one before us is somewhat misleading. The Tibetan stories are, in reality, nothing but translations of Indian originals, and contain even fewer local traits than the average European fairy tale. The stories themselves are much less interesting than one would have a right to expect. In fact, the most attractive portion of the book is Mr. Ralston's admirable introduction, which contains materials for a history of Tibetan study, an account of the original text of the accompanying stories, and their European parallels. The stories in the present collection are taken from that part of the sacred canon of the Tibetans commonly known as the Kanjur, and which, with a second part, the Tanjur, is simply a translation from Sanskrit documents, the originals of which were discovered by Mr. Hodgson in Nepal about fifty years ago. Through the efforts of this scholar a copy of the sacred canon above mentioned was obtained and presented to the East India Company. The entire work consists of some 325 folio volumes, each weighing from four to five pounds in the edition of Pekin, which sold for $3,000. Other copies were afterward procured by Russian officials and placed in the libraries of St. Petersburg. This huge code was studied by two remarkable men, the Calcutta copy by Alexander Csoma Körösi, the Russian ones by Anton von Schiefner. The former was an enthusiastic Hungarian scholar who, as we lately had occasion to state, imagined that he could find in Central or Eastern Asia the original home of the prehistoric ancestors of the Magyars. Vámbéry says an old Hungarian, Count Teleky, gave him a curious account of the outset of Körösi's travels. The Count was standing before the gate of his house in Transylvania when he saw Körösi passing by, clad in a thin yellow nankin dress, with a stick in his hand and a small bundle." "Where are you going, M. Körösi?" asked the Count. "I am going to Asia in search of our relatives," was the answer. Körösi did not find his relatives, but he became a renowned Tibetan scholar, and his self-denying labors obtained high appreciation from his native country and from England, who welcomed and assisted him like one of her own sons. Körösi published an analysis of the Tibetan canon, but it was reserved for Schiefner, best known as the editor of the Finnic and Caucasian linguists, Alexander Castrèn and Baron von Uslar, to make its contents more popularly known. From the Dulva, the first of the seven divisions of that work, he translated into German the legends and tales which Mr. Ralston has excellently turned into English. The German versions appeared in the publications of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, and the English translation was undertaken at the express wish of Professor Schiefner, who unfortunately died before the book appeared. It is seldom that any literary work is the result of so many circumstances apparently fortuitous, but which really were produced by the intelligent effort of self-sacrificing students.

The stories themselves, as we have already observed, contain no local color. Mr. Ralston very frankly confesses this in his introduction, where he says:

"The tales contained in the sacred books of Tibet, it may be as well to remark at the outset, appear to have little that is specially Tibetan about them except their language. Stories possessing characteristic features and suffused with local color may possibly live in the memories of the natives of that region of lofty and bleak table-lands, with which so few Europeans have had an opportunity of becoming familiar. But the legends and fables which the late Professor Schiefner has translated from the Kah-gyur are merely Tibetan versions of Sanskrit writings. No mention is made in them of those peculiarities of Tibetan Buddhism which have most struck the fancy of foreign observers."

The value of the stories for purposes of comparison is not great. The longer legends resemble European popular tales but little, though many of the animal fables and some of the short stories have their counterparts in the West. Here and there, however, as Mr. Ralston remarks, even in the long narratives of the legendary class, certain features may be recognized as being common to both Europe and Asia. For example, Grimm's tale of "The Fisherman and his Wife" is substantially found in the story of King Mândhâtar; a variant of "Beauty and the Beast" is contained in the story of Kus'a, of the "Treasure-house of Rhampsinitos" in "The Clever Thief"; of Grimm's "Two Wanderers" in "The Two Brothers." "The Ungrateful Lion" is the Æsopian "Wolf and the Crane"; "The Wolf and the Sheep" is the well-known fable of "The Wolf and the Lamb," etc. Besides these more or less complete parallels, there are, as has been said, a large number of episodes or detached traits which resemble closely incidents in European tales. The resemblances have been treated by Mr. Ralston, in his introduction, with his customary thoroughness, and he has been quick to see the value of the Russian parallels, which his exceptional knowledge of the popular tales of that country enables him to cite so authoritatively. Some of the stories are anything but edifying, a fact that might be dwelt on were there any chance of the book becoming a popular work, or likely to be put into the hands of young people.

One of the shortest of the fables may be given here as a specimen of this class of stories. Its moral is out of all proportion to its length. It is entitled "The Jackal in the Elephant's Footprints," and runs as follows:

"An elephant came long ago to the Himalayas to drink water. In its track followed a jackal, which saw the elephant's footprints, and began to measure its own stride with them. 'These footprints are mine,' it said to itself. Then springing forward it set its foot in one of the footprints, and tripped over a broken piece of wood. A deity uttered this verse: In a word, O fool, thy footprints and those of the elephant are not alike. Give up this useless attempt. Thou wilt only derive weariness therefrom."

May this simple apologue not be commended to the modern fabulist, among others!

The Life of Giuseppe Garibaldi. By J. Theodore Bent, B.A. Illustrated. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A GREAT part of Garibaldi's early life was one of adventure in uncivilized countries, of which no very accurate record exists, and as soon as he became a public character his friends and enemies vied with each other in inventing fictions about him. When he was in the prime of life, Alexandre Dumas composed a memoir of him, based on an account written by Garibaldi himself, and this was, as Mr. Bent says, given to the public "under unusually favorable circumstances"—"firstly, the account was written by himself, and, from the very nature of an autobiography, must have been essentially one-sided; secondly, there was nobody, or next to nobody, on this side of the Atlantic to tell us that other side which undoubtedly there must have been; and, thirdly, the facts themselves were painted in the gayest of colors by an able romancist." On the other hand, while his admirers built up fairy-tales about him, his enemies, whenever they could get a hearing, circulated the most malicious libels to his discredit. Mr. Bent mentions an amusing instance of this in the stories which were the product of a single winter spent by Garibaldi in the house of an ardent admirer at Alassio.

"In the town of Genoa, not so many miles distant, every one confidently affirmed that the General had left this house without so much as a present to his host; that he had not paid a single bill; and that his wife and children had destroyed everything in the house. 'Poor fellow!' his friends would say, apologetically, 'he is almost in his grave; he is not to blame for this.' But on visiting Alassio to confront the story, so to speak, face to face, a very different account was given. Garibaldi had presented the owner of the house with a diamond ring, which amply compensated him for the loan; he had rewarded his physician and his chemist, leaving not a bill unpaid, and, furthermore, had distributed a large sum of money among the poor, and the inhabitants of Alassio had accompanied him to his boat, on his departure, with great demonstrations of affection."

In fact, "hardly an event" occurs in the whole of Garibaldi's career—a career in which one event succeeds another with startling rapidity—"which is not keenly contested by friend or foe. Eye-witnesses of the same scene will give diametrically opposite accounts, according to the party-feeling which influences them."

Under these circumstances, the biographer of Garibaldi would have a difficult task before him if minute accuracy were necessary to a comprehension of his career. But it is not. His life is easy enough to understand, for it was the

life of a man in whom the intellectual was entirely subordinated to feeling. Mr. Bent gives, in an introduction, a very good analysis of his character. It was the influence exercised over him by Mazzini, and the longing for a free and united Italy, which made the foundation of his character. What he did in furtherance of the idea of Italian unity was very much a matter of accident, and consequently he failed in what he wanted to accomplish more often than he succeeded. It was the same with all the conspirators and revolutionists of his generation in Italy. They effected "risings" in one Italian state after another, without any previous calculation of the possibility of meeting and overcoming the forces sure to be sent against them. They were not political men, and Garibaldi was not a military man in any proper sense. He succeeded in the Sicilian campaign simply because the Government was too weak and corrupt to endure any longer or to get any moral or physical help from any quarter. All the subsequent disasters of his career showed that he never knew when to act and when to hold back, and he finally had to be thrown into prison by the Government which he was endeavoring to extend and strengthen, in order to prevent his ruining the cause for which he had taken up arms.

Of settled beliefs or opinions, outside the great creed of Italian unity and freedom, Garibaldi had no more than a mediæval crusader. His voluminous writings reveal his intellectual poverty at every page. He had almost a passion for inaccuracy, and preferred to give an account of his Sicilian campaign in a form which makes it impossible to say what part of it is history and what is fiction. His detestation of the priests found vent in stories which are evidently mere peasant-gossip reduced to writing. His political opinions were very variable—sometimes moderate, sometimes Utopian, sometimes communistic.

But for the work he had to do, that of arousing and sustaining popular enthusiasm, and convincing the world that the time for Italian freedom had come, this mental weakness did not disqualify him in the least. Had he been a more thoughtful man, had he been careful of consequences, he would have done nothing at all; for almost everything that he attempted, even that in which he succeeded, would have seemed to a man of calm temperament an impossibility. It was his reckless daring and devotion which endeared him to the hearts of his followers, and made foreign nations feel that a country which could produce such qualities could not remain enslaved.

It would be idle to attempt to criticise in detail Mr. Bent's narrative. He seldom gives his authorities for his statements, and this, perhaps, is prudent in writing the life of a man between whose legend and whose actual life it is impossible at times to discriminate; it improves the flow of the narrative at all events. The facts connected with his life in this country have always been supposed to be wrapped in a good deal of mystery; but in Mr. Bent's hands we find it all made plain sailing. Garibaldi, it seems, was "not over-popular" in New York, because, "unlike Kossuth, he did not seek ovations," so he went to "a back street on Staten Island," where he made tallow-candles for eighteen months. This was at the same time when "Ledru Rollin was a store-porter there, Louis Blanc a dancing-master, Felix Pyat a scene-shifter, Lamartine a mendicant, while a member of the German Parliament was a barber, and another patriotic Frenchman was vending cabbages in the streets of New York," who, we make bold to guess, was no other than the subsequent Emperor of the French, Napoleon III.

The Military Telegraph during the Civil War in the United States. With an Exposition of Ancient and Modern Means of Communication, and of the Federal and Confederate Cipher Systems; also, a Running Account of the War between the States. By William R. Plum, LL.B., of the Chicago Bar. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1882. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 767. Illustrated.

THIS is a curious medley of trivial personal anecdotes about telegraph operators, glimpses of hazardous war service, an interesting chapter on military cryptographs, a little valuable history, and, as expressed in the title, a running account of the war. The author, himself an ex-operator, believed that the services during the Rebellion of the Telegraph Corps, which was not a corps, were not properly appreciated by the nation, and he has made a vigorous attempt to commemorate them, introducing by name every operator of whom he could learn anything, and an immense flood of details. When war compelled the military control of existing telegraphs and the erection of others, a few officials of telegraph companies, Mr. Anson Stager being the chief, were put in charge and were commissioned as quartermasters in order to bring them into military relations with the Government and the troops. Colonel Stager, then and since well known for his executive ability, and his assistants discharged these functions with conspicuous zeal and ability, and practically organized a new military arm. The mechanical work was done by hired commercial operators, with occasional details of soldiers; and these civilians, while generally persistent and often distinguished in the discharge of perilous and onerous duties, possessed and exercised the right of throwing up their places, except when an attempted strike was summarily suppressed. The Signal Corps, a part of the regular Army organization, was an entirely distinct body; and as far as it attempted to do electric telegraphing, it seems to have been held by these operators in jealous contempt.

This work is one continued panegyric upon the telegraph in war, where its powerful assistance in military concentration and control is beyond dispute. But the wire is not an unmixed good, and news that should not be disseminated sometimes flies as rapidly and as widely as messages properly sent. And if meddlesome orders from Washington might thus be avoided, few generals would object to an occasional destruction of the lines in their rear. But Mr. Plum's volumes, although overburdened with words and words, have the charm that always belongs to personal experience and enthusiasm discussing any phase of the war for the Union. No one will go to them to learn history, but, notwithstanding the worthlessness to the general reader of much that they contain, they throw valuable side lights upon the great war.

Selections from the Latin Poets Catullus, Lucretius, Tibullus, Propertius, Ovid, and Lucan. Edited by E. P. Crowell, Moore Professor of Latin in Amherst College. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. 300.

A SELECTION, for class-work, from the lesser, or rather the less-known, Latin poets has been long desired, and Mr. Crowell has, on the whole, satisfied the want very well. We do not miss any poem in the three smaller poets that would be regarded as indispensable; and as for Lucretius, Ovid, and Lucan, their works are so voluminous that there is room for a great variety of opinion in selecting. We should have desired from Lucretius some passage—perhaps from the second book—which would be a more complete specimen of his philosophical style and thought. The passages here given present him at his best as a poet, but college students would wish also to know him as a thinker, and to have a taste of his reasoning. The principal criticism which we should make upon the selections is in including Ovid at all. He is already tolerably well known and extensively read, and there are several fairly good editions of selections from his works. All the other authors here included are new to the ordinary college curriculum. Ovid does not seem to belong with them, and the space occupied by him could very well be devoted to giving more copious extracts from Lucretius, or to selections from Martial, a writer of genuine poetical merit and very attractive. The introductions and notes are good, but the editor seems to be very unwilling to express his own opinion. We have excellent criticisms from Mommsen, Cruttwell, Sellar, etc., and on controverted points we are told what these scholars, as well as Ellis, Munro, Paley, etc., think; but we are very seldom informed of Mr. Crowell's views.

The Catiline and Jugurtha of Sallust. Translated into English. By Alfred W. Pollard, B.A., St. John's College, Oxford. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. Pp. 274.

MR. POLLARD'S translation of Sallust is well executed: it is accurate and sufficiently elegant, but he appears to have aimed rather at accuracy than at elegance. The introduction and notes, chiefly historical, add a good deal to the value of the book, because they are not mere hand-to-mouth commentary, but rest upon an independent and intelligent comparison and study of all the sources of evidence. His conjecture as to the puzzling conspiracy of Catiline, in B.C. 66, is worthy of consideration. As is well known, Suetonius's account of this conspiracy is irreconcilable with that of Sallust and Cicero. These, of course, being contemporaries, are of higher authority; but Suetonius is a well-informed writer, whose evidence ought not to be rejected hastily. Mr. Pollard's theory is (p. xxiv.): "that there were two separate plots formed at this time, in both of which Cæsar and Autronius [both here and afterward this is carelessly spelt Antonius] were engaged. In the one [that described by Suetonius] they united with the head of the equestrian order, Marcus Crassus, and planned a legitimate *coup d'état;* in the other, they joined their fellow-democrats, Catiline and Gnæus Piso (whom we shall probably not wrong by crediting, even in B.C. 66, with some connection with the anarchists), and, if we may believe Sallust, contemplated, besides the establishment of a military power to counterbalance that of Pompey, a more widespread and indiscriminate massacre of the nobility than Crassus would have thought needful." Mr. Pollard's estimate of Sallust as an historian is sound. Regarding him as a political historian—"a consistent democrat and supporter of Cæsar"—"there is little to do but praise; there are, however, other aspects of his work in which it appears less satisfactory." His defects as a military historian are pronounced very great; and "by the way in which he draws on his imagination, he exhibits himself as the first of historical novelists." To sum up, "he may not be the equal of Herodotus, Thucydides, and Tacitus, but by his combination of excellences of style and of matter he is at least worthy to be ranked in the same class with them."

Romney and Lawrence. [Illustrated Biographies of the Great Artists.] By Lord Ronald Gower, F.S.A. Scribner & Welford. 1882.

THIS little book gives a somewhat entertaining account of fashionable artist-life in England a century or more ago, but beyond this it pos-

sesses no great interest. Romney and Lawrence were artists of respectable second-rate capacities and attainments, whose biographies may justly find place in a compend like Cunningham's 'Lives of British Artists'; but in a series of books treating of *great* artists, men like these have no proper right to appear. The names in the annals of British art which may be classed in the category of great artists are very few, and Romney and Lawrence, interesting and instructive though they be, are certainly not among them.

A Sequel to the First Six Books of the Elements of Euclid. Containing an Easy Introduction to Modern Geometry, with numerous Examples. By John Casey, LL.D., F.R.S., etc. [Dublin University Press Series.] London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. xvi.–159.

ABOUT one-third of this little work consists of such "additional propositions" in geometry as have already been embodied in the text of several treatises in use in the United States—*e. g.*, in those of Professor Chauvenet and Professor Olney. The remaining two-thirds is devoted to the Theories of the Radical Axes and Centres of Similitude of Circles, Harmonic and Anharmonic Section, Inversion, Reciprocal Polars, and other subjects which are often included under the collective name of "modern geometry." Many of these subjects are also treated by Professor Chauvenet in "Appendix II." to his Geometry, and by Professor Olney in "Part 3, chap. ii." of his treatise. They are, however, much more briefly handled by these writers. Professor Casey's work is as admirably done as it can be by one who adheres as strictly as possible to the traditional methods of Euclid. Those parts of the American treatises mentioned above are, we believe, almost universally omitted in the courses of study in our high-schools and colleges. Hence there is small expectation that the much more extended work of Professor Casey should come into use as a text-book. But, as a clear and convenient compend of the most useful and important propositions of modern geometry, and as an introduction to the works of Chasles, Salmon, Steiner, Witzschel, and other elaborate treatises, it cannot be too highly recommended to all teachers and cultivators of mathematics.

Die Jahre der Reaktion. Historische Skizze von Dr. A. Bernstein. Berlin.

THIS is a continuation, by the famous Berlin journalist and miscellaneous author, of his sketches of the revolutionary and post-revolutionary history of Prussia—'Die März-Tage,' 'Aus dem Jahre 1848,' '1849,' and 'Bis nach Olmütz.' It begins with "the day of Olmütz," November 29, 1850, when King Frederick William IV., through his minister Manteuffel, surrendered the recently accepted leadership in German affairs to Austria, and, sick of commotions and abortive political schemes, initiated a reign of reaction based on sentimental principles of guidance by divine right; and it ends with the formal assumption of the regency by that monarch's brother, the future King and Emperor William, in October, 1858, when the so-called "new era" in Prussian history opened. These eight years form one of the saddest periods in the annals of the Hohenzollern dynasty—a period of unnecessary national self-humiliation, of royal and feudal arrogance, senseless repression, wavering and hypocrisy in governing circles, and almost general disaffection. The King, dreaming, vacillating between the Constitution and the higher law of his royal conscience, haunted by fears of revolutionary machinations, and surrounded by an intriguing camarilla, followed the bigoted lead of the men of the *Cross-Gazette*, Stahl and Gerlach, until his distracted romantic mind gave way and the system collapsed.

The leading Democratic opposition journals of the period were the *Urwähler-Zeitung* and *Volks-Zeitung*, successively edited by our author, who now makes an excellent use of his rich store of political information and personal recollections, gathered during years of eager party strife, but sifted with a fairness and moderation unusual in retrospective narrations. It is true, Dr. Bernstein is still a combatant in behalf of democratic self-government, and his popular sketches are written for the political edification of the masses, and chiefly as warnings against possible relapses in constitutional life; but, while he has little more than contempt for the reactionary theories and practices of his opponents, and still likes to speak in the aggressive tone which cost the *Urwähler-Zeitung* its existence, and doomed so many numbers of the *Volks-Zeitung* to confiscation, and himself once to a protracted imprisonment, he is free from all harshness as to persons, and his political portraits are drawn with the cool impartiality of an historian. Frederick William IV. is shown up in all his unamiable weakness and morbid sentimentality; his happier successor is treated with favor, but without the least adulation; and Bismarck, then a figure of little note, appears only incidentally, like a shadow in the background. A pleasant historical optimism pervades the book, as it does all the author's writings. In point of diction, it belongs, perhaps, to the least brilliant of them. It is not free from diffuseness and repetition, and even a few slips as to facts occur, as when (in the first chapter) Victor Emanuel is introduced as King in 1848, and the reaction of that year in Naples (which began in May) is represented as a consequence of the insurrection of June in Paris. As affording a clear insight into the inner political life of the exceptionally curious, though far from attractive, period which preceded the accession of the most powerful ruler of Prussia, the work is, on the whole, very interesting.

Light: A Course of Experimental Optics, chiefly with the Lantern. By Lewis Wright. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

THIS work comprises two subjects so distinct that we see no sound reason why they should be put together. It is, in the first place, a manual of experiments with the lantern, showing how a great number of optical phenomena may be exhibited by the aid of that instrument. This part of the work has every appearance of embodying the results of wide experience and of being well adapted to the use of professors and lecturers who desire to exhibit experiments to the public or to their classes. But there is incorporated with this practical manual a general treatise on light, which has no necessary connection with the subject of lantern experiments. The apparent motive for this extension is a desire to furnish the popular lecturer with everything he must know in order to please the public.

Our conjecture that this is the object is strengthened by the concluding chapter on the Unseen Ether, the Physical Trinity, and other subjects of a theological and hyperphysical character, which an intelligent country audience is always well pleased to have a lecture conclude with. If the object of the work was to give the reader any real understanding of the subject, it is a total failure. The author appears to know nothing about it, except what he has picked up from current text-books which he does not fully understand, and what he has found in the pages of *Nature*. There is, besides, such confusion and lack of clearness in his explanations that the difficulty of the subject is greatly increased. Partly in justice to him, it may be said that the modern theory of light is reduced to a mathematical system so complex in its geometric details that it is impossible to present it except by the aid of algebraic formulæ. As the author avoids the use of this means of exposition, we must allow for the imperfect method of explanation he is compelled to adopt when we closely examine the details of his treatise.

It is often difficult to see whether the want of clearness is owing to this inherent difficulty of his language or to his own want of understanding; but the latter cause is clearly traceable in a great number of cases. He still thinks there are exactly seven spectral colors. He attempts to illustrate refraction by the lowering of the note emitted by a glass when water is poured into it, thus showing a confusion of ideas on the subject of vibrations which it is hard to explain. He shows nearly equal confusion in attempting to explain the color of mixed pigments by the absorption of light in passing through colored liquids. He thinks there is an inherent and invariable uniformity in the diffraction spectrum, so that the experimenter who follows him might well be puzzled at finding differences among spectra of different orders. Here he simply misunderstands what the text-books have told him. His lack of knowledge culminates on page 193, where he attempts to explain the phenomena of diffraction produced by the passage of light through a grating. The main conclusion to be drawn from his reasoning would be that there is a certain direction in which light cannot pass through a slit, however wide the slit may be—a *reductio ad absurdum* of his own reasoning which it is curious that he should not see. In this connection he quotes an experiment of Schwerd, but it happens that Schwerd is one of the few names which we are unable to find in any list of physicists. In speaking of the velocity of light he quotes the almost absurd result recently obtained by a couple of English experimenters with inadequate apparatus, but knows nothing of the work of Michelson, published three years ago, by which the value of this constant was determined with greater accuracy than ever before.

Along with this lack of understanding there is a lack of logical form which here and there would strike even the unscientific reader. In section 46 the author begins to explain the correction of color in the achromatic objective, but stops abruptly in the middle of the subject, to pursue it a little further in section 53. In section 65 he says that "total reflection can be explained by mathematical analysis, and is so explained by Airy, while it is impossible to explain it by any other theory that has ever yet been framed." The idea of mathematical analysis being a theory, and a theory of light at that, would, we should think, strike even an unintelligent audience very oddly.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, T. M. The Political Conspiracies Preceding the Rebellion. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Babyland for 1882. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Besant, W., and Rice, J. They Were Married. John W. Lovell Co. 10 cents.
Blunt, J. H. The Reformation of the Church of England. Vol. ii., A.D. 1547–1662. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $4 50.
Book of the Chronicles of the Pilgrims in the Land of Yahweh. D. M. Bennett.
Burr, F. A. Life and Achievements of James Addams Beaver. Philadelphia: Ferguson Bros. & Co. $1.
Butcher, S. H., and Lang, A. The Odyssey of Homer, Done into English Verse. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $2.
Converse, Harriet. Sheaves: a Collection of Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Dewing, Mrs. T. W. Beauty in the Household. Harper & Bros.
Dippold, G. T. The Great Epics of Mediæval Germany. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Encyclopædia Britannica. 9th ed. Vol. xiv. Kao-Lon. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Gonzalès, E. A Russian Princess. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.

Halévy, L. L'Abbé Constantin. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Hamilton, E. J. The Human Mind: a Treatise in Mental Philosophy. Robert Carter & Bros. $3.
Holland, C. Spiritual or Magnetic Forces. Asa K. Butts.
Houdin, R. The Tricks of the Greeks Unveiled. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Hughes, T. Memoir of Daniel Macmillan. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache. Part 16. Pire-Welen—Püt-Water. Norden: Herm. Braams.
Lodge, H. C. Ballads and Lyrics. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
McPherson, E. A Hand-book of Politics for 1882. From July 1, 1880, to July 31, 1882. Washington: J. Chapman.
Myers, P. V. N. Outlines of Ancient History. Harper & Bros.
Norris, W. E. Heaps of Money. Harper's Franklin Square Library. Two-column edition. 15 cents.
Novissimum Organon: The Certainties, Guesses, and Observations of John Thinkingmachine. St. Louis: Authorship Publishing Co.
Reade, C. Singleheart and Doubleface, etc. Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Redcliff, Rebecca F. Freckles. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Report of the Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries for 1879. Part 7. Washington: Smithsonian Institute.
Robinson, P. Under the Sun. With a Preface by Edwin Arnold. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Robinson, W. C. Elementary Law. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakespeare's History of Troilus and Cressida. Harper & Bros.
Scott-Browne's Text-Book of Phonography. Part 1. D. L. Scott-Browne.
Sumner, Prof. W. G. Andrew Jackson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Wright, L. Light: a Course of Experimental Optics. Macmillan & Co. $2.

Henry Holt & Co.

HAVE READY:

FANNY KEMBLE'S

Records of Later Life.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 21, 1882.

The Week.

THE failure of Hubbell to secure his renomination in Michigan is, of course, open to more than one interpretation. It may be that the Convention were governed, in throwing him overboard, by local considerations; and that they wished to treat him as kindly as possible under the circumstances, is shown by the fact of their passing a vote of thanks to him. But the fact nevertheless remains that the man who has made himself most conspicuous in doing what the Republican Congressional Committee allowed him to say publicly was the work most necessary at this juncture to the salvation of the Republican party, has been refused a return to Congress by his Republican constituency. No matter what the real cause of his dismissal, the Convention must have felt that it would be looked on in other parts of the country as an expression either of contempt for, or indifference to, his labors in raising the money on which the Congressional Committee says success in the approaching campaign depends. It is, therefore, in one sense, an unprecedented occurrence. It is like what in the old days, when the Republican party relied for success on appeals to opinion through the press and the platform, the relegation to private life of one of its most distinguished orators, such as Seward or Sumner, would have been. It must be remembered, too, that Hubbell is apparently not alone in thinking that the collection of money from officeholders is now the most important service to be rendered to the party. The Congressional Committee has tacitly approved of this view by allowing him to utter it in their name. Moreover, the Administration has tacitly approved of it by allowing him to send his agents through the public offices to terrorize the clerks into making contributions, as "the persons most directly interested" in Republican success. Besides this, Hubbell's Committee is now actually circulating as a Republican campaign document a speech by Mr. Eugene Hale, justifying the assessments on officeholders, mainly on the ground that the Democrats levied them in 1860, in the last days of Buchanan, when the party was in the lowest depths of degradation. To this complexion it has come at last in the once proud Republican party, which used to sweep the country with a storm of enthusiasm for great ideas.

Conventions in other places, in this State among the number, will do well to take note of Hubbell's trouble in his "home." It indicates clearly that something must be said in the platform about civil-service reform, and it must be stronger and more minute than even the famous six rules for the reform of the service which Conkling and Platt drew up and got passed by the State Convention of 1877. So much has been said on the subject in Republican platforms which has not come to anything in practice, that the public palate has got a little hardened, and needs stronger and stronger language every year. In fact, it has got to the point of requiring detailed specification of the mode in which the civil-service reform which the platforms commend is to be carried out. We have far passed the stage—and for this we owe a good deal to Hubbell's operations during the last three months—in which the subject can be safely dismissed in a few high-sounding generalities. A striking indication of the change which is coming over the public temper about it has just been afforded by the declaration, which has received 3,000 signatures of leading Republicans in and about Boston, that they will not vote for any member of Congress who is unwilling to make an explicit declaration of his adhesion to the reform.

The Philadelphia *American* — speaking, probably, for Mr. Wharton Barker—makes some explanations about the money Dorsey is supposed to have spent in "carrying Indiana," which go to relieve Dorsey of some of the imputations brought on him in connection with it, partly by his own character, and partly by the very peculiar way in which Vice-President Arthur alluded to his Indiana operations at the famous dinner given him in this city. It has always puzzled outsiders to know what was done with so much money in Indiana. The *American* says it was needed for "picketing" the State line to keep out colonists from Kentucky, who are, it is said, in the habit of coming over to "carry Indiana" for the Democrats. In fact, there seems to be hardly anybody in the Western country, who is not other wise occupied in the month of October, and takes any interest in politics, who does not lend a hand in "carrying Indiana." The United States Post-office in General Grant's day was, indeed, in some political circles, looked on as existing principally for the purpose of "carrying Indiana," and only secondarily for the conveyance of the mails. We hope, however, that the Philadelphians will not be too liberal with their money for "picketing" purposes. "Picketing" is a very vague term, and we do not believe that picketing, when superintended by the likes of Dorsey, is the noble thing which it seems on paper. We do not believe, in short, that Dorsey's pickets occupied themselves solely in keeping wicked men out of the State on election day. The *American* contributes further some very slightly veiled information about that estimable politician, Jay Gould, who, it intimates, offered the Republicans unlimited funds if he could have something to say about filling the vacancies on the Supreme Bench, and, failing in this, sent out a good sum, by a bird of his own feather, to "carry Indiana" for Hancock. All of this, except his designs on the Supreme Court, has long been known; what was the precise rascality he had in his eye when he contributed or offered to contribute to the Republican campaign chest, of course only few were able to say.

For some time the newspaper organs of the colored men have been hinting that they are rather tired of working for nothing. That is to say, they have been voting Republican tickets and asking no questions solely in consideration of past services rendered them by the party in the matter of freedom and equal rights, quietly accepting emancipation and the suffrage as a perpetual mortgage, the interest on which must be paid promptly every election day. Now, however, there is a disposition to inquire into the validity of this lien. The colored men are beginning to think that the old score is about wiped out; that the debt incurred before, during, and shortly after the war, has been fully paid by steadfast and straight voting, and that for further political services they should receive some equivalent in the form of a fair division of the fruits of their labors. They say that they have been working long enough without wages, under a system which has substituted a sort of party slavery in place of that kind from which they have escaped. Henceforth they propose to work on shares. This is the substance of the movement which was begun in this city on Friday by the organization of a Colored Republican Central Committee. Resolutions were adopted to the effect that the party has "failed to recognize the worth of the colored people as voters," and that hereafter "due recognition" must be given "in the Government service"—that is, in the distribution of offices. The colored voters intend henceforth to examine the color of a ticket before voting it. This demand is not surprising, and, under the existing party system of rewards for party services, it is not unreasonable.

Some of the colored Republicans of the Second Congressional District of Mississippi have resolved that, inasmuch as their party in that district "has been committed by its leaders to the support of the Greenback party," they "declare their steadfast allegiance" to Republican principles—which of course heretofore have been the opposite of Greenbackism; and that they will "seek to defeat the election of General James R. Chalmers" to Congress, "he being in no sense a Republican or entitled to their support." The position of these Republicans certainly is consistent and respectable. The Mississippi alliance with Greenbackism is as disgraceful as the Virginia alliance with repudiation; and it requires an extraordinary measure of effrontery, even for professional politicians, to present as a regular Republican candidate a Democrat like Chalmers, who has been turned out of Congress for the meanest and most shameless election frauds, who is "the recognized apostle of the 'Mississippi Plan,'" and who a little while ago was described by these politicians as "the hero of the Fort Pillow massacre" and the perpetrator of the worst atrocities during and since the war.

The Boston *Advertiser* makes the curious mistake of calling "four Irishmen who are doing good service for Great Britain just now"—

Lord Dufferin, Admiral Seymour, Sir Garnet Wolseley, and Lord Beresford—"all Kelts." The New York *Sun*, in correcting this, makes a mistake of its own, for it says that "only one of them is a Kelt," Lord Dufferin. The fact is that Admiral Seymour is neither an Irishman nor a Kelt, and that Lord Dufferin is no more a Kelt than Sir Garnet Wolseley. His family name is Blackwood, and his ancestor, a Scotchman, settled in Ireland in the seventeenth century. Since then the Blackwoods have intermarried with Joyces, Stephensons, Temples, Finlays, but with no Kelts, unless Miss Sheridan was a Kelt, which is extremely doubtful. The truth is, the intermixture of blood among all classes in Ireland has been very great, so that it is questionable whether the island now contains any pure Kelts at all; but as a general rule, if any exist, they are to be found among the Catholic Macs or O's. The chances are a thousand to one that a Protestant Irishman who is neither a Mac nor an O' has little or no Keltic blood in his veins. But it is none the less true that the Keltic temperament is more or less diffused through the Irish of all breeds by a process which in every country works greater or less assimilation even without mixture of blood. Both Sir Garnet Wolseley and Lord Dufferin are, though not Kelts, distinctively Irish in mind and manner, and the Beresfords, though very pure Anglo-Norman, have outdone most Kelts in love of what the Kelts call "divilmint," or, in other words, in exuberant animal spirits. Wellington was one of the few examples of an Irishman with a very English temperament, but he was peculiar even in his own family. His brothers were men of the Dufferin type, though none of them, we believe, cared much for the country of their birth, in which their ancestors had dwelt on one side for three hundred and on the other for seven hundred years—one of the results of a deplorable political history of which Ireland has had abundant experience.

M. D'Haussonville, one of the descendants of Lafayette, who came out last year to the Yorktown celebration, has been publishing reminiscences of his trip in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, which are very agreeable reading, curiously accurate for a French writer, and for the most part very complimentary to the country and its institutions. But he tells one story of his experience of the New York police which is not pleasant reading, and, in fact, is calculated to bring the blush of shame to the cheek of patriotism. M. D'Haussonville is a man of a philanthropic turn, and, after seeing other things illustrative of the condition of the poor in this city, wished to see the low lodging-houses. A policeman was detailed to accompany him on his visits to them, which lasted about a quarter of an hour. The rest of the story we will tell in his own words:

"In passing before a wretched-looking drinking shop, my policeman had said: 'This is the only place where you can have a nice drink.' I had taken no notice of this hint, the meaning of which, I confess, had escaped me. As we were going to separate, I was thanking him, when he said: 'Aren't you thirsty?' This time I understood, but wishing to see how he would take it, I answered: 'No, and besides I am just going to dinner.' 'Well, then,' said he, 'give me something to drink your health with.' I then went with him to a grogshop, where we took a glass of an atrocious reddish-looking liquid, adorned with the name of 'Sicilian Wine,' and I gave him a dollar; but I could not help thinking of a certain Parisian gendarme, who once passed the whole night with me going through the low quarters of Paris, and to whom I offered a napoleon, but who refused it, saying that he was on duty. There is good, after all, in the French police, and I only wish that it was as well paid by the city and as vigorously supported by the public as the police of New York."

It would be curious now to hear the reflections of the New York policeman on M. D'Haussonville. They probably consisted simply in the proposition that he was a "mean cuss" for not having given him five dollars.

Professor Esmarch, a surgeon of great authority and reputation in Europe, has printed for general circulation a lecture delivered by him at Kiel, reviewing the surgical treatment of President Garfield. He concludes that the wound was not necessarily mortal, that the cause of the suppuration which led to a fatal result was not the bullet, but the repeated probing and examination of the wound by fingers and instruments not protected from septic infection by Lister's method. He does not think the splenic artery would have ruptured had not putrid suppuration been established by this means. He refers to the popular superstition that the bullet is the cause of all danger in a gunshot wound, and asserts that had no search been made for the ball, and the wound been properly dressed so as to exclude germs, the President would have been alive to-day. The history of this case shows indeed that truth is stranger than fiction. A fatal misfortune seems to have attended every step. If we may believe a majority of the surgeons in attendance, no satisfactory examination of the wound was made when it should have been done; no one seems to know how or by what authority the principal physician was called—the very positions of assassin and victim are disputed. Then comes the man with the induction balance, which was thought to be a very triumph of science, and he informs us, in a paper read before the Montreal meeting of the American Association, that he mistook a bed-spring for the bullet. Afterward came an autopsy, in which the bullet was not found in the body at all, but in the débris removed from the intestinal cavity; its situation, however, was said to be determined at about two feet from the situation where the surgeons expected to find it. Probably all these things should not affect the impartial minds of the Board of Audit appointed by Congress to adjudge the expenses in the Garfield case, but it certainly is not the way the outside public look at it. Dr. Bliss having started in with a bill of $25,000, all the others must be equally conscious of their deserts in order to get a proper proportion when the "scaling down" comes. Dr. Lamb has a modest charge of $1,000 for his services in performing the autopsy. We understand that he is in the habit of making post-mortem examinations, and we should be very much surprised to learn that he ever received a tenth part of that sum for any autopsy he ever held. It has always been supposed that President Garfield was, in all practical respects of daily life and death, the same as any other citizen, but these be royal charges. It is understood that Dr. Bliss bases his enormous fee upon certain "consequential damages" to his practice. We may perhaps be allowed to doubt whether the added importance attached to "the President's physician," and the notoriety resulting therefrom, have not done something to help his practice, and may not be considered as a fair set-off to the "damages."

The activity in the money market increased as the week advanced, and the rate for demand loans on stocks reached 7@8 per cent., and the discount rate for prime mercantile paper 7 per cent. The Bank of England discount rate was also advanced to 5 per cent., but the effect of this action was partly neutralized by the closing of the war in Egypt, which had steadily drawn gold thither from England. At the Stock Exchange, prices advanced early in the week, but during the latter part showed a declining tendency, on account of the rise in the rate for money. The tonnage of the railroads is steadily increasing, and the rates on it are kept up to profitable figures. The corn crop is turning out very much larger than was expected, and the crop of wheat, which is now substantially gathered, exceeds any previous yield. The general trade of the country continues in a sound and healthy condition, and is of large volume.

The Anti-Monopolists, in their Convention at Saratoga on the 13th inst., adopted a platform demanding Government supervision and "control" of corporations, so that the capital invested shall return "reasonable dividends"; free canals; the purchase of the telegraph-lines by the Government, and their operation as part of the postal system; the establishment of postal savings banks; a currency to be issued by the Treasury only; laws to prevent "combinations to inflate or depress prices"; the repeal of all "objectionable sections" of the Penal Code; a State Labor Bureau, with power to arbitrate, and, in case of corporations, to "establish and alter the wages to be paid"; pure judges; the abolition of the prison contract system; the deduction of incumbrances from real estate for purposes of taxation; reform of the civil service; woman suffrage, and "equal pay with men for equal work."

The critics and moralists and reformers who are always haranguing the American people about their decadence and corruption do not seem to notice the damaging blow to their view of the condition of the country given by the Star-route jury. According to the accounts of the foreman and others, attempts were made to bribe them all with offers of from $25,000 down to $200. The jury was a common, and, to judge by its verdict, extremely ignorant jury, and yet every one of these offers was spurned, if not "with the toes of their boots," at any rate with scorn. This shows that while attempts at bribery may be rife, the purity of the people may be relied on to make them unsuccessful, which is a very satisfactory though singular state of things. The fact is, that the condition of society in Washington closely resembles that of Greece and Rome in their purest and best days, when, as every school-

boy knows, the most incorruptible public characters were continually being approached by powerful Government officials like the Attorney-General, though they always turned a deaf ear to corrupt proposals. Dickson's account of himself can only be matched in Plutarch. One such unblushing example of virtue ought to offset a great many Ring-thieves.

Mr. Blaine has been writing a paper on "The South American Policy of the Garfield Administration," which appears in a Chicago magazine. In it he declares that this policy had two principal objects in view: first, to bring about peace and prevent future wars in North and South America; second, to cultivate such friendly commercial relations with all American countries as would lead to a large increase in the export trade of the United States, by supplying those fabrics in which we are abundantly able to compete with the manufacturing nations of Europe. This was certainly an excellent policy, but it was one of those cases in which much depended for success on the means taken to bring it about. The means taken by Mr. Blaine were peculiar, and he did not succeed; and there is something very characteristic in his attempt to make out that his policy, which was only fully developed after Garfield had been shot, should now be regarded as Garfield's, and in this way attempt to curry favor with Independents. He might as well attribute it to Washington.

Henry George has made a demand for compensation against the British Government for unjustifiable arrest in Ireland. He was going about in Ireland with one of the Eton masters, when he was arrested by the police, with his companion, as a suspicious person, and kept in custody for several hours, until an examination could be had before a magistrate, when he explained all that seemed queer in his movements. The arrest was certainly a stupid blunder, but it does not seem to have been accompanied with any needless annoyance, and we doubt whether the State Department, even if so disposed, can make out a case which will entitle him to anything in the nature of a pecuniary salve. A foreigner who goes voluntarily into a country in a disturbed state, in which suspicious persons of his nationality do abound, is, as we have all along maintained, entitled to a speedy trial if arrested on suspicion, and to a speedy release if the suspicion proves groundless; but we know of no precedent or rule which exempts him even from arrest on suspicion. No government is expected to guarantee travellers against mistakes of this kind under such circumstances. Mr. George's case, too, is somewhat peculiar, inasmuch as he is an ardent advocate of the confiscation of landed property, so that his appearance in Ireland at this juncture might fairly be called inopportune at least. A spark is in itself a harmless, pretty, and even useful thing, but a spark in a powder magazine is mischief in its most malignant form.

Arabi's force at Tel-el-Kebir appears to have been just what all that was known of the Egyptian Army before the insurrection would have led us to expect. He had apparently mustered in all about 50,000 men, of whom one-half were regulars, the rest raw levies, whom a well-filled arsenal enabled him to arm. The complete collapse of the insurrection on the defeat of the army, and the ready submission of the Notables, in Cairo as well as elsewhere, confirms the belief that the movement was mainly military, or in other words was the work of revolted soldiery, which the population accepted as Orientals accept all things which seem irresistible. Arabi's resistance was almost unquestionably due in a large degree to the common Oriental ignorance of the resources of foreign states. But he must also have relied largely on some disagreement among the Powers which would impede England's action, and he must have been secretly encouraged by Turkey. In fact, during a large part of the time this encouragement was not secret at all.

If the London *Times* in any degree reflected the sentiments or foreshadowed the action of the Gladstone Ministry, its lucubrations about the propriety of putting Arabi Pasha and his leading confederates to death would be very unpleasant reading. To hang Arabi or any of his men for rebellion, considering the part they have played in the Government of Egypt for the last two years, would be a very shameful and unjustifiable thing for the British to do, and even still more shameful to permit the Khedive to do, as he owes his power to do it solely to British bayonets. We may be sure, however, that it is something which Mr. Gladstone will not permit, though there is probably not a blatant Tory Jingo, in or out of England, who would not like him to do it, partly for love of seeing some unsuccessful man hanged, and partly for love of seeing Gladstone disgrace himself and his Cabinet. But assuredly, if, as we have already said, that immense crime, the burning and pillage of Alexandria, be brought home to Arabi or anybody else, hanging will be too good for him. If he should be hanged, however, for anything, Arabi would have no right to complain. One of the causes of his revolt against the Khedive was the interference of the latter with the execution of the sentence which Arabi had got passed by a packed court-martial on a number of Circassian officers whom he accused, on trumpery evidence, of conspiring against him. He had them sentenced to banishment to the Sudan, a terrible region, in which death through the climate is certain to white men. Besides this, no good Mussulman—and Arabi is said to be a Mussulman theologian—can consistently object to being hanged by any Christian who gets him into his power, inasmuch as he is taught from his childhood, and, if pious, firmly holds, that the killing of unbelievers is a duty, which circumstances may put in abeyance, but which is never wholly extinct. No one can cherish such a view very long without having a sense of reciprocity grow up within him which would make his own execution by a victorious enemy seem a natural, if not a becoming, attention.

It appears that a tribunal of some kind is to be set up for his trial and that of five or six other pashas, who led in the rebellion. As for Arabi himself, the Khedive more than once condoned his mutiny, and acquiesced in his impudent usurpations. Had he cut him down or arrested him when he made his first appearance at the palace at the head of the revolted troops, the "national" movement would probably have ended there. But there is no denying that after that Arabi received much encouragement to go on with his agitation, if in no other way, from the silence or submission of both the Khedive and the representatives of the Powers. The military revolt began with the fall of the Nubar Ministry, in April, 1879. During the remaining two years the Khedive was left to struggle with it as best he could, the Army growing all the while more turbulent and insolent. It was not till the 8th of January, 1882, that France and England sent the famous joint note, promising the Khedive that they would give him armed support if the worst came to worst. But just before this, on the 5th, Arabi was appointed Assistant Secretary of War, with the approval of the French and English Consuls-General and Controllers, on the ground that it was better to have him in the Government than outside of it. It is not surprising that under these circumstances the joint note should have simply exasperated him and his confederates, and that when he received it there should have been, as Mr. Blunt says, a peculiar gleam in his eye. Nor is it surprising if by this time he had come to the conclusion that England and France were afraid of Egypt and the Egyptians, and might be defied with impunity. These things must be taken into account in trying him for either treason or mutiny.

Now that the Egyptian Army has been dissolved, the first thing in the Egyptian problem which comes up for discussion is, of course, the mode in which the country is to be policed, and policing in Egypt involves the maintenance of some force capable of keeping the Bedouins in order. The idea of a gendarmerie with English officers—something like the irregular native cavalry in India, we presume—has been suggested in England, and is approved of by a portion of the French press, and is most likely what will be done. But it will hardly do for some time to come to leave Alexandria and Cairo without a small English garrison to reinforce the police if necessary. The Khedive's position must long, if not always, be precarious. He is a weak man, who has been restored by Christian arms, and will probably be permanently discredited thereby. In fact, it is a great pity that he cannot be got rid of, and something more practical and useful set up in his place. He must prove a source of embarrassment for a good while, if not always. Mehemet Ali's dynasty in Egypt owed all its power to the vigor and truculence of the old man and his son Ibrahim, both of whom had a short method of dealing with Arabi Beys. The line has apparently run out, as far as strength goes, and as it has no sacred character, the sooner it goes the better. An effete despot is a bad thing anywhere, but it is unusually bad in the East, unless he can set up as a Caliph or "theologian."

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, Sept. 13, to TUESDAY, Sept. 19, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

MR. BLAINE has published a paper, in the *Weekly Magazine*, of Chicago, on "The South American policy of the Garfield Administration," in which he says that the two principal objects of the foreign policy of Garfield's Administration were to "bring about peace, and prevent future wars in North and South America," and "to cultivate such friendly commercial relations with all American countries as would lead to a large increase in the export trade of the United States." He then goes on to defend the steps he took to bring about these very laudable objects.

By Tuesday night most of the delegates to the New York Republican State Convention had arrived in Saratoga, and the canvassing for votes was going on in earnest. It is impossible to predict the result of the Convention, as the situation is such as to require actual balloting to determine which of the candidates for the Governorship is the leading one.

The State Labor Convention of New York adjourned on Wednesday without putting a ticket in the field.

The New Hampshire Greenbackers held a State Convention on Wednesday. The platform declares against fusion with either of the present parties, and favors a general railroad law.

The Democratic State Convention of Massachusetts met on Tuesday, and nominated Benjamin F. Butler, of Lowell, for Governor, Samuel W. Bowerman for Lieutenant-Governor, D. N. Skillings for Secretary of State, and William A. Hodges for Treasurer. Gen. Butler was nominated by acclamation. One of the resolutions censured the "weak and vacillating course of the President toward Irish-Americans and Great Britain," and called for the release and indemnification of imprisoned American citizens in Ireland. Another of the resolutions was in behalf of labor reform and of reasonable legislation to lessen the hours of labor.

The Independent Republican campaign in Pennsylvania was opened on Friday by a mass-meeting at Horticultural Hall in Philadelphia. The attendance was large and enthusiastic.

A despatch from Cincinnati on Friday announced that the Republican County Convention had adopted a resolution declaring "that in accordance with the action of the Republican State Convention of 1880 at Cleveland, and of that at Columbus in 1882, we demand that the present Legislature prepare and submit to the popular vote a clause, amending the State Constitution, which shall enable the Legislature to regulate the traffic in intoxicating liquors."

The Republican State Convention of Colorado met on Friday and nominated Ernest L. Campbell for Governor. The platform denounces the demonetization of silver, and recommends the apportionment of the funds arising from the sale of public lands to the sinking of artesian wells in Colorado.

The Republicans of the Oregon Legislature held a caucus on Monday night and nominated John H. Mitchell for United States Senator by thirty-four votes. The Democrats have nominated Judge P. P. Prime.

On Wednesday the Republican State Convention of South Carolina adopted a resolution offered by Congressman Mackay, "that the Convention of Union Republicans of South Carolina, while repudiating the financial principles advocated by the Greenback party, and reaffirming the principles of the Union Republican party, do recommend that at the next general election the voters of the State, in the interest of a free ballot and a fair count, cast their ballots as Republicans for the State ticket nominated by the Greenback-Labor Convention on the 6th inst."

Official returns from sixty-one counties of Arkansas show the vote for Governor to have been: Berry, Democrat, 75,940; Slack, Republican, 39,947; Garland, Greenbacker, 8,271. The State Senate will stand: Democrats 28 out of 30, and the House 73 Democrats out of 91.

Governor Colquitt, of Georgia, intended to appoint the son of the late Senator from that State, Ben. H. Hill, to fill the unexpired term of his father in the Senate. Mr. Hill, however, has declined the prospective appointment, stating that the office is "beyond his aspirations."

The Appointment Officer of the Treasury Department characterizes as untrue the published accounts of the recent appointment and promotion of a large number of colored employees in that Department.

An Albany branch of the New York Civil-Service Reform Association was organized on Monday, with a list of officers which includes a number of the most influential and substantial citizens of both parties in the city.

The annual meeting of the New York State Bar Association was opened at Albany on Tuesday. The President of the Association, Mr. Sherman S. Rogers, delivered the opening address. Attorney-General Brewster made a short speech, in which he referred to the Star-route cases, saying that the people had recently witnessed something in the administration of justice which had shocked the whole country. He said that if juries could be handled and dealt with as the Star-route jury had been, then apparently trial by jury was itself a doubtful legal remedy. But he said he did not believe this. He believed it was only a demonstration of the usefulness of juries, for from the evil consequences here exposed there is a moral reaction, and a moral judgment, which those who undertook the corrupting process will never escape.

On Friday Judge Wylie set aside the verdict in the Star-route cases. Miner and Rerdell are to be granted a new trial, and the second trial of these two, together with Brady, the Dorseys, and Vaile, will begin on the first Monday in December next. Turner is acquitted. The ground on which the new trial was granted was the general unreasonableness of the verdict, and the dragging of the bribery matter into the deliberations of the jury-room by Foreman Dickson, contrary to the instructions of the Court.

On Wednesday evening Foreman William Dickson, of the Star-route jury, sent a letter to the Attorney-General in which he stated that an officer in the Department of Justice, Henry A. Bowen, a Special Agent assigned to Arizona, offered him (Dickson) a bribe to influence his judgment and verdict. Dickson adds that a sworn statement of the detailed facts has been filed with the District Attorney of the District of Columbia. Dickson also asks the Attorney-General for protection against the attacks which have been made upon his private character by officers and employees in the Department of Justice.

A statement prepared at the Pension Bureau shows that during the fiscal year ending June 30, 40,939 original claims for pensions and 34,148 claims for increase of pensions were filed. The number of claims rejected was 21,295, and there were allowed during the year 27,664 original applications and 10,231 for increase of pensions.

During August there arrived in the customs districts of Boston, Baltimore, Detroit, Huron, Minnesota, New Orleans, New York, Passamaquoddy, Philadelphia, and San Francisco, 43,076 immigrants, 7,047 citizens of the United States returned from abroad, and 2,470 aliens not intending to remain in the United States.

The Census Bureau has issued a bulletin classifying the population of the United States by nativity. The number of native-born is: white, 36,843,291; colored, 6,632,549; total population, 50,155,783.

Arrangements have been made for announcing the approach of frost in some of the tobacco-raising States. The Signal Bureau at Washington will telegraph to central points, and the growers will be informed in all directions by the firing of cannon.

Secretary Teller has appointed a Commission to negotiate with the Sioux Indians for the cession of part of their reservation in Dakota. The appointment of the Commission is in accordance with a provision of the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill.

Comptroller Lawrence, Treasurer Gilfillan, and Second Comptroller Upton, composing the Board of Audit for passing upon the claims growing out of the last illness and funeral of President Garfield, at a meeting held Monday evening, examined all of the claims on file. It was found that not more than half the claims presented were drawn up in accordance with the provision of the circular defining the shape in which they should be prepared. It was agreed that all the claimants should be requested to file their bills and proof with the Board before October 20. The Board has received a claim from the Independent Ice Company for $1,516 92.

Mr. Henry George has written a letter to President Arthur formally calling his attention to his recent experience in Ireland. He says that he was imprisoned in spite of his assertion that he was an American citizen and on legitimate business; moreover, that such cases are constantly occurring, and that many American citizens in Ireland have been subjected to even worse indignities and hardships. In conclusion he says: "I submit to you that it is due to their own dignity that the United States should claim for their citizens travelling in countries with which they maintain relations of amity exemption from wanton annoyances, unreasonable inquisitions, and imprisonment upon frivolous pretexts. Yet I regret to say that the belief prevails there that the United States take no interest in the treatment of their citizens in foreign parts."

Chief-Engineer George W. Melville, of the *Jeannette*, together with the seamen William Ninderman and William Noros, arrived in New York on Wednesday by the Cunard steamer *Parthia*. They were received with great enthusiasm by representatives of various official bodies and a crowd of other people.

A card has been issued by Lieutenant John W. Danenhower, denying that he said that if Engineer Melville had not turned back from the first search, Captain De Long and his companions might have been saved. Lieutenant Danenhower also denies that there was ever any ill-feeling between himself and Engineer Melville. He says that, on the contrary, his relations with him have always been of a very pleasant character.

The Unitarian General Conference opened its biennial session at Saratoga on Tuesday morning, with Governor John D. Long, of Massachusetts, in the chair. Governor Long delivered the opening address.

A monument to Capt. William Morgan, who divulged the secrets of masonry, and was supposed to have been abducted and murdered therefor in 1826, was unveiled at Batavia, N. Y., with appropriate ceremonies, on Wednesday.

A despatch from Pittsburgh on Saturday stated that the compromise offered by the striking puddlers had been rejected by the iron-masters. The manufacturers declared that nothing short of a full surrender on the part of the strikers would be accepted. District meetings of the Amalgamated Association were held on Tuesday in Pittsburgh, Wheeling, and Youngstown, at which it was decided to withdraw all the demands made on June 1, and to present the old scale to the manufacturers for their signature. This virtually ends the strike, and it is believed that the manufacturers will sign the scale and

resume at once. The strike has lasted 116 days, and it is estimated that the loss to the men in wages is between $8,000,000 and $10,000,000, while the loss to the manufacturers is only conjectural.

A terrific cyclone passed over the township of Winsted, Connecticut, on Thursday night. A number of persons were injured and great damage done to property.

The yellow fever is spreading in Pensacola, Florida, and Brownsville, Texas. In addition to this, Brownsville is being threatened with an inundation, as the water is still rising in the streets, and many families are being driven from their homes by it every day.

The international military match between representative teams of twelve from Great Britain and the United States was shot at the Creedmoor range on Thursday and Friday. On Thursday the teams shot at targets distant 200, 500, and 600 yards, the British making nineteen more points than the Americans. On Friday the teams shot at targets placed respectively at 800, 900, and 1,000 yards' distance. The result of the two days' shooting was that the British team was victorious by 170 points. The total scores for the two days' shooting were: for the British team, 1,975; for the American team, 1,805.

A race between the well-known oarsmen Courtney and Ten Eyck and Dempsey took place at Alexandria Bay on Monday. Courtney won by two lengths.

The three days' festival of the "Mystic Order of the Oriole" in Baltimore closed on Thursday evening with a spectacular procession, witnessed by many thousands of people.

FOREIGN.

At dawn on Wednesday morning the British army, under General Wolseley, having marched from Kasassin during the night, attacked Tel-el-Kebir and carried the works in twenty minutes. The attack was a complete surprise, and Arabi, with such of his troops as could escape, fled to Zagazig. The English loss was about 300, while the Egyptian loss is estimated at 1,500 killed and wounded, sixty guns and several thousand prisoners captured. Immediately after the battle General Macpherson made a forced march with the Indian contingent, and occupied Zagazig at four o'clock in the afternoon. On Thursday the British troops entered Cairo, where they were "enthusiastically received." All men of rank who were concerned in the rebellion, except Abdellal Pasha, the commander at Damietta, made submission, and Arabi Bey and Tulba Pasha surrendered unconditionally.

On Monday the Egyptian Council of Ministers proposed a decree, which was signed by the Khedive, dissolving the Egyptian army, and stating that officers guilty of rebellion would be prosecuted and punished according to military law. Riaz Pasha, Minister of the Interior, states that as the restoration of order will be impossible unless capital punishment is awarded to the leaders of the revolt, he shall abandon the country if any milder sentence is passed against them. The question of what is to be done with the rebel leaders is now engrossing attention in England. Upon the arrival of the Khedive in Cairo a regularly constituted court will be established for the public trial of the rebel chiefs, who will be allowed to engage counsel. A despatch to the New York *Tribune* on Sunday says that the charge of military insubordination will probably be got rid of, as the rebels acted with the sanction of the Caliph, but that for those concerned in the massacre at Alexandria the severest punishment will be demanded.

On Tuesday Abdellal Pasha telegraphed from Damietta that he never intended to disobey the orders of the Khedive, and intimated his readiness to surrender. He says he awaits the Khedive's orders. All day Monday and Tuesday bodies of infantry, cavalry, and artillery poured in from Abukir and other places, and laid down their arms. Twenty-three thousand men altogether had on Tuesday made submission at Kafr-el-Dwar. The Ministry of the Interior has been transferred to Cairo, and the Khedive will go there on Thursday, and on the 27th instant there will be a grand military review there. The Egyptians are everywhere returning to their homes and working on their farms.

Lord Dufferin has informed Said Pasha that as the military operations in Egypt are practically terminated, there is no longer, in the opinion of her Majesty's Government, any necessity for a conclusion of the military convention.

The news of General Wolseley's brilliant victory was of course received in England with great rejoicing, and the press and people unite in praising him and giving him all the credit for the success of the campaign. There were, however, no illuminations or public demonstrations. The Archbishop of York has invited the clergy to observe next Sunday as a day of thanksgiving, and publishes a special service for the occasion.

The Indian Government announces the issue of a loan of 25,000,000 rupees, to meet the expenses of the Indian contingent in Egypt.

The Russian Minister of Finance announces that during the first half of the present year the receipts of the Government increased 19,500,000 rubles, and the expenditure decreased 23,500,000 rubles. A despatch to the London *Times* from St. Petersburg says that the allotted term of a year for the maintenance of the minor state of siege in St. Petersburg and a few other towns expired on the 16th inst. A Russian newspaper hears that it will be prolonged for another year.

A despatch from St. Petersburg on Tuesday said that the Czar would probably start for Moscow that night for his coronation. All private telegraphic service and railway traffic in the direction of Moscow will be suspended until his arrival there, and 30,000 troops will be stationed along the line as far as Moscow. Absolute secrecy is maintained in regard to the actual date of the coronation.

The Emperor Francis Joseph, of Austria-Hungary, and the members of the Imperial family, arrived in Trieste on Sunday to be present at the celebration of the anniversary of the incorporation of Trieste with Austria. They were warmly greeted by the people. A man named Overdank, a native of Trieste, with two bombs in his pocket, was arrested at Ronchi, and the subsequent "extraordinarily enthusiastic" reception of the Imperial family at the theatre is said to have been partly due to the impression that the arrest of Overdank had "averted a catastrophe."

It is rumored that Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary, is likely to be appointed to a seat in the Cabinet, and that fresh appointments will be made to the Presidency of the Council and the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster before the next session of Parliament, and that Mr. Childers, War Secretary, will become Chancellor of the Exchequer.

It is announced from Ireland that Messrs. Parnell, Davitt, Dillon, and Brennan have decided to hold a conference in the autumn, in order to start a national movement in which various movements now being carried on separately will be consolidated upon a platform of national self-government, the abolition of landlordism, the promotion of home industries, the rights of labor, and paid representation in Parliament.

The Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, who has been travelling in Connemara, has been received with much attention during his trip. On Friday he visited the scene of the murder of the Joyce family, near Cong. He was strongly escorted, and the route was guarded by parties of police.

In connection with the case of Patrick Walsh, whose execution for the murder of Martin Lyden was fixed for Friday next, a legal difficulty has arisen, it being alleged that in passing sentence against Walsh Judge Lawson failed to use the phraseology prescribed by law. On Tuesday it was announced that Earl Spencer had definitively declined to respite the prisoner.

A woman was shot by a process-server near Glenties, County Donegal, while resisting the seizure of her cattle. The process-server has been arrested.

At Swineford, County Mayo, a thousand ejectment decrees are posted at the Courthouse at the suit of Lord Dillon. No rent has been paid on Lord Dillon's estate since 1879.

A number of "suspects" were released from prison on Tuesday. The remaining suspects in prison, with the exception of those who can be brought to trial, will be speedily discharged from custody.

The race for the St. Leger stakes for three-year-olds on Wednesday, at the Doncaster September meeting, was won by Lord Falmouth's brown filly Dutch Oven. Geheimniss, the favorite, came in second, and Shotover third.

The race between the Hillsdales, the American crew, and the Thames Rowing Club crew came off on Friday afternoon, and was won by the latter by four lengths. The Hillsdales led for two miles and then broke a slide. Half a mile from the start the Hillsdales forced the Thames crew over toward a barge and fouled them badly.

Lord Aberdare, Baroness Burdetts-Coutts; William Black and Walter Besant, the novelists; Norman Lockyer, and Philip H. Calderon have joined the Longfellow Memorial Committee.

A cable despatch received in London on Thursday announced that the British man-of war *Phœnix* had been wrecked off Prince Edward's Island. All the materials, guns, etc., have since been taken off, and the ship is now offered for sale as she lies on the beach. None of the crew were lost.

A contract has been signed between the Portuguese Government and Mr. Braem, for the laying of a cable between Lisbon and the United States, touching at the Azores.

All the political parties in Prussia are actively engaged in prosecuting the electoral campaign. The Berlin papers on Monday published addresses to the electors.

The International Electrical Exhibition was formally opened at Munich on Sunday.

Heavy floods have occurred in Lombardy, Venetia, and the Tyrol. The city of Trent is submerged and Verona is inundated, but there has been no loss of life.

King Humbert has conferred the decoration of the Order of the Crown of Italy on Col. J. Schuyler Crosby, late American Consul at Florence.

The eleventh Federal Congress of Mexico met on Sunday. Señor Rubio, father-in-law of Gen. Porfirio Diaz, was elected President of the Senate, and Señor Dublan of the Chamber of Deputies.

President Gonzalez's message to the Mexican Congress refers with satisfaction to the progress of the Republic; speaks approvingly of the agreement with Guatemala and the establishment of diplomatic relations with Chili; says that "the Government of the United States, a country with which we are connected by other interests in addition to those of proximity, has given and received from us proofs of the sincerest friendship." He refers to the recent agreement for crossing the Rio Grande and for reconsidering certain claims against Mexico, and approves of the course taken by the United States in relation to mediation between Guatemala and Mexico. In regard to the peace congress, he says it has been indefinitely postponed. The Mexican revenue for the last fiscal year was $30,000,000, while from 1867 to 1877 it only averaged $16,000,000 per year.

One hundred and two deaths from cholera occurred in Manila on Friday and Saturday, and 346 in the vicinity of the town.

WHAT WILL MR. GLADSTONE DO WITH EGYPT?

MR. GLADSTONE'S enemies, who are a numerous but very heterogeneous body, have been much embarrassed in trying to make capital against him out of the Egyptian affair. They first said that, in interfering at all, he was doing the very thing he had denounced Lord Beaconsfield for doing, or had, in other words, turned Jingo. But, as a matter of fact, in his Scotch speeches during the canvass, he expressly acknowledged, and with his accustomed solemnity, that the responsibility for the position which the Beaconsfield Ministry had, in conjunction with France, taken in Egypt, would have to be assumed by its successors, whoever they might be. He denied emphatically, too, in the same speeches that he was a peace-at-any-price man, and recalled with much heat his readiness to fight, in 1870, in defence of Belgian neutrality, if need had been; and in defining the objects of the present invasion of Egypt recently he used language very similar to that employed by him in describing the objects of such a war on the Rhine. So that he cannot be charged in the Egyptian matter with any inconsistency, or with the abandonment of any principle he has ever defended. He attacked the Afghan and Zulu wars not as wars, but as needless and impolitic, and therefore unjust and cruel wars.

Of course, if the Egyptian enterprise had miscarried, his enemies would hardly have dwelt much on the charge of inconsistency, and would have confined themselves to that of incompetency, which in military matters is a much more effective political weapon than any change of doctrine. Luckily for him, the campaign has been extraordinarily successful. It has increased the renown of a general whom the Liberals first brought into prominence, and has vindicated amply the reorganization of the Army, which the Liberals undertook and carried out. In fact, the army which Wolseley commands in Egypt is a new army, made by Wolseley himself under Mr. Gladstone's auspices, and fiercely assailed and discredited by the Tories, into whose hands General Roberts, unfortunately for himself, tried to play, when he came back from India, by making himself a witness against the young soldiers of the new short-service régime. It was, therefore, a proud sight for Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Childers, as well as for Sir Garnet Wolseley, in a party as well as in a patriotic sense, when the new troops swarmed with unloaded rifles over the entrenchments at Tel-el-Kebir, in the gray of that Wednesday morning.

Up to this stage, therefore, Gladstone has not only got off scathless, but renewed the strength of his Ministry. His critics, accordingly, are turning their attention to the future, and having failed in their accounts of the crimes he has committed, have begun to depict those which he is almost sure to commit before very long. The first of these is the destruction of what is called the rising Egyptian "nationality" revived by Arabi Bey, and which would, they say, if Gladstone had let it alone, have become in a short time very flourishing, after remaining 2,500 years in abeyance. On the point whether there be such a thing as Egyptian nationality, the evidence is of course conflicting. There are some European and American observers who had faith in Arabi's intention to set up an independent, self-governed, and progressive Egypt, but they are very few in number, and none of them have any better ground for their belief than communications from Arabi himself, and the Ulemas and Pashas who were in sympathy with him. These communications would have more weight if the public of Christendom had not had within the present century so much experience in Turkey, as well as through the Mussulman world generally, of the remarkable dexterity of the Mohammedans of our time in using Western phrases and catchwords either, to keep the infidels at bay or to get hold of their money. No men have more complete mastery of the sounding phrases of modern progress, and use them with more dexterity in diplomacy, than the Turks; but there is not as yet any sign that a single Western idea has made the slightest impression on any Turkish brain.

Arabi Pasha, though ignorant, is cunning, and he and his confederates have apparently not been behind their Turkish confreres in supplying what our boys call "taffy" to the wandering European philanthropists, jurists, and travellers who have asked for a sight of their programme. They tell these that they seek the things which they know will excite Christian sympathy and admiration. In Turkey these have long been "reform" and equality before the law; in Egypt the object is "nationality." But they remain all the while good Mussulmans, to whom reform and equality are detestable and impious, and who do not know, and have not known for twelve hundred years, what nationality means. They have only one country, which is Islam, and know of but one mark of nationality, and that is belief in the true Prophet. There can be hardly a doubt, in fact, on a calm view of the history of the Mussulman world and of the workings of the Mussulman mind in our day, that what Arabi meant by Egyptian nationality was the exclusive handling of Egyptian money by prominent Mussulman Notables, including himself, without other accountability than the obligation of giving the Sultan a fair share. All beyond this is dust for the eyes of amiable enthusiasts like Mr. Wilfrid Blunt, whose help in getting the European Powers to let them alone was likely to be valuable.

Mr. Gladstone will now undoubtedly disregard the nationality chimera, as he is in duty bound to do, and treat Egypt as a patch of Islam in which circumstances have imposed on the Western Powers the duty of keeping order. The severest test of his wisdom will be found in his treatment of the public debt. To restore the old Joint Control with France, or, in other words, give the foreign creditors a security which they never expected and had no reason to expect, would be an act of oppression beyond all question. Order in the administration of the finances he may exact, but the satisfaction of the public creditors should be left to some sort of Egyptian Assembly, fairly representing whatever honesty or policy in financial matters there may be in the country. The Army will doubtless be disbanded, as a body for which there is no use, and its place in the preservation of order be taken by some sort of gendarmerie. The Khedive will probably then be allowed to reorganize his government under British supervision, and the completed arrangement be submitted to the Powers for their approval, at a conference in which the British say will be the most potential. In short, it is not likely that the relations of Egypt with foreign states will undergo much change through the war, but the authority of the Khedive will hereafter appear irresistible, and there will probably be a gradual reconciliation of the official and landholding class to infidel bookkeeping and tax-collecting. The apparent gladness with which they are all submitting to the invader is a somewhat ludicrous illustration of the political value of their sympathy with Arabi.

A SUGGESTIVE POLITICAL REMINISCENCE.

THE tricks and the ways of that eminent patriot, ex-Senator S. W. Dorsey, as revealed in the Star-route trials, recall and possibly throw some light on a discreditable political transaction of the closing hours of the Presidential campaign of 1880. When the Democrats cowardly abandoned the "tariff for revenue" plank of their platform, and unwisely attempted to hedge on this question, the word was passed along the whole Republican line to press the issue vigorously. And as part of the machinery for "pressing," cards and placards in great numbers were issued by the Republican committees, bearing the following and similar inscriptions:

"Keep this in your mind, and don't you forget it:

"Republican protection means plenty of work, with good wages and empty poorhouses.

"Democratic free trade means closed workshops, starvation wages, and crowded poorhouses.

"The Republican party will protect your employer so he can sell his goods, and keep you steady at work with good wages.

"The Democratic party will, by their free-trade policy, empty your workshops, break up your happy homes, and fill your poorhouses."

Although in the light of subsequent events—the long-continued and extensive strikes and labor disturbances, and the revelations of the census to the effect that the wages paid in the highly-protected iron industries of the country average but $1 25 per day—these proclamations and assertions seem now rather farcical, there was nothing more to be urged against their use than against a multitude of other expedients which all parties resort to for achieving success in all heated political campaigns, and which for the occasion are regarded by the public as legitimate. But somebody in political authority on the Republican side went further; and at least one card was issued from the Republican headquarters in this city, Brooklyn, and at various points in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and extensively circulated, which was a bold and brazen fraud, and as much a forgery as the Chinese letter attributed to General Garfield, inasmuch as it purported to give quotations from a pamphlet published by the "Free Trade Club of London," to the effect that "the salvation of England depends on

the destruction of American manufactures," and that such destruction can best be accomplished by the success of the Democrats and free trade; when no such pamphlet or quotation or anything analogous was ever issued or printed, and no such club as the one specified ever existed. When these circumstances were made known, some attempts were made to deny that such forgeries and false statements were ever perpetrated, or that any Republican organization ever participated in their circulation; and Mr. Stephen W. Dorsey, as Secretary of the Republican National Committee, in particular, addressed a note to the *Nation*, in which he professed to be very indignant that any one should be willing to give currency to such "inexcusable" statements; but when abundant and overwhelming evidence in support of their correctness was offered, Mr. Dorsey and others concluded that discretion was the better part of valor, and suddenly dropped the subject, while on the part of the public the circumstances have now probably been almost entirely forgotten. The revelations of the "Star-route" conspiracy, however, throw a flood of light on the methods of the astute Mr. Dorsey, and prove that even if he was not cognizant of the disgraceful political transaction alluded to, he was not unfamiliar with just such acts, and that his every-day associates were men who would not scruple to forge, plunder, cheat, and lie, if it suited their interests to do so. Furthermore, a man who a year subsequent to the transactions noted could from his place in the national Senate write a letter to a postmaster in Arkansas, asking him to attach to certain bonds, designed to be used in Star-route contracts, a postmaster's certificate that, "after the exercise of due diligence to inform myself of the pecuniary liability and responsibility of the principal and his sureties in the foregoing bond," he deemed them to be good for double the amount, when no one of the bondsmen was personally known to him, is just the sort of man to do an act like the issuing of the forged political (tariff) cards, and then afterward unblushingly lie about it. The text of this letter, which was addressed to J. H. Clendening, Postmaster, Fort Smith, Ark., is as follows:

"December 8, 1877—You can rely upon my aid, which has saved you on more than one occasion. Keep your office straight so it will bear inspection, and there will be no trouble. I send you some bonds which I desire made for a friend. Have it done, but under no possible circumstances allow any one to know from whom they come. Make the bonds at once, and return them to me here. Keep clear of routes or rivers or friends."

Clendening refused, on the ground that he did not wish to lay himself open to penalty for fraudulent certification. A day later, our immaculate Senator tried the same game on Postmaster Haycock, of Pine Bluff, Ark., in this equally characteristic letter:

"UNITED STATES SENATE CHAMBER,
"WASHINGTON, December 9, 1877.

"Dear Colonel: Long before you get this you will be confirmed and I hope all right. I send you to-day a bundle of bonds to be made, which I hope you will have filled up and duly certified to according to law. This is for an intimate friend of mine, and I ask you to do it as a special favor to me. Under no circumstances allow anybody to know that I have written on this subject. But I shall rely on you to have it done. Return the bonds to me as soon as made, and certain by the 28th of this month.

"Yours truly, S. W. DORSEY.

"Hon. George Haycock, Pine Bluff."

Haycock, like Clendening, refused to be a party to fraud, and sent the above letter to the Department; but it is interesting to note that subsequently Postmaster Hadley, of Little Rock, Ark., signed these same bonds, in the manner that Dorsey directed, and was dismissed from his office by reason of it. And yet Mr. S. W. Dorsey is Secretary of the Republican National Committee!

THE LATE DR. PUSEY.

IT is only old men who now recall distinctly the period when Dr. Pusey, who has just died, was at the head of a movement which was literally convulsing not only the religious world in England, but the world which, though not religious itself, thought religion a useful thing. It is impossible for any one in our time to get an adequate idea of the alarm with which "Puseyism," as it was called, filled England, without going back to the magazines and newspaper files of that period. When a man of this generation looks at the "Tracts for the Times" which caused it all, he is literally filled with amazement. He finds it impossible to understand why anybody cared to read them, much more why anybody was troubled by them, or why they made any sensation. There is a passage in Newman's 'Apologia' in which he describes the great awe which fell upon him when he finally discovered that, in the Monophysite controversy, Rome had the best of it, which probably few young or middle-aged men now read without a smile, but which describes very well the state of mind, both of the Puseyites of that period and of the public whom they were frightening. They felt that they were the leading actors in a mighty revolution, and the English people were afraid they were right. They were proposing return to the doctrine and discipline of "the Fathers," and though few Englishmen knew who "the Fathers" were, they had a strong belief that they were dreadful ogres in some manner connected with Popery, brass money, and wooden shoes, and they kicked, and screamed, and protested against going back to them for any purpose whatever.

Newman and some of the others relieved them by "going over to Rome," but Pusey remained to testify within the English Church, and to pour from the press a steady stream of the new doctrine, which continued almost without interruption down to his death. The alarm about Puseyism lasted fifteen years, though with rapidly diminishing intensity, when it was found that the sect, on the whole, was not a large one, and it may be said to have ended with the passage of the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill in 1851, forbidding the assumption of territorial titles by Roman Catholic bishops. This enactment seemed to give relief to the overwrought Protestant mind, which from that day to this has apparently not cared one straw about Dr. Pusey's sayings. The English public has since then followed Newman's career with interest, as that of perhaps the best specimen of what is called a spiritually-minded person that our times have produced, with an intellect of singular subtlety, and a capacity for graceful and lucid English for which it would be hard to find a parallel in our literature. But it follows him and reads him with simple curiosity, or with an admiration which may be called æsthetic rather than anything else. Dr. Pusey, on the other hand, stayed in the English Church, holding his professorship of Hebrew, in which his scholarship was but mediocre, and his canonry, which surrounded him with dignity and affluence, and sending forth book after book and pamphlet after pamphlet, which few but the clergy ever read. He was assailed a few years ago for indulging in auricular confession, and he confessed the charge and defended the practice, but nobody cared, though when he first showed a leaning for it, he almost sent a tremor through the kingdom. Most Englishmen feel now that if anybody is weak enough to confess, it is but proper that there should be parsons weak enough to listen to them.

Dr. Pusey's own observation of his active lifetime must have filled him with strange sensations. The changes he witnessed in the spiritual world in England were even greater than those which took place in the material world. No social, or political, or commercial changes wrought by science within the present century can compare with those which it has wrought in the character of the religious controversies. Dr. Pusey saw every question which stirred men's blood in his youth disappear from the arena of religious discussion, and others of which he had never dreamed take their places. In his youth the battles of faith were fought by two sets of verbal critics over passages in the Bible and in Patristic literature. Before he died he found his colleagues and successors engaged with a totally new set of antagonists, with strange weapons and strange armor, who made no pretence to be Biblical critics, or to have ever looked into the Fathers, and yet were acknowledged by all to be the most formidable foes by which the Church was ever assailed—so formidable as to compel even the Roman Catholic prelates not only into tolerance toward, but something like alliance with, such guerrillas as the Salvation Army and Moody and Sankey.

THE SERVANT QUESTION.

LESS attention than ever seems to be paid this year in the press to the question of domestic service. Forty years ago the difficulty of getting and keeping servants was one of the great public questions of the day. The relation of master and servant was not something to make fun of in the comic papers, as it was in England: it was a serious, perplexing, absorbing problem, which agitated the mind of every American householder far more than many of the questions presented by politics, finance, or religion. The memoirs of Mrs. Kemble, which have just been published, show that, when she came to this country, servants, as known in Europe, did not exist; and, in fact, in New England a new word, which was a curious reflection of the condition of society—"help"—had to be introduced to designate a class that did not recognize the relation of superior and inferior at all. Later than this, when city life began to become of more importance in the United States, and the employing class to become more exacting, the press was filled with discussions of the questions presented by domestic service. No subject

was ever discussed with more zeal, or apparently more fruitlessly. The condition of domestic service was exposed over and over again, in public and private; the Irish, who were the only class offering for the work, were ridiculed and abused for their incompetence and unfaithfulness; the absurdity of Americans refusing to go into service was over and over again pointed out, and at the same time their entire unfitness for the discharge of the duties of servants was demonstrated; and yet with each recurring year the problem came up anew.

Latterly there has been a cessation of the discussion. This is, no doubt, partly because the supply of domestic servants is better than it once was, and partly because experience seemed to show that the question presents in most cases problems which public discussion, however intelligent and acute, will not settle. For profitable public discussion of any domestic relation it is necessary that there should be some public issue involved. The relations between husband and wife are always "up" in the newspapers, because their legal rights and duties, and the changes in these which appear from time to time to become desirable in them, are always coming before the courts and the Legislature. We might say the same thing of parent and child, guardian and ward, trustee and beneficiary, receiver and corporation. But the relation of mistress and cook, or waitress or chambermaid, presents neither a political nor a legal aspect. Generally, in fact, it is not a legal relation at all. When the lady of the house engages a waitress, she does so, as a general thing, without any intention of making herself responsible for more than subsequently giving her orders and discharging her if she does not "give satisfaction"; for the mistress is usually a married woman, and in the present condition of the law of married women the legal responsibility for what the wife does with or to her servants falls upon her husband, although the actual management of them devolves upon her. When the emancipation of women is complete, possibly this anomaly will be swept away; but for the present the mistress is mistress in fact, but generally not in law. Besides this, servants hardly ever go to law. The volumes of law reports annually issued show that domestic service gives rise to less litigation than almost any other relation of life.

Domestic servants, too, are not an agitating class. They never demand "equal rights for labor," or hold meetings for a reduction of the hours of toil. We never hear of demonstrations of cooks or chambermaids, or even waiters and coachmen, or processions of them marching through the streets with flags and transparencies, or strikes. They never run candidates at a local election, and, in fact, they are distinctly non-political in their tastes and habits. They might have done all this, but they have not, and the fact that they have not tends to make the employing class feel that agitation or discussion, on their side, is less necessary, and thus the tendency to complete silence, on both sides, is becoming more and more marked every year. A generation ago, as we have said, there were on every side loud complaints against the character of domestic servants in the United States, on the ground that they were mainly Irish. The press and books of travel used to teem with denunciations of them for this peculiarity, which they obviously could not help. They met the attack, however, with modesty and reserve. They did not come out and write letters to the papers, as they might have done, insisting that if Americans would not go into service, and very few French or Germans came over here, they were conferring a boon on the country by doing its domestic work. They simply remained silent, and let the storm rage on.

Now it has spent its force, and, as we say, it begins to be seen that the question of domestic service is one which must in the main settle itself. Of course, whenever it is actually discussed we hear only one side. The mistress belongs to the class in society which reads and controls the organs of public opinion. She can write letters to the newspapers; her brothers and husbands and cousins write editorials explaining her grievances; while the servant, on the other hand, has no mouthpiece of any kind. She controls no newspapers or magazines, she is lucky if she can read them; and probably one reason why she never replied was that the din of the discussion about her never reached her ears at all. She never knew, so long as she was Irish, that she was a universal object of execration and contempt and ridicule; she never heard the stories illustrating her ignorance and incorrigibility. Now that her place has been taken in part by Germans and French she does not know the reason. She knows only when she "gives satisfaction," and whether she "likes her place." If she does not, she changes it.

There is a great deal to be said for servants as a class, as there is for all classes except Ring-thieves; but it probably never will be said, for there is no one to say it for them, and the period of their reaching that point in "culture" where they will care to get up any discussion of the subject for themselves is probably far off.

POSITION AND PROSPECTS OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

LONDON, August 31, 1882.

THAT contest between the two Houses of Parliament which has now become an annual event, expected as regularly as harvest in August and fogs in November, is keeping before men's eyes in England the question of what is to be done with the House of Lords. Such contests are even now disquieting. They may become dangerous. While the House of Lords remains what it is, they must necessarily recur whenever the Liberal party has a majority in the House of Commons. How, then, is the House of Lords to be reformed? When must that reform be undertaken? By what constitutional mode can it be carried through against the will of those who are to be reformed, and who must, by the reform, be shorn of some of their privileges? Or, as some bolder spirits declare, is reform after all unnecessary, and may it not be better to abolish and be done with an institution which is a mere survival from feudal times? These are questions which excite little heat, because the matter is not thought to be a directly pressing one, but which are constantly present to the minds of politicians, and might at any moment, by any act of boldness on the part of the upper Chamber, be pushed into the foreground. Some of the Peers themselves, particularly the younger Tory Peers, who of course are more hot-headed, chafe so much under their present condition of nominal equality of powers, theoretical superiority in rank, and practical obligation to submit to the will of the Commons, that it is by no means impossible that they may seek to precipitate a solution of the problem.

The theory of the House of Lords which used to be put forward by constitutional writers, thirty or forty years ago, assigned it a two-fold function—to criticise and to moderate. A critical chamber would evidently be very serviceable in our constitution. The House of Commons, in spite of the numerous stages which every bill has to pass through, and the unlimited opportunities for discussion in all those stages, often legislates hastily and carelessly. It sends up a good deal of bad work to the House of Lords, bad especially in form, but sometimes also bad in substance. To correct the errors of the Commons, to fill up its omissions, to put its bills into a better scientific shape, sometimes even to review their policy and point out that they will not work for good, would be an admirable function for a body composed of experienced men, many of them ex-officials, several of them accomplished lawyers, most of them possessing more leisure than members of the House of Commons, who have constituencies to attend to, can command. But the House of Lords does not discharge this duty of criticism, at least as regards public bills (for in the case of private bills its committees are sometimes useful). It sits only four days in the week, and usually for an hour or two only on each of those days. It pays little attention to details of form, and suffers slovenly-drawn clauses to pass unamended. Its debates very seldom throw any fresh light on the policy of a measure, not so much from the incompetence of its members—for there are a good many able and experienced men among the Peers—as because it will not take the trouble to go thoroughly into any questions which have not what may be called a direct political importance—that is to say, which are not party questions, affecting the balance of political power or the interests of the upper class. The critical theory may therefore be said to have broken down.

The other function which our Upper Chamber is credited with is that of moderating violent outbursts of popular passions, and resisting those imprudent and ill-considered changes which such outbursts produce. The House of Commons, as an elective body, naturally reflects the momentary feelings of the country. When the country is strongly excited it sends up members pledged to some particular measure, or to support some particular popular leader. The measure may be a rash one, or the leader may be a reckless or impetuous person, whose policy is likely to involve the country in dangers, perhaps domestic, perhaps foreign. How useful to have a body not dependent on nor affected by the temporary fluctuations of popular opinion, which will interpose the authority of its social dignity, its high character, its administrative experience, and will stay the tide of revolution; addressing arguments to the people which may cool their passions and instruct their reason, delaying the dangerous measure until the nation has had time to reflect and appreciate the serious consequences that will flow from it.

This is the theory of the function of second chambers in general; it is that of the Senate in France, it is to some extent (although, of course, greatly modified by the fact that your Constitution is a Federal one and that the Senate represents the States) that of the Senate in the American Congress. In order to realize it adequately, a second chamber must have authority—the authority which will make it listened to and its re-

sistance respected—which will enable it to check the momentary popular will without provoking revolutionary demonstrations against itself. Now, authority has many sources. Setting aside that which comes from the delegation of the people, or of divisions of the people represented in local assemblies, one may reckon the following as existing in the members of the body: Wealth, or what we call the having "a stake in the country," is one source. Birth, and the elevation of spirit, the refinement of manners which are supposed to accompany high birth, are another. Intellectual power, ripened by experience of affairs, is a third. Diligence, a conscientious attention to the duties which the Constitution imposes, is a fourth. Elevation of character, purity of aims, disinterestedness, a patriotic preference of the interests of one's country to the interests of the individual or of the class to which he belongs, is a fifth and the most important of all, for loftiness of soul, honesty in the highest sense of the word, is rarer than intellectual capacity, and a far more powerful factor in winning the confidence of one's fellow-men. I do not say that there are not other sources of authority, but it will be enough to examine how far our House of Lords possesses these five.

The first it has in ample measure. Nearly all the Peers—that is to say, the Peers who sit in their own right in the House of Lords (for the nobility of Ireland and Scotland are only represented there)—are rich, many very rich, some millionaires whose fortunes have no parallel except in America. Their wealth consists mainly in land and houses and mines. They are, speaking broadly, a body of great landowners. As to birth, the English nobility has not much to boast of compared with the titled class in some Continental countries; in Germany, for instance, or Austria, or even in France. The origin of most of our English noble families is recent, it is often far from creditable; nor are their manners any better, their ideas any more delicate or refined than those of educated Englishmen generally. In point of intellectual gifts the Peers are neither better nor worse than other people. Some thirty of them—those who usually conduct the debates in the House of Lords—are men of ability, a few of great and striking ability. The fact that it is these few by which the country chiefly knows its Upper Chamber, and that the proceedings are more decorous than in the House of Commons—a bore or a fool being more easily snuffed out—gives people an impression of the capacity of the Lords as a whole which is in excess of the truth. If one was to reckon in all the Peers who never speak, and never even attend except when they are whipped up to some party division, the average talent of the House would not exceed that of any other class of educated men. In other words, if one were to set aside about a dozen persons who are, or have been, Cabinet ministers, and have gained knowledge and skill thereby, one might get an equally good House by taking it by lot from among persons whose incomes exceed, say, $15,000 a year. As to diligence in attending the sittings of the House, and considering projects of legislation, or watching the ordinary business of the country, I have already spoken. The House of Lords sits at 4 o'clock, and usually rises before 7, in time for its members to go home and dress for dinner. There are seldom more than forty members present (the necessary quorum of the House of Commons), often only twenty; while it is only four or five times in a session that the number exceeds 200.

One comes last of all to consider the influence of disinterestedness and an unselfish devotion to the welfare of the nation. Now, it would obviously be too much to expect these rare and precious qualities to be largely present in the members of any Assembly, however high in rank. The most one can well look for is that the Chamber should not at any rate be strongly prejudiced by feeling or self-interest in any one direction, but that, the different sympathies, ideas, interests, of different classes and groups and industries and schools of thought, political and religious, throughout the country being fairly represented, there should result something approaching an equilibrium, which would allow the general welfare of the commonwealth to be uppermost in the thoughts of the Assembly; men at least seeing that, since they could not secure the predominance of their special interest, they must win the confidence of the nation by deliberating, or seeming to deliberate, with a view to its common benefit. This is, unfortunately, the point in which the House of Lords is conspicuously deficient. It is a House of rich men, and particularly of rich landowners. The landowning interest so overwhelmingly predominates, that the Peers cannot even pretend to rise superior to the peculiar interests of their class. Their whole behavior for the last twenty years has been that of men anxious to defend all the advantages and prerogatives of great proprietors. And as political conservatism has more and more tended to identify itself with wealth and the ownership of land, they are now also the House of one political party. In the House of Commons the majority shifts to and fro from Liberals to Tories and back again to Liberals; in the Lords the Tories have during the last few ministries (for some decades ago things were quite different) possessed an immense majority. They are now about three to one to the Liberals. Some important sections of opinion do not exist among them at all. There is no Irish Home Ruler in the House of Lords; no Radical, probably no Nonconformist.

Such being the actual state of our Upper Chamber, such important sources of authority being wanting to it, it will be easily understood that it has little moral authority in the country, and is unfit to discharge the function of moderating the excesses of popular excitement. What it rather does is to bend to the people when they are really eager and passionate, because then it fears for its own existence, and at other times to resist their organ, the House of Commons, by cutting down and maiming, or wholly rejecting, measures which seem prejudicial to its interests, but which no strong tide of popular feeling presses forward. This is not a satisfactory state of matters. The very predominance of one political party is enough to spoil the House of Lords for its moderating function. And, in fact, nobody now defends the House of Lords in theory. But how to improve it is another matter, which would require a letter to itself. Y.

OLD STRASBOURG AND ITS CORRESPONDENTS.

PARIS, August 31, 1882.

BEFORE the time of newspapers it was difficult for princes and free towns to have any accurate information on the affairs of the world. The great potentates had their ambassadors, and their couriers who regularly carried despatches; but many princes of inferior rank, even when they were not sovereign princes, found it worth their while to have regular and paid correspondents in the places where the general affairs of Europe found their settlement. The archives of some of these princes show what a keen interest was felt in politics by such men as the Duc de Bouillon, the Duc de la Trémoille, the Duc de Rohan. M. de Bouteiller and M. Eugène Hepp have just published the political correspondence addressed to the magistrates of Strasbourg by their agents between 1594 and 1683, and they have thus rendered some service to history. Let us say first a word of the two authors of this interesting publication. M. de Bouteiller was once an officer of artillery, who became a Deputy from Metz under the Empire, and was the Mayor of Metz at the time when the town was besieged and taken. He left it after the war, and now lives in Paris. M. Hepp was born in Strasbourg, and was, before the war, the Secretary of the Committee which presides in Strasbourg over the affairs that concern the so-called Confession of Strasbourg. He retired to Paris after the war, and has lately been named Director of the Department of the Non-Catholic Confessions at the Ministère des Cultes. In 1819, M. de Kentsinger, who was Mayor of Strasbourg, published two excellent volumes of historical documents concerning the history of France, taken from the archives of Strasbourg. These volumes showed what interest all the kings and princes of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had taken in the affairs of that city. The volume before us brings us back also to the time when Strasbourg was a true republic, and had an almost absolute sovereignty, her connection with the Empire being almost nominal. She had more immunities and privileges than Frankfort, Speyer, Worms, Bâle, Colmar, Haguenau. She could make peace and war, extend her fortifications; she had her own gold mint; she could give an asylum to exiles; she could confer the right of citizenship on anybody. More than that, she could make treaties and conclude alliances with foreign potentates.

Strasbourg became very early a sort of democracy. The constitution was, however, often remodelled; it took its definitive form in the fifteenth century, and it lasted without much change till 1790. The "Plebeians" (artisans and burghers of all conditions) were divided into twenty tribes, represented each by fifteen elected members. These three hundred selectmen were the true parliamentary representatives of the city. No important decision could be taken without their assent; they ratified the treaties; they made the Reform, and decided, by a majority of 278 against 1, on February 20, 1529, that the celebration of the Mass should cease in Strasbourg "till it was proved that it was a work agreeable to God." The administrative body was a Council or Senate of thirty members, one-third of whom were noblemen. Each of the plebeian tribes was represented in the Senate by a plebeian member, and the Senate itself chose the noble Senators from the ranks of the old nobility which had its castles in the Vosges. The Senators were only appointed for two years; and the Senators could only be reëlected after an interval of two years. Four *Stattmeister*, taken from the nobles, presided over the Senate. The plebeian members of the Senate elected among themselves the *Ammeister*, who was the true chief of the city, and who was taken successively from each tribe.

The executive power was formed by three councils or boards: 1. The Council of Thirteen, which had precedence over the two others, and was composed of four ancient noble Senators or Stattmeister, of four ancient Ammeister, and of burghers. This council had the management of the foreign policy. 2. The Council of Fifteen, composed of five noblemen and ten plebeians, which had the management of interior affairs. The members of these two councils were appointed for life; they formed what was called the *Beständiges Regiment* with the third council, the Chamber of Twenty-one, which was the oldest of the three, and which had a very complicated organization. In reality, the plebeian

selectmen constituted something like a Legislative Assembly ; the Chambers of Thirteen and of Fifteen formed the executive power ; and the two Senates—the Senate proper and the Council of Twenty-one—represented the administrative and judicial authority. This rudiment of a parliamentary government was much admired ; it was praised by Æneas Sylvius Piccolomini (Pius II.), by Macchiavelli, by Erasmus.

Toward the end of the seventeenth century the local government of Strasbourg had become somewhat corrupted. "When, in 1681," say MM. de Bouteiller and Hepp, "the city was united to France, it could, without inconvenience and without any danger for the new sovereign, be left in possession, for a century more, of a constitution which was nothing but an inoffensive machine from the day when the double institution of a prætor and of a royal syndic maintained it within the limits of purely local interests." The French Government contented itself with the care of the general interests connected with the welfare of Strasbourg, and the local government became a sort of oligarchy or close corporation, till the French Revolution.

Let us return to the times when the Chamber of Thirteen was a real power—when it corresponded with kings and princes. This chamber had agents abroad in various places ; it was one of the necessities of a Republic, placed between France and the Empire, to have reliable information on all the principal events of the time. These correspondents received a small pension from the Republic. They were not costly : we find one, named Flavigny, who contented himself with twenty-four gold florins a year (150 francs). The correspondence of Flavigny is very interesting ; it lasted for about thirty years—from 1597 to 1626—and it had the character of a family correspondence, full of small details ; it would now be called a journal. Flavigny resided in Metz ; he sometimes addressed his letters from that place "à mes très honorez et magnifiques Seigneurs Messieurs du Conseil d'Estat qu'on appelle le Conseil des Treizes de la République Libre et Impériale de Strasbourg." He generally, however, addressed his letters to "Monsieur Jean Philippe Böcklé, Stätmeister de la Ville et République de Strasbourg," and afterward to the successors of Böckle, to Jean Simon of Brünbach, etc.

These letters are all the more interesting because they were written chiefly after the death of Henri IV., at a time when France fell into the greatest confusion, and during which it seemed as if anarchy would become permanent. Flavigny was a good and honest man ; it is a pity that his information was generally at second hand—he collected rumors, he wrote all he heard of. His impressions are interesting, as showing the state of mind of an intelligent observer, but the news he sent to Strasbourg was often false—he was obliged to contradict it himself afterward. Still, every historian will do well to read his letters. The good Flavigny often complains of his own ignorance: "Voilà comme les fausses nouvelles se font place pour un temps et traversent les esprits des hommes."

In the letters of Flavigny petty details are mixed up with the greatest political news. For instance, after speaking (January 16, 1612) of a trial between the Jesuits and the University of Paris, he says, without any *trait d'union :* "The only son of the President, Jeannin [the famous negotiator], was killed as he was coming out of the house of a courtesan, after having himself killed a gentleman of Queen Marguerite's who was waiting for him at the door. He has been interred without any ceremony ; the other has been gibbeted." Speaking of the quarrels of the Duc d'Épernon with his son, the Duc de Candale, he says : "The Duc d'Épernon is tormented by M. de Candale, his eldest son, who demands the partition of the property of his deceased mother. He left for Orléans, without taking leave of his father. Each house has its curse. M. de Villeroi is well, thank God ! He has been at the point of death. France would have lost too much in him." Many interesting dates and details are found concerning the actions and movements of the Duc de Bouillon, of the Duc de Rohan, of the Prince de Condé, of Lesdiguières, of the princes of the blood.

You can judge of the state of France at the time by such items as these :

"The Chevalier de Guise, who is the youngest son of the late Duc de Guise, having met the Baron de Lutz toward noon, and having asked him to leave his carriage, himself dismounted from his horse, and, after having said a few words to him, drew his sword. The Baron de Lutz drew his, and was killed. He was more than fifty years old. . . . The morning after this quarrel, the Prince de Joinville, his brother, had another with a gentleman of the court. In Paris there is a great tumult; all is disorder and combustion. These personal quarrels tend to a public one, and we are on the eve of it, if God in his grace does not change matters" (January 14, 1613).

The month afterward, Flavigny writes :

"As for the news from France, you must know that after the Chevalier de Guise had been pardoned for having killed the Baron de Lutz, he was challenged by the son of the Baron. He at once accepted the challenge ; and when they came to fight, the Chevalier, after having been wounded on the shoulder and in the belly, without any danger of death, however, killed the son of said Baron, and the younger son of the Baron then ran away, after having wounded the second of the Chevalier."

There are curious descriptions of the "entrées" of the governors of Metz. When M. de la Valette, the son of the Duc d'Épernon, arrived in 1613, he was received by a hundred of the richest burghers of Metz, "by three hundred unmarried young men, dressed in white and black, the colors of the city, armed with pikes ; by four thousand burghers well armed, and by three thousand peasants. He placed himself under a canopy of silver cloth and black velvet, borne by four magistrates ; went to the portal of the Cathedral, where he was received by the canons and priests, and swore to use faithfully his powers in the service of the King. The streets were all hung with tapestries, and decorated with garlands and escutcheons. Next, the magistrates presented to M. de la Valette a carriage lined with embroidered silk, with four grays, and a horse, with a magnificent saddle. They gave him, for his father, the Duc d'Épernon, a rich piece of tapestry, twelve casks of wine, etc."

The details about the civil wars are numberless, but they are scattered without any order, and cannot be useful to anybody but the student of the period which elapsed between the death of Henri IV. and the majority of Louis XIII. The details about the Maréchal d'Ancre and his wife, and about the Duc de Luynes, are particularly interesting. Flavigny speaks of "the Marquis d'Ancre doing everything he likes in France, naming and deposing the principal officers of the crown at his will and caprice." We see also in his letters the beginnings of Richelieu.

After the letters of Flavigny, the volume of MM. de Bouteiller and Hepp gives us many letters of another correspondent of the magistrate of Strasbourg, whose name is Talon ; but his correspondence concerns a much more recent period. The letters written after 1626, between that date and 1679, have all been lost or destroyed. The correspondence of Talon begins only in 1679, and it has no connection whatever with the correspondence of the worthy Flavigny.

THE CLERICAL SITUATION IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, August 24, 1882.

I HAVE for months delayed writing upon the clerical question. Not being initiated into the secrets of the diplomatic transactions, I wanted to wait for the result of the negotiations of the Prussian Government with the Pope. It was but just to give the former a fair chance of proving that it had not acted as rashly as had been anticipated even by its friends. Now that about a year has elapsed since a Prussian Minister was sent to Rome, and that important concessions have been made to her, the question suggests itself, What Prussia has gained in return? I am sorry to answer, Not only nothing, but on the contrary she has earned the scornful laughter of her own Ultramontane subjects, the derision of the followers of the Papal See, and the disdain of political men. The Roman papers, with a mischievous joy, report that the Pope has broken off negotiations with Prussia. Herr von Schloezer left Rome six weeks ago, and is perfectly superfluous there. He will return in the fall, but for whose profit is not yet apparent. Thus far not even a basis has been agreed on upon which negotiations for an amicable settlement can be prosecuted. His mission has only been a game of bluff, which will be continued during the winter with the same negative results.

In the meantime the work of the Pontifex is done by his German subordinates, although the Prussian Government does everything in its power to propitiate those whom a few years ago it called the enemies of the German Empire. In all educational matters Herr von Gossler makes use of his momentary freedom and does just as he pleases. The Liberals, who during their ascendancy neglected to press a law of public instruction, which just now would be of enormous value, are at present earning the fruits of their negligence. School inspectors who had been appointed to guard against clerical influences have been removed, and are supplanted by Ultramontane Hotspurs; new seminaries for the education of boys by priests, and under their exclusive influence, have been opened; the school, on the whole, is every day more unconditionally surrendered to them, and now even the few so-called "state priests" are sacrificed to the demands of the Roman clergy, or at least not defended against their insolence.

The worst of all who rouse the passions of their flock is the newly-installed Prince Bishop of Breslau, Herr Herzog. This gentleman, before his election by the Government, was considered one of the softest and most pliable members of the Roman hierarchy, and for that reason, and with that blind stupidity which has distinguished the Berlin bureaucracy in the elevation of bigoted and perverse Catholic priests to high offices, had been promoted to so important a position as that of the Breslau bishopric, with which, by the way, is connected a yearly salary of 360,000 marks—$90,000—besides the usufruct of well-furnished palaces, castles, and country seats. The new Bishop, for his apparently amiable disposition, had been exempted from taking the oath of allegiance. In order to prove himself worthy of the favor bestowed on him, he had scarcely taken his seat when he issued a proclamation against the so-called state priests as usurpers, who must abstain from officiating in contradiction to the principles of their Church, and surrender to their Bishop, who would thereupon deal with them according to his pleasure. He even threatened those who did not at once obey his orders with disciplinary measures and excommunication. You will probably remember that when, in the midst of the conflict with Rome, several

hundred parishes became vacant, the Government appointed all those Catholic priests who swore allegiance to its laws and promised to carry out its policy. These men, who in the hour of need stood by their congregations and the Government, were bitterly attacked by the adherents of the infallibility of the Pope, and generally distrusted by their former brother priests, but with a very few exceptions valiantly bore the brunt of the battle. As they acted at Herr von Falk's summons and at the risk of their lives defended his policy, his successors must protect them. Any attack directed against these priests is at the same time directed against the Government, which, of course, will sacrifice its own honor and dignity if it does not interfere for these unselfish allies, who confided in its energy. If they be humiliated, the Government also is humiliated and morally hurt.

Herr Herzog treats the Prussian state as if it did not exist, as if it had not a word to say about the regulation of the present and future position of the state priests, and as if there were no sovereign will which under all circumstances must be consulted. The Bishop, in ignoring this fact, commits the gravest sort of insult, and provokes the Government by not proposing an amicable arrangement. On the other hand, Bismarck's men, in their own interest, too, before appointing this Herzog, could and ought to have provided for these poor priests, to save whom from an unmerited doom would at that time have been an easy task; but they were either in too great a hurry to fill the Breslau vacancy, or they did not think it worth their while to trouble themselves with the future of a few dozen of faithful adherents. Now, the penal code punishes those priests (bishops, of course, included) who threaten their inferiors, with disciplinary punishment, with a fine of from 200 to 500 thalers and imprisonment from one to two years. Will the law be strictly applied to the bishops? I am sure it will not. Thus far the Government has kept silence, but in the long run it cannot continue to ignore the Roman challenge—for it is, of course, not the Prince Bishop of Breslau who is acting against the crown, but undoubtedly it is the Pope himself who dictates his policy. This declaration of war against the Government is the ripest fruit which the Church policy of Messrs. Puttkamer and Gossler has thus far borne. It is easy to foresee what will finally become of the state priests. Some of them have manfully answered the frivolous charge of the Prince Bishop and controverted his accusations; others, abandoned by all their former friends and supporters, are willing to yield to him; but the great majority for the present keep quiet, and, for want of organization, will by and by return as repentant sinners to the bosom of the Church.

Another quarrel which the new Bishop has picked is the question of the so-called mixed marriages—that is, where one party belongs to the Protestant and the other to the Catholic Church. Fifty years ago this question gave rise to differences between the Archbishop of Cologne and the Prussian Government, and was practically solved by the promise of the "nupturiendi" that their children should be educated as Catholics. Now, Herr Herzog insists even on an extension of the alleged rights of the Catholic Church. He forbids his priests to give their nuptial benediction in case a Protestant clergyman should also be called upon to perform the same act. The proclamation on the walls of the Breslau Cathedral declares such mixed marriages invalid, and treats the issue of them as illegitimate. It is rather cruel on the part of the Ultramontane brethren thus to disappoint their friends in the Government; but the latter will, as it informs the public to-day, inquire whether the proclamation was issued or sanctioned by the highest authorities of the Church, and, if so, demand its withdrawal. How innocent, meek, and simple! As if Rome did not know what it was about!

There are a great many people whose conscience is troubled by such intolerance, although practically they need not heed it, for since 1874 the validity of a marriage exclusively depends on the Civil Marriage Act. However, this attempt at an enlargement of the clerical power is by the unconcerned majority treated as a harbinger of peace, since its natural consequence will be that the civil performance of marriage will gain ground from day to day, and frustrate all Orthodox Protestant attempts at its abolishment.

The *Kulturkampf* is at an end, and it will not be renewed by the Government, which has not deposited its arms in the fencing-room, but has thrown them away altogether. Thus, in spite of all grandiloquent phrases, it will not be able to renew it, and the only result left is the power which it has raised, and with which it will be bound to reckon in all future emergencies. This power is the only real product of the conflict abruptly broken off—a product which has retarded our progress more than any reactionary epoch could ever have done. Henceforth we have in the empire a "corpus catholicum" which in stately numbers sends its representatives into the legislative bodies, and which for years to come will make the formation of healthy parties impossible, and prevent a progressive domestic policy. A rupture has overtaken the nation, and, in spite of an outward unity, neither laws nor administrative measures will be able to heal it. Bismarck, in consequence of his impatience, and from hatred of his Liberal allies, has suffered an ignominious defeat from which he will never recover. Was it not he who in 1873 said, "It is the defence of the Government, and the drawing of the boundary line between royal dominion and priestcraft, for which we are at present acting, and this line must be formed in such a way that the state can exist within it; for in matters of this world it has the precedence and the power"? Upon the next generation will devolve the reparation of the fact that for fear of a Liberal Canossa the Chancellor chose the Clerical Canossa as the lesser of two evils.

It is a pity that the redress of these wrongs must be referred to the future, as we do not live under a really constitutional government. The ministers who, by order of Bismarck, have brought about this defeat, will, instead of resigning, not only not lose their portfolios, but be rewarded for their zeal in attending to the orders of their master, who played out his imperial Chancellorship and acted as if he had not a word to say in Prussian politics. The Chancellor will have to fight with centrifugal tendencies more than ever before, and Rome will not rest before she has drawn every possible advantage from her present favorable position. Or will Bismarck take up the cudgels again? I believe not. The Emperor is too old and too despondent to favor a new beginning with Rome; besides, the court influences are bitter against the revival of the *Kulturkampf*. What, however, is worse than this, the good faith of Bismarck has justly become doubtful to all those who formerly, even enthusiastically, stood by him. Thus they will not be taken in a second time, and they, of course, distrust a leadership which wantonly sacrifices its best auxiliary troops. The Conservative papers now laugh at those innocents who really believed in the sincerity of the Government. We daily read such tirades in their newspapers as the cheap advice to their poor victims that they also ought to make their peace with the Orthodox Church, and that by doing so they would patriotically relieve the Government of a great embarrassment.

There is, in my opinion, only one way to prevent further mischief: it is the utter defeat of the Conservatives in the approaching elections for the Prussian Landtag. It was their alliance with the Ultramontane party which brought about this lamentable compromise of 1880, if compromise it can be called, where one side reaps all the benefits, and concedes nothing in return. From the indecent haste of the Conservatives the Centre has drawn the conclusion that the Prussian Government could not wait any longer. In not granting all at once what Rome demanded they gave her a pretext to keep back and play the offended. Thus the measure which by the minions of the Government was extolled as a great statesmanlike act turns out a miserable failure. The Ultramontanes know very well that these men, among whom are all the influential Orthodox Protestants, have no hold on public opinion nor on the minds of the people, and that accordingly they can dictate terms. They make these gentlemen run the gauntlet by openly proclaiming, "urbi et orbi," the Roman theory that a Protestant's marriage with a Catholic cannot be tolerated by the Church; that the state priests are not entitled to any forbearance or mercy on its part, and that the Prussian Government must surrender unconditionally before peace can be restored. The Conservatives are willing to swallow even this pill, as they can only gain a majority with the help of the Centre. This short-sighted and perfidious policy must fail. It is doomed by its own disloyalty. The people must, therefore, and I hope will, afford the leisure to the Conservatives to think over their policy far from parliamentary business and the troubles of public life. This is the only chance left of making Rome understand her situation. +++

Correspondence.

NORMAL SCHOOLS AND THE UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was much interested in the letter concerning Normal Schools which was published in your last issue. A paper on the same subject by Professor T. R. Price was probably the most important read at the recent meeting of the Virginia Education Society. There is at present no special training provided in this State for teachers, and Professor Price urges that no separate school be established, but that a Normal Department be added to the University, just as there now exist departments of Agriculture, Medicine, Law, and Engineering. He thinks, in short, that the trouble with normal schools, as they are now organized, is that they are too entirely removed from the influence of the universities. They may teach how to teach, but they cannot give the thorough and general training without which no one ought to teach.

J. H. D.

Norfolk, Va., Sept. 11.

ERRORS OF THE CENSUS.—V.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In previous communications various mistakes in the Population volume of the Census have been pointed out. In the present letter attention will be directed to the consideration of the effect of these mistakes upon the value of the work.

An examination into the influence of tempe-

rature and rainfall upon the distribution of population constitutes a prominent feature of the volume under discussion. The space which this investigation occupies, and the detail in which its results are worked out, evidence the importance attached to it by the Census Office. The maps and tables which contain its results are evidently intended to corroborate each other. The tables purport to give in detail the population of the temperature and rainfall belts delineated upon the maps. As has already been seen, there is, however, in many cases, flat contradiction of a map by a table. In not a few instances it is plain that the climate of considerable sections of country is materially misrepresented by the one or the other. In the letter published in the last number of the *Nation* attention was called to discrepancies as to the climate of a part of Colorado. As was then shown, the maps closely agreed with one another in representing that the high ground of central Colorado had a heavier rainfall and a lower temperature than the rest of the State. The tables do not bear out this representation in its entirety. If the maps are correct, the facts revealed are of great interest and, so far at least as concerns the rainfall of the spring and summer months, of the highest practical importance. On the other hand, if the tables are to be relied upon, the facts indicated are doubtless quite as interesting and important as those shown by the maps, but they are different from them.

This Colorado case is only a more striking example of a numerous class of errors. It is not often easy to decide whether the blunder lies in the map or in the table ; it is clear that both cannot be right. If you consult only the table, you come to one conclusion ; if you examine the map, you come to another ; if you compare the two, your only possible conclusion is that something is wrong. On the whole, however, there seems to be some reason to believe that, in the great majority of cases at least, the mistakes are in the tables, and not in the maps. I do not wish to be understood as expressing a positive opinion on this point, and even the suggestion is intended to apply only to the temperature and rainfall maps and tables.

So far as I have noticed, the total population of each State and Territory, as given in the tables just spoken of, is correct. An inaccurate statement of the population in one belt in a State, therefore, necessarily involves a counterbalancing inaccuracy in the others. The mischief done by a single slip does not end here. Each of the temperature maps illustrates a group of four tables, showing the distribution in accordance with temperature of the aggregate population in 1870 and in 1880, of the colored and of the foreign population respectively. A diagram is constructed from these tables, and the totals contained in them are used in the compilation of still another table. This last, besides reproducing the totals referred to, purports to give the number of inhabitants to the square mile in 1870 and in 1880; the increase in density during the decade; the percentage of the total population in each belt in 1870 and in 1880 ; the population below each belt in 1870 and in 1880 ; the percentage of the total population below each belt in 1870 and in 1880 ; the percentage of the total colored population in each belt ; the percentage of colored population of each belt to the total population of the belt ; the percentage of the total foreign population in each belt ; and the percentage of foreign population in each belt to the total population of the belt. Upon this last table, in its turn, is founded the discussion of results. The rainfall tables are of similar arrangement, save that no comparisons are made with 1870.

Most if not all the errors that have been pointed out in these tables are carried through all of them illustrating the same map, and, as a consequence, affect to a greater or less extent the results and the discussions based upon them. If the consequences of a particular blunder are worked out in detail, it will be better perceived how large an influence it may have.

In the first communication on the subject of the errors of the Census, mention was made of the misplacement of the figures for Missouri in the tables (I *l*, p. 16 ; I *m*, p. 17 ; I *n*, p. 18 ; I *o*, p. 19) showing the distribution of population in accordance with mean annual temperature. As was then explained, this change of position produced some very absurd results. A large and populous section of country was said to have only 13,903 inhabitants, while a narrow strip containing a trifling population was credited with 1,323,176. It is hard to understand how so gross a blunder could have escaped detection, yet it not only passed undiscovered, but was carried on through a long series of calculations.

Tables I *l*, p. 16 ; I *m*, p. 17 ; I *n*, p. 18 ; I *o*, p. 19, distribute, in accordance with mean annual temperature, the aggregate population in 1870, the aggregate population in 1880, the colored population in 1880, and the foreign population in 1880, respectively. The population of each of the four temperature belts between 45° and 65° of mean annual temperature, as given in the tables named, is below contrasted with what it would be if the error in Missouri were corrected:

Mean temper'ture groups.	Aggregate populati'n in 1870.		Aggregate populati'n in 1880.	
	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.
	Table I *l*, p. 16.		Table I *m*, p. 17.	
45°-50°.....	12,202,544	11,159,808	15,022,030	13,698,854
50°-55°.....	12,347,374	12,719,592	15,793,958	16,285,333
55°-60°.....	5,091,820	5,754,297	6,649,287	7,466,685
60°-65°.....	3,577,710	3,585,751	5,190,923	5,204,826

Mean temper'ture groups.	Colored population in 1880.		Foreign population in 1880.	
	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.
	Table I *n*, p. 18.		Table I *o*, p. 19.	
45°-50°.....	227,850	127,024	2,754,796	2,673,171
50°-55°.....	761,482	818,218	2,227,338	2,179,077
55°-60°.....	1,641,948	1,685,604	447,026	576,845
60°-65°.....	2,226,560	2,226,994	131,587	131,654

It will be seen that the figures given in the tables are in some instances more than a million out of the way. The diagram on page lvii is based upon the incorrect totals above copied. It is to be regretted that it is not practicable to reproduce here the diagram as it is, and contrast it with one prepared on the same plan, but with the mistakes corrected. The importance of the Missouri slip would be seen at a glance.

Table XXXIII, on page lvii, rests upon the same statements of population. If the change in place of the Missouri figures had not occurred, most of the results given in this table for the temperature belts between 45° and 65° would have been materially different, as will appear from the comparisons made below :

Mean temperature groups.	Population below each group.			
	1870.		1880.	
	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct. figures.
45°-50°.....	14,879,647	13,836,911	18,793,837	17,470,661
50°-55°.....	27,227,021	26,556,503	34,587,795	33,756,494
55°-60°.....	32,318,841	32,310,800	41,237,082	41,223,179
60°-65°.....	35,896,551	35,896,551	46,428,005	46,428,005

Mean temperature groups.	Percentage of total below each group.			
	1870.		1880.	
	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.
45°-50°.....	39	36	38	35
50°-55°.....	71	69	69	67
55°-60°.....	84	84	82	82
60°-65°.....	93	93	92	92

Mean temperature groups.	Population per square mile.				Increase in density.		Percentage of total population in group.			
	1870.		1880.				1870.		1880.	
	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.
45°-50°.....	17.1	15.6	21.0	19.2	3.9	3.6	32	29	30	27
50°-55°.....	26.5	27.3	33.9	34.9	7.4	7.6	32	33	31	32
55°-60°.....	14.7	16.6	19.2	21.5	4.5	4.9	13	15	13	15
60°-65°.....	9.2	9.2	13.4	13.4	4.2	4.2	9	9	10	10

Mean t'mp'r't're groups.	Percent'ge of total foreign in group.		Percent'ge of foreign to total in group.		Percent'ge of total colored in group.		Percent'ge of colored to total in group.	
	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.	Census figures.	Correct figures.
45°-50°....	41.24	40.02	18.34	19.51	3.46	1.93	1.52	.93
50°-55°....	33.34	32.62	14.10	13.38	11.57	12.43	4.82	5.02
55°-60°....	6.69	8.63	6.74	7.72	24.95	25.61	24.69	22.57
60°-65°....	1.97	1.97	2.53	2.53	33.83	33.84	42.89	42.79

The differences shown above are in some cases quite material, particularly in the proportion of the colored population in each belt and their relative numerical importance in the belt.

The transfer of the Missouri figures affects no less than sixty-eight separate statements in this volume. It is believed that most, if not all, of the other errors in the temperature and rainfall tables are equally far-reaching in their consequences. That these tables and the discussions based upon them are no better than rough approximations, seems a necessary conclusion from the facts already stated.

The Census Office realized the important influence of extent and density of settlement upon the political, social, and industrial condition of the country, as is evident from the fulness with which the subject is treated. It has been pointed out that in this portion of the work there are many serious errors. In the second letter it was shown that the maps would lead a person consulting them to very inaccurate conclusions. Some sections of the country were represented as having a population far in excess of the facts, and in other cases precisely the opposite error was made.

My examination has been confined to the first 122 pages of the volume. In that part of it are contained the discussions and the general tables. Forty-seven errors in those pages have been pointed out. I have forborne to mention others which I have discovered, for want of time and space ; and there is no doubt that other persons have discovered many that have escaped my notice. Indeed, I seldom have occasion to read with care any part of the volume, that new errors do not reveal themselves. In preparing this letter, I examined the diagram on page lvii, in order to determine the effect upon it of the Missouri blunder. I then saw for the first time that the line intended to represent the population of 1880 was marked as representing that of 1870, and *vice versa*. The diagram as a consequence indicates a heavy decrease of population during the decade.

An exhaustive scrutiny of the volume has not been attempted. One table has been compared with another, or with a corresponding map. If contradictions did not reveal themselves, no further attempt was made to test the accuracy of the statements. It not infrequently happened that the calculations necessary to fix the full extent of some patent error, revealed the existence of previously unsuspected ones.

Probably no statistical work can pretend to accuracy unless its proof-sheets have been subjected to repeated, careful, and intelligent revisions. Such revisions would almost infallibly have detected and corrected most of the numerous errors pointed out in this correspondence. These considerations would seem to cast a degree of suspicion over the entire work. If there is well-grounded reason to question the accuracy of its results as published, much of the value of the Census is lost.

Whether it is now practicable to subject the volume to a searching examination, and in a second edition to correct its blunders, I do not know. In any event, it is earnestly to be hoped that more care will be exercised in the preparation of the yet unpublished volumes.

JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, MD., Sept. 14, 1882.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : I am not willing to leave uncorrected a statement in your last issue (in a notice of my collection of 'Golden Poems') that the insertion of "five poems by Richard Realf, four by Dr. Holland, and only two each by Emerson, Longfellow, Holmes, and Whittier," expresses my "individual preferences." It does not express them. The limitation to two poems was imposed by the owners of the copyrights ; and in my preface is a distinct statement of the fact of such copyright restrictions, as explaining "any seeming disproportion in the representation of the various authors."—Yours,

F. F. BROWNE.

CHICAGO, Sept. 16, 1882.

A CURE FOR REPUDIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In your article, "A Cure for Repudiation," in the number just received, while you point out the supposed difficulty of a State (for its citizens) *maintaining a suit* upon repudiated bonds of a sister State, you omit allusion to the insuperable obstacles in the way of enforcing execution. I entertain little doubt that the case of New York *v.* Louisiana ought to go to judgment for the plaintiff. Aside from the argument of Mr. Attorney-General Russell, cited by you, I think it clear, by all the analogies, that it is not competent for the Court to inquire beyond the fact that the plaintiff is the holder. It would have been clearer, however, if the plaintiff were a holder for value (market), or, better still, if it had paid the face value to its citizens who were bona-fide holders.

Maintaining the suit does not begin to approximate to the "cure for repudiation." The real difficulties would be reached when you come to the category of the *quo modo* in collecting the money. The Supreme Court has been compelled to halt before now for want of machinery—*e.g.*, in Kentucky *v.* Dennison, 24th Howard. Who would take the *fieri facias*? Could the officer levy on furniture in the State offices, or garnish the treasurer and collectors of taxes? In a supplementary equity suit, could a commissioner be authorized to sell the capitol square by public auction ; or could a receiver be appointed to conduct the government as of a municipal corporation? The exercise of any of these remedies would be destructive of State sovereignty, and therefore out of all question. The judgment would be *brutum fulmen*.

I fear the disease is incurable, and the worst of it is the patient can never die. J. H. L.

LYNCHBURG, VA., Sept. 15, 1882.

CONGRESS AND REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : While thanking you for your very courteous and candid discussion of my article in the *International Review*, I will ask permission to offer some comments upon the points which you advance in relation to the French Government ; and, first, as to the cause to which you justly ascribe much of the weakness of the Executive —the want of power on the part of the latter to dissolve the Chamber without the consent of the Senate. It is, indeed, a grievous defect, and needs to be remedied, though in what way, the burden is, fortunately, not upon us to decide. I hold, however, that the same difficulty does not exist in our case, inasmuch as, although the President has no power of dissolving Congress, the same practical result would be arrived at through our short terms. Speaking from memory, I believe the average duration of Parliament is for three or four years, and the expense and turmoil of a dissolution are so great as to form a serious responsibility for any party or ministry. Our Congress comes to a natural end every two years, and it would be perfectly easy for any Cabinet to arrange important test questions so as to come just before the end of a term, while the fear of their constituents would lead members to be careful about worrying the Cabinet too severely in the interval. At any rate, if French experience is against us in this respect, this result is offset by its demonstration that the institution of a responsible ministry, which the late Mr. Bagehot maintained was only practicable under a limited monarchy, is perfectly so under what he called the Presidential system ; that the President need not be the head of a party, but only a pure and highminded man, in whom the majority of the country have confidence. The careers of Presidents MacMahon and Grévy are incidents of which any country might well be proud.

The true question seems to be, not whether the French have worked the institution perfectly, but whether they have done better with it than they would without it : what would have been the consequences if both Chamber and Senate had been left to their own devices, and without any leadership at all, as our Congress is—a question which, I think, admits of no doubtful answer. Within the last twenty years constitutional government by a ministry has been introduced into nearly all European countries (where it did not exist before), with various degrees of success. In Italy, the trouble is precisely the same as in France—a factional division of parties and constant changes of ministries, unable to secure any effective control of the Legislature. This proves nothing against the institution itself, which I believe to be the only hope of popular government, but only the absence of political sense and experience among the people, of any effective organization of great parties, of free and general public discussion, and of a watchful press, such as ours would be, if it had anything to watch ; in short, of all those qualities which have been the cause of success in Great Britain, and which our people possess in so eminent a degree that it seems more than probable that the institution could be made to work in this country as well as, or better than, in that. You will please observe that I do not advocate the admission of the Cabinet officers to Congress as any specific in itself, but as a means of enabling the people of this country to come to the aid of the Executive as against the encroachment and unsurpations of the Legislature, which constitute the greatest danger to our political future.

I have followed with pain and regret the increasing tendency to which you allude, to extend the influence of politics in the French civil service ; but I draw from it the conclusion that there is no country in Europe whose history during the last century involves a more important lesson for the United States as regards the danger of excessive power in a legislative body, worse even than that of the Executive, because, besides its own inherent evils, it tends ultimately and almost certainly to the establishment of the latter. That history, instead of a purposeless series of revolutions, seems to me to represent a steady, though fluctuating, struggle toward a working relation between the Executive and a legislative body in its proper functions. The first revolution failed because it threw the whole power, which for two centuries had been in the hands of a despotism, into those of a legislature which was totally incompetent to wield it. The Jacobin and Cordelier clubs corresponded very closely to our caucus machinery, and led straight to the power of Napoleon, and after him of the restored Bourbons. The revolution of July failed because Louis Philippe and Guizot, in the face of the passion for equality which had grown up, persisted in restricted suffrage for a very small class of rich electors, and governed by as corrupt a Chamber as any in Great Britain during the last century. The revolution of 1848, again, failed because the Legislature could not govern, and the same cause produced a second Napoleon. For the third time a Legislature is trying its hand, with this important difference, that the germs of a responsible ministry are making their appearance. The progress is, on the whole, encouraging, but the danger is still in a preponderant Legislature, unable to use power and unwilling to part with it, while the militarism which is crushing Europe offers perilous facilities to any adventurer of adequate genius to renew the old remedy of arbitrary power. The hope is in the widening intelligence and the growing strength of the popular will.

The history of the United States since the Constitution, both local and national, is of the steady increase of legislative and the decrease of executive power, with the single exception of the period of our Civil War, when the necessity of real government led to the temporary establishment, by popular consent, of a military despotism almost as complete as that of France. The condition of this country, the habits of the people, and the extent of local self-government, will, no doubt, postpone for a long time the full consequences of this political error ; but ominous signs are not wanting that government by legislature is as impotent as it has ever been, and that sooner or later civil strife will call sternly for stronger executive rule. It is for this reason that I have long labored, and while the breath of life is in me shall continue to labor, to make our people understand the difference between executive power which is strong but responsible to the national will, and the only other alternative which is possible, however long it may be postponed—such a power which is strong but irresponsible.—Respectfully yours,

GAMALIEL BRADFORD.

NORTH ELBA, N. Y., Sept. 8.

[We must remind Mr. Bradford that the expiration of a Congressional term by legal limitation cannot possibly be made to mean

the popular eye an appeal to the people by the Executive as a dissolution does. To attract popular attention, and put popular judgment in motion on a particular point, the President has to say or do something to indicate that he desires a popular decision between himself and his opponents, either about his policy generally or some part of it. To suppose that the people would pronounce this decision at the ordinary biennial election, is to suppose that they pay that close and constant attention to the work of government on the absence of which Mr. Bradford's demand for increased Executive responsibility is based. A dissolution in France or England calls them to the polls because it is a veritable appeal to the voters, the answer to which will decide who shall administer the Government. The ordinary Congressional election would decide nothing unmistakably. It might be a condemnation of Presidential junketing, of Congressional corruption, or of half-a-dozen things besides, and every newspaper would be able to put a different interpretation on the result; so that the President would be no wiser after it than before.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in preparation a new edition of Dana's 'Household Book of Poetry,' reset and considerably enlarged to accommodate the later growth of poets. They will also publish this month 'The Young People of Shakspere's Dramas,' a book for youthful readers.

A 'History of the Plymouth Colonies,' by W. T. Davis; a 'Memoir of Miss Edgeworth,' by Grace A. Oliver; and 'Ralph Waldo Emerson: An Estimate of his Character and Genius,' by A. Bronson Alcott, are in the press of A. Williams & Co.

J. W. Bouton announces an edition of one hundred copies of Lodge's Winckelmann's 'History of Ancient Art,' in four volumes, royal quarto, printed by hand; 'The Complete Works of Meissonier,' 320 reproductions in photogravure from the original paintings, in size imperial folio (to be sold in monthly parts by subscription); Makart's "Five Senses," of corresponding size and mode of reproduction; a 'Descriptive and Historical Catalogue of the Works of Murillo,' by Charles B. Curtis, illustrated with etchings—in two sizes, octavo and imperial octavo, the latter containing the etchings in two states; 'A Catalogue of the Masterpieces of Modern Art throughout the World,' illustrated, and uniform with the Salon Catalogue, by F. G. Dumas; 'Cradle-land of Arts and Creeds,' by Charles J. Stone; 'Bible Myths and their Parallels in Other Religions'; and 'Medical Economy in the Middle Ages.'

A. C. Armstrong & Son's fall announcements include a new illustrated library edition of the 'Works of William Gilmore Simms,' at a greatly reduced price; cheaper editions of May's and Hallam's Constitutional Histories of England; 'Gesta Christi, or a History of Humane Progress,' by Charles Loring Brace; 'Revivals: How and When?' by the Rev. W. W. Newell; 'Birthday Flowers, their Language and Legend,' by W. J. Gordon, illustrated by Viola Broughton; 'Niagara, and Other Famous Cataracts of the World,' by George W. Holley, quarto, with full-page illustrations; and Brækstad's capital version of Asbjörnsen's 'Folk and Fairy Tales' ('Round the Yule Log,' as the English edition is called).

Lee & Shepard will bring out during the autumn 'Paul and Persis; or, the Revolutionary Struggle in the Mohawk Valley,' by Mrs. Mary E. Brush; 'Water Analysis,' by Dr. George L. Austin; the following holiday volumes: 'Ring Out, Wild Bells,' with designs by Miss Humphrey, 'That Glorious Song of Old,' illustrated by Fredericks, and 'Curfew Must Not Ring To-night,' illustrated by several artists; together with numerous juvenile works, embracing 'Our Boys in India,' by Harry W. French, with illustrations from photographs, and 'The Wonderful City of Tokio,' by Edward Greey.

'Erothanatos, and Sonnets,' by Leonard Wheeler, will be published immediately by James Miller.

A new "Men of the Time," to be called 'The Biographical Dictionary of Notable Living Americans,' has been undertaken by Edwin T. Freedley and F. V. Van Artsdalen, M.D., of Philadelphia. As the subjects of it are solicited to celebrate themselves, there is now a fine chance for those of our statesmen who have been slighted by Vapereau to bring themselves properly before their contemporaries and posterity.

Harper & Brothers have brought out a new edition of Nordhoff's 'California,' which first appeared in its original form about nine years ago. It has been thoroughly revised and rewritten to adapt it to the present time. It does not appear to have lost by revision any of that glow of admiration which distinguished the original book, and under the influence of which old Californian readers sometimes found the charm of novelty in the description of their most familiar surroundings.

The double number 7-8 (vol. vii.) of the *Library Journal* is filled with the valuable proceedings of the Cincinnati Conference of Librarians in May last. The most important papers are given in extenso, and include several systems of library classification, of which that devised by Mr. Schwartz is fully displayed and exemplified.

The September-October number of *Education* contains a sketch of the career of Charleston's excellent Mayor, Mr. W. A. Courtenay, with a steel portrait. We remark, also, for its good sense the article on the "Influence of a Foreign Education on American Girls," by Mrs. L. H. Stone.

An English edition of Wagner's "Tristan and Isolde" has just been issued by Breitkopf & Haertel in Leipzig. The translation of the text is by H. & F. Corder, the translators of "Parsifal," and the arrangement of the vocal score by Dr. Hans von Bülow. Bülow's score of "Tristan" is beyond comparison the most perfect work of its kind in existence, Wagner himself having expressed his great satisfaction and surprise at the skill and art with which Bülow overcame the difficulties presented by this, his most complicated and characteristic work. The score is an inexhaustible mine of harmonic, melodic, and rhythmic treasures. The number of sharps, flats, and double flats on every page is extraordinary, and any piano pupil who is afraid of those signs can effect a lasting cure of this weakness by playing over the whole score of "Tristan" two or three times. The price in Germany is only $2 50.

The "Discours fa dins la vilo coomtalo de Fourcauquié i jo flourau de Prouvenco per W. C. Bonaparte Wyse" (Discourse at the Floral Games of Forcalquier, May 14, 1882, Montpellier, 22 p. 8vo) has been published. Though by an Irishman, it is written in Provençal and conceived in the most hopeful mood as to the future of that language. But a still more curious publication is a report of sixteen pages, read at the same meeting by J. B. Gaut, and written in Provençal sonnets. The latter has been published at Aix—price 25 cents.

—In recent contributions to *Knowledge* (July 28 and August 18) the Abbé Moigno and Mr. W. Mattieu Williams, the distinguished writer and scientist, give some interesting personal experiences as to the value of tobacco and "drinks," and the relation which stimulants generally hold to the production of work intellectual as well as physical. The veteran Abbé (now an octogenarian), whose memory appears to have been, and presumably still is, of an unusually retentive kind, and who for this reason was threatened by Arago with being "burnt as a wizard," claims to have attained to "incomparable health" and to have been "one of the greatest workers" of his age through an almost total abstinence from stimulants. To the carrying out of this principle of abnegation, doubtless helped by rigid adherence to simple dietary and other habits, are ascribed his "indefinite capacity for work," "unconscious digestion," and the possession of a countenance unmarred by either wrinkles or pimples. The only break in the illustrious health career of the mathematician appears to have been made during a brief sojourn in Munich, where, with the learned Bavarians (the most famous of whom, Steinheil, an associate investigator in the department of physics, boasted of smoking six thousand cigars annually), the Abbé indulged in the obnoxious custom of smoking and drinking; and during the period of the preparation of the 'Calculus of Variations,' when he discovered that his memory was rapidly failing. With the total disuse of tobacco over a period extending from September, 1863, up to June 25 of this year, the proportional increase of vegetable over animal food, and the limitation of stimulants to a daily half-cup of coffee and a "small spoonful of brandy, or other alcoholic liquor," there was a speedy return of both bodily and mental vigor, and with the results characteristically described by the writer.

— The experiences of Moigno are supplemented by Mr. Richard A. Proctor, the astronomer and editor of *Knowledge*, with some of his own personal researches in the field of dietary sanitation and mental development; the general outcome of his observations being that "for steady literary or scientific work," and "throughout the hours of work (or near them)," for most men "something very close to total abstinence from stimulants is the best policy." This is in perfect harmony with the views of Mr. Mattieu Williams, who also notes the prejudicial effects of stimulation upon certain kinds of bodily exercise. Mr. Williams's remarks are more strictly directed to the subject of pedestrianism, and as coming from one who has had a very considerable experience, both as an ordinary vacation pedestrian and as a mountaineer, deserve no little attention. He found, by practical experiment, that the use of stimulants on a foot journey, while it produced a "temporary exhilaration that was pleasant enough while it lasted," invariably after a short time brought on weariness, almost an inability to accomplish the last few miles of the daily stage, and the desire of "halting at a roadside 'pub.' or wine-shop, for a drink on the way." No such inclination seems to have been entertained when "the only beverage was water, or water plus a cup of coffee for breakfast *only* (no afternoon tea). Then I came in fresh, usually finishing at the best pace of the day, enjoying the brisk exercise in cool evening air." As a final summing up of his observations, Mr. Williams gives it as his "firm conviction that the only beverage for obtaining the maximum work out of any piece of human machinery is water, as pure as possible; that all other beverages (including even tea and coffee), ginger-beer, and all such concoctions as the so-called temperance drinks, are prejudicial to anybody not under medical treatment. To a sound-bodied man there is no danger in drinking any

quantity of cold water in the hottest weather, provided *it is swallowed slowly*. I have drunk as much as a dozen quarts in the course of a stiff mountain climb, when perspiring profusely, and never suffered the slightest inconvenience, but, on the contrary, have found that the perspiration promoted by frequent and copious libations at the mountain streams enabled me to vigorously enjoy the roasting heat of sun-rays striking so freely and fiercely as they do through the thin air on the southward slopes of a high mountain."

—The President of the Stuttgart *Litterarischer Verein* complains that his name is continually miscalled. Quoting Goethe's 'Dichtung und Wahrheit' to the effect that a man's name is not a cloak to be thrown on and off at will, but fits him like his skin, which cannot be cut off without pain, Herr Keller continues: "My father baptized me Adelbert, not Adalbert; he gave me a name of the nineteenth century, to which I belong. Why will people persist in sending me back to the tenth? We do not say nowadays adal, nebal, sattal, sessal, wachtal. Ought we to give up Adolf for Adahulf, Hellmuth for Hiltimuth, Hirsch for Hiruz, Hecker for Hagihar, Konrat for Chuonrat, Wilhelm for Willahalm?"

—The *Revue Critique* notes the establishment in Paris of a society (Société Historique) designed to be an intellectual centre like the Athenæum Club in London, or, as the statutes of the Society put it, "to form a vast association inspired by the love of Knowledge and of our Country." The Society creates a club which is to serve as a place of meeting for all those who are occupied with historical studies in the broadest sense: not merely political history, but literary, artistic, linguistic, philosophical—the history of Knowledge, in fact. There is to be a reading-room, and the club will enable its members to buy French and foreign books on the best terms. The annual fee is sixty francs for the first 500 members, afterward 100 francs. Among the members we remark Cherbuliez, Du Camp, Fustel de Coulanges, Laboulaye, Henri Martin, Renan, Léon Say, Sully Prudhomme, Taine. The *Revue* says that with all the many artistic, political, commercial, and agricultural clubs of Paris, there has never before been a literary club.

—Terrien de Lacouperie has made a discovery, adopted and carried forward by Prof. Robert K. Douglass (*Academy*, August 12), which will give great satisfaction to the unhappy people who, not knowing any Chinese, have attempted to get some idea of the Chinese faith from translations of their sacred books. The Yî King, as it is understood by learned Chinese and translated by Professor Legge, consists of such sentences as this: "Lî indicates that (in regard to what it denotes) it will be advantageous to be firm and correct, and that thus there will be free course and success. Let (its subject) also nourish (a docility like that of) the cow, and there will be good fortune." The prisoner who got as far as the war with Pisa in Guicciardini's History and chose the galleys in preference to finishing the reading, would have gone very little way in the Yî King, though Professor Douglass contents himself with saying that "when we read chapter after chapter like this we feel that there must be some mistake—that the clew to the text must be lost." Now, however, it appears that the Yî King is not a religious book at all, but a collection of vocabularies, ephemerides, and the like, and that no one need read it but the professed Chinese philologists, which is a great relief. Only it is a pity that the discovery was not made in time to keep it out of "The Sacred Books of the East," a series which is already becoming somewhat expensive.

—The new 'Deutsche Geschichte' of George Kaufmann is a very acceptable book, covering very compendiously, and at the same time with great thoroughness, one of the most confused and baffling periods of history. It consists of two moderate-sized octavo volumes (somewhat less than 800 pages in all), ending with the death of Charles the Great in 814. The first volume, "Die Germanen der Urzeit," is, so to speak, an independent work, of about the scope of Arnold's 'Deutsche Urzeit' (see the *Nation*, Sept. 16, 1880), which reaches to the foundation of the Frank monarchy, and is continued in a second volume to the death of Charlemagne. Kaufmann makes his dividing line the settling of the Goths in Spain (419). Probably his second volume—"Von dem römischen Weltreiche zu der geistlich - weltlichen Universalmonarchie des Mittelalters"—will be found the most useful part of his work, for the period stood much in need of an historian. Mr. Kaufmann's view of the great crisis of this period is judicious and impartial. He recognizes the healthy elements that still existed in the Roman Empire, "but with cultivated nations despotism is always short-lived, and without a sound division of property it is impossible for any state to exist." This reference of the decay of the Empire to social causes is of the highest importance. The dedication to Rudolph Sohm is a clear indication of the author's attitude in regard to the constitution of the Frank period. We are inclined to think that nowhere will be found a better sketch of the government under Charles the Great.

—The value of photogrammetry on scientific expeditions is discussed by A. Meydenbauer in No. 7 of the *Verhandlungen* of the Berlin Geographical Society. The possibility of using photographs as a basis for measurements of landscape and architecture has long been known, the author's first experiments in this line dating back twenty years. Professor Jordan showed on his Egyptian tour that it is possible to construct a chart with the aid of an ordinary photographic apparatus; but the process requires laborious observations, which can be avoided by using such a camera as was exhibited in 1867, in Paris, by Laussedat, with fixed focus, whose pictures contain all the elements necessary to enable any person to construct a reliable chart from the views taken on the spot in a purely mechanical manner by any other person. The advantages of this photogrammetric process are various, and enable us to utilize many improvements of which photography is still capable, but which are not required for ordinary purposes. Already it has been shown that many expensive old archæological prints are incorrect, whereas in the photogrammetric pictures the details are not only absolutely correct, but can be more conveniently studied than even in their natural state, a microscope here taking the place of a spyglass; nor need such disadvantages as limited time or climatic conditions be any longer taken into consideration. On men-of-war making coast observations it will be an easy matter to take along a sufficient supply of plates, whose weight makes them objectionable for expeditions by land. It is suggested, however, that this difficulty might be obviated by the use of paper in place of the glass plates. For military purposes the use of a photogrammetric apparatus on a captive balloon would be great. The balloon need not be large enough to carry a man, for the objective could be opened by an electric current. At a height of 500 metres, in ordinary conditions, the place and arrangement of troops, etc., could be indicated distinctly. As for the distance at which details can be fixed on the plate, it was found that in German latitudes one kilometre to ten indicates the limits, whereas further south—epecially on plateaus and on summer afternoons—coarse mountainous outlines were visible at fifteen km. As the use of the apparatus requires special training, the establishment of an institute for this purpose would be desirable. With a corps of well-prepared operators, photogrammetry would, the author thinks, mark as great a progress over old methods of measurement as the introduction in military affairs of artillery did over former methods of attack.

MR. MALLOCK'S DISCOVERY.

Social Equality. A Short Study in a Missing Science. By William Hurrell Mallock. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

THIS book, if the author's account of what it contains is to be believed, is one of the most important contributions to human knowledge made since the time of Bacon. He says boldly that he has discovered a new science, which is nothing else than the "science of human character"; and not only this, but that by means of it we are furnished with a key to the solution of some of the gravest problems presented by the social inequalities produced in the progress of civilization.

What he undertakes to show is that the idea of the social-democrat, that the perfection of society involves social equality, is all nonsense, and that the corollary derived from it of a general redistribution of property is a fallacy. "The theory is that we can redistribute the existing wealth of the world, and yet not diminish the amount of it." The wealth in the world having been produced by labor, and the wealthy classes being mere accidental appropriators of it, this should be done. If, Mr. Mallock declares, labor is really the cause of wealth, as has hitherto been taught by the economists, and believed by the mass of mankind, the position of the democrat is unassailable, and "on the side of the conservatives there is no more to be said, except pitifully to ask for a short reprieve." But the new science enables Mr. Mallock to show that the real cause of wealth is not labor, but something far different, and consequently the conservatives are masters of the situation.

From Mr. Mallock's account it seems that several previous philosophers came very near discovering this missing science, particularly the political economists, Herbert Spencer and Buckle. Adam Smith discovered political economy, and missed the science of character by a hair's breadth; Spencer, with his sociology, came within an ace of it; and Buckle, with his science of history, came as near it on one side as Spencer did on the other. In the discovery of sciences, however, every child knows that a miss is as good as a mile. An example or two from Spencer will show what a miss he made of it. "If," says Spencer, "in crossing a street a man sees a carriage coming upon him, you may safely assert that, in 999 cases out of 1,000, he will get out of the way. If, being pressed to catch a train, he knows that by one route it is a mile to the station, and by another two miles, you may conclude with considerable confidence that he will take the one-mile route." Further: "The desire to avoid punishment will so act on the average man as to produce an average foreseen result." Similarly: "On the average of men the desire to get the greatest return for labor, the desire to rise into a higher rank of life, the desire to gain applause, and so forth, will each of them produce an average result also." And finally: "To hold all this is to hold that there can be prevision of social phenomena, and therefore social science."

Now, says Mr. Mallock, it is extraordinary that

Spencer should not have felt that what all this pointed to was not social science, but the science of character.

"Surely, one might think nothing could be more clear than this. The science described thus must not only, like Buckle's, point to a science of character, but it can be nothing more or less than the science of character itself. Such would be naturally our conclusion from the extracts above quoted; but if we follow Mr. Spencer further we shall see that it would be a wholly wrong one. The science of character he does indeed touch upon; but he does this as though he hardly knew what he was doing. Though he touches it, he does not grasp it; though he sees it, he does not recognize it. Never wholly out of contact with it, he is yet always sliding off it, as though it were an inclined surface. Not once does he fasten on it, as the real centre of the question; and he practically misses it quite as much as Buckle did."

It is the custom for most scientific men, when they discover new sciences, to state in plain language their scope and limits; and the first criticism that we have to make upon Mr. Mallock's discovery is that he does not clearly explain what the science of human character is. Astronomy, we know, is the science which informs us of the laws which govern the movements of the heavenly bodies; political economy relates to the laws which govern man as a wealth-producing and exchanging animal; and in analogy with these we should suppose that Mr. Mallock's science would give us the laws which govern human character. If it did, it would be invaluable to everybody. It would enable us at once to predict human action, which now is a business relegated to "mind-readers" and other quacks, just as chemistry was once in the hands of the alchemists, and astronomy in those of the astrologers. Mr. Mallock appears at the outset to say that his science will do this. "If, however, on the other hand, any special action be given us, it can show us, as a certainty, that it was produced by a special motive; and conversely, that if the special motive is wanting, the special action is sure to be wanting too. This holds good throughout the whole science of character." But, satisfactory as this is, the illustrations he gives of the nature of the science are rather bewildering. The first of these is a quotation from George Eliot: "Emotion is obstinately irrational; it absolutely refuses to adopt the quantitative view of human anguish, and to admit that thirteen happy lives are a set-off against twelve miserable lives, which leaves a clear balance on the side of satisfaction." "Now," says Mr. Mallock triumphantly, "of all the countless readers who have thought these words true, not one, perhaps, has recognized them as a hard scientific generalization. Yet such they are; and if they be true at all, the truth they embody belongs to a science of character, as much as the formulæ of a chemist belong to the science of chemistry, and would be as much in place in a scientific educational handbook." Another illustration of the nature of the science is taken from "La Bruyère: "Love may lead to ambition, but ambition will never return to love." A third is from "Othello": "Trifles light as air are to the jealous confirmations strong." It may be admitted that if there is a science of character, and any one of these quotations is an illustration of its truths, or laws, or facts, then all literature is full of materials for it, and our wonder that a man of Mr. Spencer's grasp of mind should be "always sliding off it as though it were an inclined surface" is considerably increased.

"George Eliot does not say," continues Mr. Mallock, "that everybody feels emotion; La Bruyère does not say that everybody falls in love; Shakspere does not say that everybody is made jealous. The generality of the statements does not lie there. As general statements they mean nothing more than this: that given the emotion, given the love, and given the jealousy, emotion, love, and jealousy will act in certain uniform ways."

This shows, however, that all hope that the new science will enable us to predict individual action is idle; and as we acquire a deeper acquaintance with it, we find that it has no such aim. All that it enables us to do is to tell that certain motives produce certain results. Mr. Mallock's last example is his most striking illustration: "All productive labor that rises above the lowest is always motived by the desire for social inequality."

It will be seen from this that Mr. Mallock's science consists of isolated propositions about the relation between men's motives and their actions. These all rest on observation. It is a truism that we know nothing of human motives except as they are inferred from human acts. Experience teaches us what the desires of the mind impel us to do, and we assume uniformity of action throughout the race. If a poor man lies in wait for a traveller on the highway, knocks him down, and robs him of his purse, we infer with considerable certainty that his motive was to get the money in it; and observation of the manner in which men act under temptation teaches a number of truths of the same kind. But, taken altogether, what science of "character" do they produce? Mr. Mallock does not tell us; and when we really examine what he has been saying, we find that instead of explaining what his "science of character" is, or giving it a definition, and showing how it is related to other human sciences, he has been collecting a number of general truths about various human passions and motives, and assuring us that they imply a science, which he has discovered. And finally, the science yields him the startling truth that we have quoted above about the desire for inequality. It is just as isolated as any of the others, and he proposes in the first place to prove its truth, and then with it show several important things:

"Now, I have made no attempt as yet to prove this proposition true; it still confronts us as utterly unsupported. My sole aim hitherto has been, before proving it to be a truth, to explain the kind of truth that I propose to prove it to be. Firstly, it is a truth belonging to an inductive science, and it embodies as such not opinions as to particulars, but knowledge as to a permanent principle; and secondly, while this knowledge cannot be applied to the present so strictly as to enable us to predict a man's future actions, it will enable us, suppose a given action predicted, to state as a certainty that a certain cause must produce it. Given the action, it will enable us to reason back to the motive; and given the absence of the motive, to deny the possibility of the action. In other words, it will afford us no certainty that a hundred years hence there will be any skilled labor at all in the world, but it will afford us a certainty that if there be any skilled labor, the desire for social inequality will have been the motive that produced it, and that social inequalities will be existing to make the desire operative."

Mr. Mallock then proceeds to prove his scientific truth or law, that labor is the result of a desire for inequality. As far as we understand his proof, the evidence of it consists in the fact that in the early stages of civilization wealth is produced by means of slavery. One man enslaves others in order that he may be better off than they, and the wealth that they produce is consequently the result of his desire for inequality.

To return to his original proposition about the democratic desire for equality, we now see what he means by saying that labor is not the cause of production. Production is caused by the desire for inequality; and if you take away this desire for inequality, and substitute a desire for equality, you are on the high road to chaos—*q. e. d.* But the fact is that Mr. Mallock's truth is a mere invention of his own. Nobody desires inequality as an end. If the beginnings of civilization rest on slavery, slavery itself rests on conquest, but one tribe or nation does not conquer another because there is a longing for inequality, but because it wants the other's women or lands or cattle. The conquerors make the slaves work merely because they do not want to work themselves; they are able to do this, no doubt, because of an inequality of strength, just as a modern capitalist is able to employ labor because of an inequality in the means of subsistence; but it is an extraordinary inference from this to imagine that the desire for inequality is the cause of labor. It seems to have escaped Mr. Mallock that it is very much against his proposition that it should have been left to him to discover it. The truths of his "science of human character" all rest on ages of observation of man by his fellows; and if there had been any such thing as a general desire for inequality, we should have heard of it long ere this. We have heard of the desire for riches, pleasure, fame, power; but it was left to Mr. Mallock to discover that there was an eternal human longing for inequality as an end in itself.

From the desire for inequality Mr. Mallock draws the momentous conclusion that "any social changes that tend to abolish inequalities will tend also to destroy or diminish our civilization." This would seem to show that in any given state of society the existing inequalities were always right, and it could be used in support of the system of slavery or polygamy, or any kind of abuse that it seemed desirable to defend. But Mr. Mallock, feeling that this would be going too far, guards himself against such an inference by declaring that the efficiency of the desire for inequality, "as the cause of civilized production," will increase with its magnitude "only within certain limits." These "will differ according to the temperament, the political history, and the occupations of each separate people." But "precisely the same principle will be found to underlie all of them. Inequality, as it increases, will in every case increase production, until by its magnitude it begins to cause despair or indifference rather than hope in the skilled laborer, and misery and weakness instead of resolve in the unskilled. As soon as it increases beyond this point production will diminish; as soon as it decreases toward this point again production again will increase."

In other words, there must be just enough inequality, but not too much; and where the "point" to which Mr. Mallock refers is to be found no man can say. Now, what his book is designed to show is the absurdity of the dreams of the social-democrat, who longs for a general division of the property of the world, and the abolition of inequalities of all kind. On his own showing, all he has managed to prove is that there must always be inequalities in the world, if there is to be civilization, but that how great these inequalities ought to be must depend on circumstances. All this might have been proved, and has been proved over and over again, by writers who never heard of the "science of human character." There is nothing new in Mr. Mallock's conclusions, and if his means of reaching them are new, they are as certainly wrong. The whole argument is really a juggle with words, and his discovery of the "science of human character" a monstrous mare's nest.

The Life and Works of Thomas Bewick: Being an Account of his Career and Achievements in Art. With a Notice of the Works of John Bewick. By David Croal Thompson. With 100 illustrations. London. 1882.

We have at last, in the volume before us, a full and satisfactory record of one of England's

greatest artists. It is not often that a book so thoroughly fulfils the promise of the title-page. Mr. Thompson's labor has evidently been one of love; yet he has avoided the not unusual exaggerative admiration of the enthusiast. He has given us no indiscriminate eulogy, but a plain, straightforward, impartial narrative, not brilliantly but well written, sober, careful, and sensible, such as best befits the character of Bewick, the plain, simple Englishman, "more like a small farmer than a competent artist," homely for all his genius. We have waited long for this much-wanted addition to our biographies; Jackson and Chatto's account in the 'Treatise on Wood-Engraving' being limited by the more general object of that book, Atkinson's 'Memoir' being only a sketch, and the 'Memoir' written by Bewick himself lacking continuity and completeness.

Thomas Bewick, both as artist and as man, may well claim an extended recognition. Famous as an engraver, yet greater as a draughtsman, whether copying from life or designing, and without need of reference to his works in water-colors, he takes rank with the foremost men in English art. Only a draughtsman on wood (on small pieces of wood—his best blocks some three inches square), yet in truth to nature and in the power of humorous and pathetic invention he is not surpassed by Hogarth himself. Is the genius of Holbein less manifest in the "Dance of Death" than in his larger works? Nor is the greatness of Bewick less than that of Hogarth, though the one in his "Marriage à la Mode" has painted perhaps the best and most lasting of English pictures, and the other has only rendered in black and white the birds of England and those marvellous tail-pieces to the 'Birds' and to the 'Fables.' For true and perfect delineation of bird or beast, when he saw them in life, no one could excel him; his landscape is equally truthful (a single cut, the "Tame Duck" is proof sufficient), and we have no better representations of English—say, rather, Northumbrian—landscape than those which either serve as backgrounds to his birds or stand as pictures by themselves. His human figures are not academical, and want grace (grace was not needed in the subjects that he preferred), but in his best works they are excellently drawn, well composed, and suited to his purpose. For all the higher qualities of an artist Bewick's place is among the first. Due honor to him on such ground has come but lately. As the engraver only we incline to think he has been somewhat overrated. We would also call him rather the improver than the restorer or inventor of engraving on wood. However poorly, the art was practised by others before he began, and Robert Branston, his contemporary, was certainly the more accomplished *engraver*, Bewick's most remarkable work showing little of what would be technically known as engraving skill. Distinct, however, from that mere technical capacity was the artist faculty which made light of all scholastic deficiencies, and which, breaking through or escaping the conventional, was the occasion of his peculiar method—that of using the graver always as a pencil, drawing every line with it—a method commonly known as "white line," the true and distinctive method of engraving on wood. It is this which distinguished Bewick from Branston, the Bewick from the Branston school. As engravers only, Branston and his greater pupil, John Thompson, were superior to Bewick. Bewick's own pupils, Nesbit, Clennell, and Harvey, excelled him as engravers, Nesbit and Clennell not departing from the master's method.

We are here supplementing our author's writing. He takes little critical notice of the Bewick *engraving* (not without reason when the critic is not an engraver), and gives his chief attention to the more important designs. These are thoroughly treated of: catalogued, described, and well discriminated as to merit. In this respect the book is most satisfactory. Everywhere we have evidence of careful research and conscientious examination. The writer seems to have looked into everything bearing on his subject, from Jackson's 'Treatise' to last year's publications of the Fine Art Society. We have lists of all the engravings that can fairly be attributed to Bewick; we have accounts of the several editions of his more important works; we have descriptive notices of what, in the 'Quadrupeds' and 'Birds,' the author would consider the best cuts. Dissenting from his judgment of the inferiority of work in the 'Fables' (there are marks of other hands employed, but no signs of the master's decline), we are bound to acknowledge Mr. Thompson's general correctness. He is well informed, and has given us amply of his information.

Of the man Bewick—of his life, as well as of his work—we have a good and, we cannot doubt, a very faithful representation. Of his parentage, his early country life and training; of his simple habits, his manly, earnest, blameless character, we have enough, and that well told, to bring the man before us. It would have been out of harmony with Bewick's nature to write of him gushingly or garrulously; but there is no stint of honest and well-grounded admiration. Errors there may be, only to be found by close comparison with the sources of information open to Mr. Thompson. But the work bears the stamp of close inquiry and faithfulness. One error we have detected may be a misprint. Writing of his marriage (note to p. 85), we find: "Bewick at this time was thirty years old." On the same page it is stated that the marriage took place on the 20th of April, 1786. At page 1 we are told that Thomas Bewick was born on the 12th of August, 1753. Note also at page 116 *zebra*, a misprint for *zebu;* at page 117, *Sandal* for *Sandoe;* and at page 127 a reference to page 176, in Bewick's first edition, which should be page 170. And our copy of the first edition does not contain either the Black Bear or the Harrier, both spoken of by Mr. Thompson as to be found there.

What most we have to find fault with in the book may be here appended without intention of subtracting from the praise we have already only justly given. Few things are absolutely perfect. Our chief objection is to the choice and arrangement of the engravings. Number rather than choiceness seems to have been the motive of selection—shall we say with the author or with the publishers? John Bewick, the brother, an engraver too, and a designer of much talent, though not of original genius, is very properly introduced by Mr. Thompson, and treated of not only in connection with his greater brother, but on his own account also. We do not therefore need eleven examples of his inferior work, all out of one small publication, the 'Looking-Glass for the Mind,' scattered among the pages merely to add to the show. Fourteen more of early and quite uncharacteristic blocks by Thomas Bewick, from his 'Select Fables,' 1776, 1784, seem given for no better reason, just because they were within reach. The book-plates at pp. 232-3, and the cut on page 228, are certainly not by Bewick. We should be very doubtful of the book-plate "on copper" at page 89, and of the small "Chillingham Bull," page 109. The Parnell cuts, pp. 153 and 161, may be partly his, but he never touched the Thurston drawings at pp. 92 and 219—they are probably Clennell's. A happier selection of blocks, such as that in the September number of the *Century*, might also have been given, had others been available. All allowances, however, made for choice, we must decidedly protest against the placing of the cuts—distributed as if only to get a look of continual illustration, without chronological order or juxtaposition with the text. This sort of thing may suit an "illustrated" Christmas-book, where cuts are only wanted to attract, but is intolerable in any history. The cuts are some from the original blocks, some from electrotypes, some "reproduced" by "Swain's process." In all cases they do injustice to Bewick, being taken from worn blocks or from not the best impressions. It is not easy to see how this could have been avoided; and Mr. Thompson has wisely rejected copies.

Mr. Thompson is hard upon Anderson, our first American engraver, for his copies of the 'Quadrupeds' and other works. "Pure piracies" he calls them. The words would be strictly correct, had they been put forth as Bewick's. But the title-page is plain: "the figures engraved on wood, chiefly copied from the original of Thomas Bewick"; the engravings also showing for themselves that they were not Bewick's—all of them, as Mr. Thompson is careful to note, reversed, that being easier than reversing them on the wood—"faithfully copied, but the workmanship decidedly inferior." Inferior of course: they were copies. Also, they were the first attempts at engraving made in this country.

Turning back from our objections, we can but commend the author for a book well worthy of its subject—a valuable addition to our knowledge of Bewick and of his works.

Selections from the Writings of Walter Savage Landor. Arranged and edited by Sidney Colvin. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

"I SHALL dine late; but the dining-room will be well lighted, the guests few and select." This was Landor's prediction of his own future in the world of letters, and it has certainly been fulfilled. The Landorians are a mere handful, and there seems little likelihood that they will ever be more. Indeed, there is danger that, as those pass away who have seen that remarkable man face to face, and felt the influence of his extraordinary personality, and his work comes to rest upon its literary merit alone, it may sink into undeserved oblivion.

In the case of no writer that we can call to mind has there been so great a contrast between the characteristics of the author himself and those of his work; and in none, had we only the work to judge by, should we form so erroneous a conception of the author's personality. Who, from reading, say, 'Pericles and Aspasia,' could imagine that the author was the Boythorn of Dickens? Those who have read Landor's life and have a vivid conception of "the old lion," full of passion, of fire, of sudden fierce wrath, exploding into furious fulminations at mere trifles; full also of tenderness and pity, and of quivering indignation at any wrong done to the innocent and weak; the Landor who (as is said) flung an impertinent per on out of a second-story window into the garden, and then cried in horror, "Good God! I forgot the violets!"—these would naturally expect from such a man work of a volcanic kind—passionate, wild, irregular, full of splendors and glooms, and saturated with intense vitality.

Strangely enough, it is just the opposite of all this. Clear, calm, severely self-restrained, perfectly defined in every part, almost colorless, Landor's work impresses us much like a piece of Greek architecture. We see that the workman has perfect command of himself and of his material at every moment; that every word has been chosen with deliberate preference, and

every sentence carefully wrought and fitted to its place. No man ever subjected himself to severer literary criticism, or took greater pains with the minutest parts. He sought his words, he said, "with care, difficulty, and moroseness." Thus he became "faultily faultless"; he gained perfection of a kind, but he lacks spontaneity and those happy audacities and sudden flashes which are the inspiration of the moment. We admire his noble and pathetic passages; we cannot find a fault or suggest an improvement; yet they never give us a thrill or a glow.

Again, the form he has chosen for by far the greater part of his work—that of Imaginary Conversations—is one not likely now to please the popular taste, though it had some vogue in the glacial period of English literature. It could only now be made successful by one who had the dramatic gift of conceiving or creating a living character, with thoughts and speech all his own. Of this gift Landor had nothing. What history and biography could tell him of his characters he took; and, of course, he made a Czar Peter brutal and a William Penn mild; but, beyond this, the thoughts, in the main, are the thoughts of Landor, and the voice is always the voice of Landor.

But it is not our purpose to go into detailed criticism of Landor's work. Thus much has been said to show why here, if anywhere, a volume of selections is justified, that the public may have the chance of learning something of a really great writer, whom in any other form they are not likely to know at all. Landor lends himself very kindly to this treatment. Most of his finest gems may be detached from their settings without damage; even of his best works, fragments are often as good as the whole. And Mr. Colvin has made his selections with taste and judgment, so as fairly to represent the whole body of Landor's work.

We have space for but a single extract, chosen to give an idea of Landor's descriptive power. The centurion Caius Marius, having entered the besieged city Numantia, reports to his tribune what he beheld therein. The famine-stricken remnant of its inhabitants had thrown themselves in despair on a burning pyre.

"The funereal horn that sounded with such feebleness sounded not so from the faint heart of him who blew it. Him I saw; him only of the living. Should I say it? there was another; there was one child whom its parent could not kill, could not part from. She had hidden it in her robe, I suspect; and when the fire had reached it, either it shrieked or she did. For suddenly a cry pierced through the crackling pine wood, and something of round in figure fell from brand to brand, until it reached the pavement at the feet of him who had blown the horn. I rushed toward him, for I wanted to hear the whole story, and felt the pressure of time. . . . When I gazed on him in height almost gigantic, I wondered not that the blast of his trumpet was so weak; rather did I wonder that famine, whose hand had indented every limb and feature, had left him any voice articulate. . . . He held the child against me, and staggered under it.

"'Behold,' he exclaimed, 'the glorious monument of a Roman triumph!' . . .

"The crowd of incumbent bodies was so dense and heavy that neither the fire nor the smoke could penetrate upward from among them; and they sank, whole and at once, into the smouldering cavern eaten out below. He at whose neck hung the trumpet, felt this and started.

"'There is yet room,' he cried, 'and there is strength enough yet, both in the element and in me.'

"He extended his withered arms, he thrust forward the gaunt links of his throat, and, upon gnarled knees that smote each other audibly, tottered into the civic fire. It, like some hungry and strangest beast on the innermost wild of Africa, pierced, broken, prostrate, motionless, gazed at by its hunter in the impatience of glory, in the delight of awe, panted once more, and seized him!"

The typography and general finish of this little book are very neat, and the portrait full of life and spirit. Two or three slips of the type are not worth noting; but it may save a reader some puzzling if we mention that the mysterious "to excueel" on page 299 should be "to exue it."

Victor Emmanuel. By Edward Dicey, M.A. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

Mr. Dicey has told the story of Victor Emmanuel's life with a great deal of skill, and, without exaggerating his virtues of mind or character, has given a picture of the King's career with which his warmest admirer could hardly find fault. This was not perhaps a difficult task, for it required no subtle analysis or profound psychological inquiry. The last Duke of Savoy and first King of Italy had a mind and heart of great simplicity, though his knowledge of character and his common sense enabled him to make use of other men very different from himself in this respect—astute politicians, who all their lives played his game, not always themselves knowing it. There is something very amusing and at the same time instructive in the remark attributed to the King when he heard of the catastrophe of Sedan and the capture of the wily intriguer who had, ever since his accession to the throne of France, been aiding the cause of Italy chiefly at his own expense: "Only to think that that worthy man would always insist on giving me advice!" The French alliance was, of course, originally the work of Cavour, and it is still one of the secrets of history what were the precise terms of the engagement entered into between the Italian Minister and Napoleon at Plombières, in 1858, under which France agreed to assist Italy against Austria. But Cavour owed his opportunity of making this secret treaty, as well as that of Turin, by which Sardinia became an ally of France and England in the Crimean war, to the King's thorough comprehension of his ability. Throughout his career he always displayed that willingness to repose confidence where it was merited, and absence of a jealous distrust of superior intellectual power, which is one of the unfailing marks of a really great fitness for the work of governing men.

No one can read any account of the rise of modern Italy out of the Sardinian monarchy without seeing that the King, Cavour, and their assistants in the work accomplished it because the race and generation to which they belonged possessed that precious gift for which Italy for centuries had been longing—political sense. Why it should have been lacking for centuries, and should have suddenly appeared in the very quarter in which the Italians had least expected to see it; why, when the whole Peninsula had for a generation been ringing with a demand for a republic, it should unexpectedly have found its saviour in a ruler the traditions of whose family and training were solely aristocratic and military, is a puzzle which can only be fully explained by a more minute study of the social and constitutional development of Piedmont prior to the accession of Victor Emmanuel than Mr. Dicey in a brief biography could afford to undertake. It is, however, just as self-evident now as it was doubtful in Italy then, that the cause of a United Italy was doomed to continual failure until the kingdom abandoned by the ill-fated Charles Albert had been reorganized and recreated by his warlike and politic son. In this work, as Mr. Dicey points out, nothing showed Victor Emmanuel's talent for government more conspicuously than the fact that, in the early and critical portion of his career, he recognized the necessity of being a constitutional sovereign in fact as well as in name, "even when by so doing he ran counter to his own personal preferences and wishes. Very few constitutional rulers have ever adhered so faithfully to the principle that the choice of ministers is a question to be decided by parliament alone, and that it is for a minister, and not for a sovereign, to determine upon what elements the minister shall rely to obtain a majority." A signal instance of self-restraint shown by Victor Emmanuel in this respect was in his allowing Cavour to separate himself from the Conservative party, of which the Prime Minister D'Azeglio was the chief, and to form a coalition with the Left. Victor Emmanuel's life cannot be made romantic, for his character was not romantic; but the romance of the redemption of Italy surrounds all the pregnant events of his reign with a halo which time can never dim. Like the simple heroes of classical history, he was more intent on discharging the task to which he had set himself than in arousing popular enthusiasm for it, or giving it an attractive and spectacular appearance. But the deeds he did were in themselves romantic, the epoch was romantic, and the country he saved, the country of romance. The plainest and simplest story of his life fires the imagination and stirs the blood of the reader.

History of the Twelfth Regiment Massachusetts Volunteers (Webster Regiment). By B. F. Cook. Boston: Twelfth Regiment Association. 1882.

In the still summer nights that came after Big Bethel—before the lively bustle of preparation had given place to the "hope deferred that maketh the heart sick"—the sidewalks of the quiet Boston streets began to echo to the alert tread of young men returning from their drill-halls and armories, keeping step to a new and stirring marching song. It is said to have originated with the Second Battalion M. V. M., in garrison at Fort Warren. It was adopted by the Twelfth Regiment, and by it soon introduced to the public. When this regiment received its colors in Boston on the 18th of July, 1861, and again when it passed through Boston from Fort Warren, going to the field, on the 23d (two days after Bull Run), it sang this song, "John Brown," with a full band. The times added an eloquence to the words, and the inspiring music shouted by 1,040 men pulsated through the crowded streets with thrilling effect. The regiment saw hard service, bore its full part, fought well, and suffered heavily at Cedar Mountain, South Mountain, Antietam, Fredericksburg, and Gettysburg, and did credit to its State and its cause. Three years later, July 1, 1864, with eighty-five men from the field, and eighty-five more gathered on the homeward route from detached service and from hospitals, the regiment again marched through the Boston streets, in sad contrast to its original strength and freshness. A week later it was mustered out of service.

This History is a modest compilation of diaries of various members of the regiment. It contains a capital map of the regiment's marches throughout its service. This is in agreeable contrast to the rough and illegible woodcuts with which publishers of late have fallen into the habit of illustrating books on the war. The Twelfth seems to have shared with the Twenty-first a tendency to "plug" its superior officers for not coming up to its notions of sentry etiquette. This record says: "June 12, 1862—At evening, General McDowell was examining the regimental picket-line, when the sentry demanded the countersign. McDowell refusing to give it, the guard fired, missing the General, but wounding an aide in the leg, and killing his horse. McDowell complimented the sentry for his prompt discharge of duty. (The aide's opinion does not seem to have been obtained.)"

A Dictionary of the Popular Names of the Plants which Furnish the Natural and Acquired Wants of Man in all Matters of General and Domestic Economy. By John Smith. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. 1 vol. 8vo, 459 pp.

In this volume the venerable ex-curator of the Royal Gardens at Kew has gathered a large amount of more or less useful information in a popular and convenient form. The subjects treated are arranged under their English or vernacular names alphabetically, while an index of genera noticed in the work adds to its value for the scientific student, who may thus readily discover the uses and popular name of a plant with which he may be acquainted generically. Besides plants directly useful to man, numerous ornamental and curious plants are included, which, as articles of traffic and commerce, are with doubtful propriety considered economic in the technical sense. Evidences of hasty compilation are not infrequent. For example, *Kamala*, the product of an East Indian tree of the Euphorbia family, is only described as a dye, while its better-known and important anthelmintic properties are not noticed. Our hickory nuts are included, but nothing is said of hickory wood. (The fact, by the way, seems to have hitherto escaped recognition, that the wonderful development of the American trotting horse is due to the hickory tree; from no other material could the light, strong carriage peculiar to America have been constructed, and without the light carriage, Maud S. or Clingstone could not have been produced.) *Cereus*, a genus of cactus, occupies half a page without mention of the most important of the entire family, the great tree cactus of our Mexican boundary—an omission which travellers who have seen the "Suwarrow" on the Arizona desert will not well understand. The definition of *Mirabel*—a variety of plum—as "a French name for candied or preserved plums," is certainly too general.

But defects of this nature are not, after all, very important, and will be readily overlooked in a work that contains so much information of the sort which it is often most difficult to find.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Browne, I. Humorous Phases of the Law. New edition, revised and enlarged. San Francisco: Sumner, Whitney & Co.

Johnston, A. K. School Atlas of Astronomy. New and enlarged edition. By Robert Grant. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4 50.

Mahan, A. The System of Mental Philosophy. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.

Mallock, W. H. Social Equality: A Short Study in a Missing Science. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

McVicar's Practical Arithmetic, Oral and Written. Taintor Bros., Merrill & Co.

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NEW YORK, January 25, 1882.

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1881, to 31st December, 1881		$4,039,487 10
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1881		1,587,534 47
Total Marine Premiums		$5,627,021 57
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1881, to 31st December, 1881		$4,110,176 72
Losses paid during the same period	$1,775,882 80	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$924,227 02	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$8,965,758 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,729,500 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	491,148 18
Premium Notes and Bills receivable	1,631,294 23
Cash in Bank	347,765 99
Amount	$13,165,466 40

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1877 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of forty per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending 31st December, 1881, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the second of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 28, 1882.

The Week.

THE *Herald*, the *Times*, and the *Journal of Commerce* had leading articles on Saturday of a somewhat alarming character on the subject of the relations of the Associated Press with the Western Union Telegraph Company and its present controller, Mr. Jay Gould. The substance of the matter, as stated, is that Gould and the telegraph company have manifested a desire and purpose to have a voice in the collection as well as the transmission of the news for the press, and to supplement their functions as common carriers with those of news agents. This attitude on the part of Gould and the telegraph company, the *Herald* informs us, has been supported or acquiesced in by three members of the New York Association—viz., the *Tribune*, the *World*, and the *Express*—and, up to a recent period, opposed by four members—viz., the *Herald*, *Times*, *Sun*, and *Journal of Commerce*. The *Journal of Commerce* says also that offers for the purchase of that paper were lately made, which it believes to have been made with a view to obtaining another vote in furtherance of this scheme. Some time after this offer had been made and declined it is stated that the *Sun* exhibited signs of wavering and of going over to the Gould side, but has stopped short of actually doing so. The *Times* publishes sundry extracts from the *Sun* on the subject of Gould and his political projects which lead the former to indulge the hope that Mr. Dana is not under Gould's influence to any alarming extent. The *Journal of Commerce*, on the other hand, appears to take a very serious view of the *Sun's* attitude, and the *Herald* thinks that the time has nearly come for the Government to consider the expediency of taking the telegraph business of the country into its own hands. The attitude of the Western Associated Press is also commented on as not so decidedly opposed to the Gould plan as it might be and ought to be.

Supposing the information given by these papers to be correct, the only comment the case admits of is that any partnership between the newspaper press and the Western Union Telegraph Company (whether controlled by Jay Gould or by any other man), in the business of collecting and preparing the news by which the people are guided in their daily affairs, is not to be thought of. Such a project will be resisted by every journal with the least grain of independence—every one whose opinions are of any value or consequence. We have not the least idea that the *Sun* will yield upon that issue an inch more than the *Herald*, or the *Times*, or the *Journal of Commerce*. Nor have we any apprehension that the Western Associated Press will ever consent to such a partnership. There is, we believe, another issue involved in the controversy—whether the Associated Press shall allow itself to be forced into an exclusive contract with the Western Union Telegraph Company, binding all its members and clients to give all their business, general and special, to the Western Union Telegraph Company, under a threat that if such a contract is not made the latter will take the news business into its own hands. We can understand how the *Sun* may desire to avoid a quarrel of this kind without intending ever to admit the telegraph company into a partnership in the news business. The "exclusive contract" system, however, is manifestly a species of tyranny, and ought to be resisted upon grounds of public as well as private policy.

The results obtained at the Saratoga Convention cannot be considered a fair expression of the wishes of the Republican voters of New York. Setting aside the small tricks and trades so effectively employed after the Convention met, by which the mastery of the State Committee was obtained and the Dutchess County delegation taken from Governor Cornell, the nominal victory achieved by the Administration party was based upon the virtual disfranchisement of four-fifths of the Republican voters of New York city. The rotten boroughs of Manhattan Island nominated Folger and Carpenter. The disgraceful condition of the party machinery in this city has long been the opprobrium of State politics, and to some extent of national politics. Last year the State Convention, controlled by the opponents of the Administration, seemed to be in the mood to order a reënrolment of the electors, to the end that all Republicans within the respective Assembly districts entitled to vote might participate, if they chose to do so, in the selection of delegates to nominating conventions. The resolution looking to this reform was defeated by a small majority. A year has passed by, and the rotten boroughs have ground out their customary grist of misrepresentation. We are perfectly convinced that the large majority of the Republicans of New York city were opposed to the nomination of Mr. Folger, or of any candidate wearing the badge of the Washington Administration. If the votes of those who were not allowed to participate in the primaries cannot be claimed for the candidates on any other ground, they can certainly not be claimed, even under the prevailing rules of party ethics, for a ticket so nominated, on the ground of ordinary party obligation.

The question whether Mr. Folger should, and whether he will, resign his position as Secretary of the Treasury at once, or whether he may be permitted to wait until after the New York State election, seems to agitate the politicians in Washington severely, and presumably those elsewhere who in some way or another expect to be benefited by a change. Some persons, probably belonging to the latter class, seem to be very anxious that the change should take place as soon as possible, and although perhaps not very punctilious as to political propriety under ordinary circumstances, they insist that Mr. Folger cannot with decency remain at the head of the Treasury while he is a candidate for the Governorship of New York. Why not? Because it may be said that he will use the power and patronage of his office to further his canvass in the State? It is just as probable that the Treasury patronage would be used for him by his successor as by himself. We see no reason why Mr. Folger should resign on that account. When a President or a Governor is nominated for reëlection, he is not expected to give up his place during the campaign. The same rule applies to the Secretary of the Treasury. Besides, Mr. Folger, if he wants to remain in official life at all, had better wait and see how the election will turn out.

There is no want of candidates for Mr. Folger's place. In the first line Mr. New, of Indiana, now Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, is mentioned; and it is reported from Washington that he not only has "set his heart upon it," but that he believes he has a "sure thing." The reason offered quite seriously by a Washington paper why, according to the fitness of things, Mr. New should be given the Treasury Department, is a very curious one. It says that the success of the Republicans in Indiana at the last Presidential election was mainly owing to three men: ex-Senator Dorsey, Mr. Dudley, and Mr. New. One of these, it says, had an offer of a place in the Cabinet (ex-Senator Dorsey); one was put at the head of a large and influential office, the Pension Bureau (Mr. Dudley); and now, Dorsey and Dudley having had their chance, it is no more than fit and proper that the third one, Mr. New, should be made Secretary of the Treasury. This is conclusive, and ought to settle it. That Mr. New is a man of a calibre rather small for the Treasury Department might be overlooked under such extraordinary circumstances. But from a variety of symptoms we must conclude that the Stalwarts of this State are blind to the eternal fitness of things, and look upon Mr. New's elevation to the head of the Treasury with great disfavor. They do not want anybody there who might manage the Treasury patronage from a Western point of view. They insist that the Treasury should continue to be in the hands of a New York man. Their voices are, therefore, for Mr. Crowley, of this State, now a member of Congress, to whom, however, some Stalwarts of influence prefer ex-Senator "Tom" Platt. There is evidently a chance for statesmen. No wonder some of them are getting impatient at Mr. Folger's backwardness in resigning.

The shrewdest and most important piece of work done by the Democratic Convention at Syracuse consisted in the nomination of Mayor Cleveland, an able and highly respected lawyer of Buffalo, for the Governorship. Mr. Cleveland is not a man of national reputation, but he has just that kind of standing before the people

which is apt to tell in a campaign like this. A popular uprising against Republican ring rule lifted him into the mayoralty of the city of Buffalo, a Republican city, by a majority of many thousands. He has therefore the advantage of having already once, as a Democrat, been elected to an important place by Republican votes, and all reports agree that he has fully justified the expectations of his constituents by crushing dishonesty and evil practices, Democratic and Republican, right and left, with an iron hand, and taking care of the interests of the city in every direction with excellent judgment. There does not seem to be any impression anywhere that Mr. Cleveland's nomination was brought about by any illegitimate influences, or that he owes it to anybody in particular. His character as a citizen and as a public officer, and his success as a politician in this nomination, seem to be equally unimpeachable. The principal Republican paper in Buffalo has declared in favor of Mr. Cleveland, and a telegraphic despatch reports that thousands of Republican citizens there are offering him their support. In other parts of the State signs of great disaffection among Republicans are constantly appearing. On their side, the Democrats are united again and will act harmoniously for the first time in many years. It is true that the admission of Tammany will in the course of time bear a large crop of trouble and confusion to the Democrats. But at present, at least, they will act together, probably with much vigor and enthusiasm. Will it be surprising if the outcome of all this is a disastrous Republican defeat? If so, the party will have to thank for it that overbearing faction whose selfish, dictatorial, and demoralizing rule has for a long time made many good Republicans think that temporary defeat would be a wholesome lesson. That thought may become an important factor in this year's contest.

The Massachusetts Convention got over the difficulty about the River and Harbor Bill very successfully. There was no mention of it either in Mr. Hoar's speech as Chairman, nor, as we believe out of courtesy to him, was there any in the platform. But condemnation of it was very clearly expressed by the nomination of Mr. Bishop for the Governorship over Mr. Crapo, one of the late members of Congress who voted for the bill, and who, but for this disturbing force, would undoubtedly have obtained it. His failure to get it appears to be generally taken as an indication that Mr. Hoar's own chance of re-election is small, or, in other words, that the disapproval of his vote on the River and Harbor Bill felt by his constituents has not been modified or overcome by his printed defence of it. His own opening speech was strongly protectionist, and, indeed, treated protection in an extreme form as a fundamental Republican doctrine, and in this probably revealed the real source of his error with regard to the River and Harbor Bill. A man who is profoundly convinced of the value of a high tariff must be even unconsciously disposed to lax views as to the manner in which the surplus thus accumulated in the Treasury should be spent. The Convention dealt with this aspect of the case gently but firmly, by saying that "it is clearly the duty of Congress to act speedily to reduce taxation in all its forms, and to lighten the burdens of the people. More revenue than is needed for the public uses the Government should not take. An overflowing treasury offers tempting inducements and a plausible excuse for inordinate expenditure." As the result is held to indicate the triumph of the younger generation of Republicans over those who have had the party in charge since the war, and who, however progressive, are still somewhat dominated by its ideas and influences, there is apparently enough discordant feeling created to give some comfort to the Democrats, but Butler's nomination is a plaster which would probably heal any possible amount of soreness or dissension among Republicans.

The Connecticut Republicans also abstained from touching the River and Harbor Bill, but they heartily endorsed President Arthur, and also said a good word, though not quite so strong a one, for civil-service reform. Both denounce assessments, which is hard on the Congressional Committee, who are circulating a defence of them by a New England Senator as a campaign document. The Connecticut Republicans are more outspoken about prohibition, as they recommend the submission of an amendment to the Constitution prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating drinks; while the Massachusetts men only ask for the "candid consideration of all propositions in aid of temperance and good order"—one of the mildest requests and most difficult to refuse ever put forth by a political organization. Massachusetts, however, asks for the same candid consideration for propositions "touching equal rights of suffrage, independent of sex," a matter which Connecticut overlooks, but atones for the omission by a dig at "the growing influence of the great corporations of the country." We do not believe a demand for "candid consideration" will do in platforms in lieu of a formal expression of opinion, though it sounds like a convenient mode of escape. It is in reality an exhortation to intellectual integrity, which is not the function of a party or its convention. What we want to know of a party is what legislation it means to enact or retain, not what virtues either of heart or head it thinks worthy of commendation.

The spirit of revolt in the Republican ranks seems to be by no means confined to the East. In Oregon, ex-Senator Mitchell was nominated for the United States Senate by a majority of a caucus of the Republican members of the Legislature, whereupon the minority flatly refused to vote for him; and as the majority which nominated him is not strong enough to elect him, and the Democrats will give their votes to a man of their own, Mr. Mitchell will probably fail. The country will certainly lose nothing by his defeat. It should not be difficult for the Republicans of Oregon to find and unite upon a much better man—of course, not ex-Attorney-General Williams, who was one of Mr. Mitchell's competitors for the place. The better class of Republicans will also have learned with great satisfaction of the final downfall of Chauncey I. Filley, the Republican "boss" of Missouri, one of the most reckless and unscrupulous Machine operators and spoilsmongers in the country. He was Chairman of the State Committee, and resolved that this year the Republican party should hold no Convention, but vote for the State candidates of the Greenbackers, and thus amalgamate with them. He induced a majority of the members of the State Committee to support him in this scheme, whereupon the rank and file of the party took the bit in their mouths, revolted against this usurpation of the "boss" and the majority of the State Committee, called a convention by general consent, in which all parts of the State were represented, nominated an excellent ticket, made an uncommonly good platform, and appointed a new State Committee. Thus "Boss" Filley all of a sudden finds himself without a party, and, we trust, even without a considerable fraction of one.

Mr. Stephen B. French, of this city, the Police Commissioner, and intimate friend of President Arthur, and known in politics as "Steve" French, has got himself into what would be to men outside politics an exceedingly unpleasant scrape. He appears to have been for some time much troubled in his mind as to the course Collector Robertson was likely to take in the nominating Convention. Would Robertson, Steve asked himself, support the Administration as a member of the State Committee? Would he support it as "controller" of the Westchester County delegates, whom, according to Steve, he has long held "in the hollow of his hand"? Steve watched Robertson and waited on him a good deal with the view of obtaining some clew to his designs, but apparently without result. At last, having to leave town without having unmasked the Collector, he went to the Convention, and presented himself at the meeting of the State Committee with what purported to be a telegram authorizing him to act as his (Robertson's) proxy, and he did so act. His vote as such proxy did not, it is true, change the majority in the Committee, but it was very influential as a sign of a *débâcle* among the Half-Breeds, which promised the Stalwarts a happy issue to all their undertakings. It now appears that the telegram was a forgery, that no such despatch was ever sent, and that it was not even written on a delivery blank. Steve, in fact, admits that it was a forgery, but one by which he himself was deceived. Who gave it to him he cannot tell, nor can he give any good reason for expecting Mr. Robertson to select him as his proxy. Moreover, he has been making statements about Mr. Robertson which the latter pronounces false, and which Mr. French's own witness has not only failed to sustain, but flatly contradicts. Now, Steve, as we have said, stands very high among "the boys" who manage the affairs of the Republican party in this city. In fact, he stands at the top. He is, we believe, the only one who enjoys unlimited access to the President; and then, too, as a Police Commissioner he is a guardian of public morals, and an official example of probity to the youths in the public

schools and in the College of the City of New York. Consequently his fall is a serious matter, though one would never think so to see the way people laugh when it is mentioned. It is, however, almost worse for what it suggests than for what it reveals. Thoughtful men are asking themselves, If Steve be capable of this sort of thing, what must be the moral condition of Jake, Mike, Barney, Ed, and Johnny, and Bob, who are Steve's trusted subordinates, and drink deep at the same well of practical politics? Is this a fair specimen of the "American system" as practised in this city by these estimable men? If Steve fails in veracity or worse on a pinch, what does Jake or Mike do when he finds himself in a tight place, or in sore need of something he has not got?

Mr. McKeon, the District-Attorney, made an excellent order the other day prohibiting any of the subordinates in his office from quitting their posts to attend either of the Conventions. The gravity of the evil against which it was directed was well illustrated in the trial last week before Recorder Smyth, in the Court of General Sessions, of the boy McCabe, who shot his stepmother. When inquiry was made for the articles found on the prisoner, it was discovered that they had been left at the Coroner's office in charge of a "man," but "the man" was gone to Syracuse. The prisoner's coat had been taken from him at the station-house, but "the man" had also given it to the prisoner's father. It then appeared that both the Coroner and Deputy Coroner had gone to Syracuse, and the court had to adjourn in order that they might be telegraphed to and brought back. It is to be observed, too, that these minor officials, who abandon their posts to go to conventions, are hardly ever either delegates or alternates. They go as "heelers," or henchmen of some boss, and simply tout for him in the hotel corridors, or shout for him in the gallery of the Convention.

Mr. Henry George is having a curious kind of success. His book—'Progress and Poverty'—has attracted a good deal of attention as an eloquent and striking presentation of some of the evils of modern society. His remedy, and the sole one, is the confiscation of the land of the country by the Government, and its conversion into public domain. He is going about now in England and Ireland, where there is much trouble about property in land, with somewhat of the air of a man who has discovered a sure cure of which people are beginning to see the value, and appears to think that it will first be tried in this country. The truth is, we believe, that he has not made a convert of a single owner of land in the civilized world. If he could produce one human being who was willing that his farm should be taken from him by the state without compensation, or who would not regard such a thing as robbery, to be submitted to only because resistance was useless, it would show that he was making some progress, however small. But we do not believe he can produce one such case of genuine conversion. The landholders of every civilized nation would, in fact, resist his scheme to the death, and they are so large a proportion of every civilized nation that their will in such a matter is supreme. Mr. George is probably cheered up by the adhesion of a considerable number of persons who own neither real estate nor any other kind of property, but we warn him that when confiscation day arrives they will make themselves scarce. As to the morality of the plan, it happily does not, as yet, need discussion, and Mr. George will get no one to discuss it with him. Whether a man or woman who has put a life's savings into a farm or lot ought not to forfeit the land and have the rent of it go to pay taxes for another man who put his savings into Government bonds, or into a steamboat, is a question which has not as yet become practical, and cannot become so without a complete revolution in the ideas of the race about social justice. It is a great pity that a man with Mr. George's powers of statement should be taken up with such a chimera.

The "subscribers" to the Irish "Skirmishing Fund" have held another meeting, at which the Committee of Investigation made a report, which substantially recommended that nothing more be done in the matter at present, because an "eminent Nationalist" has promised to "use all his energies and his best influence toward an honorable settlement of the question." The Committee was very glad to accept his offer, being naturally "anxious to have the matter taken from the public gaze." The public, we can assure the Committee, desires nothing better, as its "gaze" is very tired of the matter. But the "eminent Nationalist," if he expects to settle it, must be a man of fortune and leisure, for he has many years of unremunerative toil before him, unless, indeed, he expects to be paid out of subscriptions yet to come in for finding out what has become of those already received. *Harper's Weekly* recently reminded those natives who are amused by the Irish difficulties with their Skirmishing Fund, that Americans too have raised a skirmishing fund, of the disposition of which no account is rendered, and about which it would be well for that "eminent Nationalist," Mr. Jay Hubbell, to give some information to the subscribers. As long as he withholds all information as to what he does with the money, and the subscribers put up with his reticence, the Irish skirmishers seem less idiotic than they really are.

The feature of the week in Wall Street was a demonstration which was made on the money market by a clique of speculators who had arranged their books so as to profit by a decline in the price of stocks. This demonstration to establish high rates for money was made possible by the low reserve of the New York banks, which had fallen last week to $2,271,825 less than 25 per cent. of the deposit liabilities of the banks. The amount of money which the New York banks have sent away this season "to move the crops" is less than usual; it is true that the foreign exchanges have so ruled for several months as to take money from rather than bring it to New York, but the banks have accommodated their credits to this movement step by step, so that this could not justly be ascribed as the reason for the low percentage of bank reserves. The drain of money into the Treasury has been much in excess of the Treasury payments, and in the close working of the other influences affecting the supply of loanable funds the Treasury absorption of cash had been sufficient to give the stock speculators the opportunity which they improved. On Monday they sent the rate for call loans on stocks up to plain 15 per cent. per annum, and endeavored to reëstablish the old custom of quoting money per diem by making a few loans at 1-16 of 1 per cent. per day, which is equal to 22½ per cent. per annum. On Tuesday they ran the rate per annum up to 20 per cent., and again made loans among themselves at 1-16 per cent. per day. At this point the Treasury came in and ordered the prepayment each week, without rebate, of $5,000,000 of any of the called bonds, including the $25,000,000 recently called for December 23, the prepayment to begin on the 27th instant. This broke up the plans of the money-squeezers, and the rate for call loans began to fall, and soon reached plain 6 per cent. per annum, some loans having been made on the afternoon of that day as low as 3@4 per cent. Stocks and securities at the Stock Exchange which had begun to tumble, immediately stopped in their decline and advanced. Mercantile paper which could not be sold became salable, and confidence took the place of distrust and apprehension. Railroad earnings continue large, and general trade, although threatened by the money stringency, also continues large and profitable. It is doubtful whether the experiment of tightening the money market to affect Stock Exchange speculation will be tried again this season, so unprofitable has the first attempt turned out.

The deposition and imprisonment of the Grand Shereef of Mecca by orders from Constantinople, coming so soon after the murder of his predecessor, which was believed to have taken place also by orders from Constantinople, seems to show that the Sultan is still not easy in his mind about the Arab movement for his deposition from the Caliphate, and its restoration to the Arab line from which the Turks took it on the conquest of Egypt in the sixteenth century. That such a movement exists and is formidable, and receives a fresh stimulus from each sign of the decline of the Turkish Empire, there is no doubt, and it is especially annoying to the Sultan from the fact that one of his dreams just now is said to be the strengthening of his spiritual sway, as a compensation for the decline of the temporal. Any suspicion of sympathy with the new school will therefore, probably, make Mecca "unhealthy," as they say in New Mexico, for the Grand Shereef, whoever he may be, as long as the Sultan can reach the city with armed force. It is a misfortune for the reformers that they must, in order to have any standing in the Mussulman world, keep possession of the Prophet's tomb, and that, in order to have a Caliph of their own, they must drive away the Turkish troops, who, owing to the breech-loaders and the new drill, are much more formidable to the Arabs than they used to be in old times.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, Sept. 20, to TUESDAY, Sept. 26, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE New York Republican State Convention met at Saratoga, on Wednesday, and after the usual preliminary proceedings proceeded to ballot for Governor. The three most prominent candidates for the nomination were Charles J. Folger, Alonzo B. Cornell, and James W. Wadsworth. Mr. Folger was the so-called "Administration candidate," the other two being the nominees of the Anti-Administration or "Half-Breed" wing of the party. Mr. Folger was nominated on the second ballot, receiving 257 votes, eight more than was necessary for a choice, and his nomination was then made unanimous. On Thursday the ticket was completed, by the nomination of B. Platt Carpenter for Lieutenant-Governor; Charles Andrews for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals; and A. Barton Hepburn for Congressman-at-large. The platform announces that the party has no new doctrines to present upon the questions of honest money, pure elections, the regulation of traffic in intoxicating liquors, the protection of home industry, and the necessity of restricting the power and influence of corporations; denounces monopolies and the Democratic party; urges the people of the State to "examine with intelligent care the constitutional amendments submitted to them"; discourages the practice of appealing to the Legislature to overrule the action of the local authorities; recommends the submission of the liquor question to the popular vote; points with pride to the financial achievements of the Republican Administration; recommends competitive tests for admission to the civil service, together with a fixed term for incumbents, "removal from office during the term of appointment to be only for cause"; approves the recent law of Congress designed to suppress polygamy; praises Governor Cornell's administration; and approves President Arthur's veto of the River and Harbor Bill

Judge Folger's nomination has been received with rather lukewarm approval by all that portion of the New York Republican press which represents the Anti-Administration wing of the party, and since the results of the Democratic Convention, the general feeling seems to be that the Republicans will have an uphill fight.

The Democratic State Convention met at Syracuse on Thursday, and adopted a platform arraigning the last Republican Congress for its shortcomings and extravagance; recommending a reform in the tariff; favoring the immediate passage of a civil-service reform bill by Congress; condemning the assessment of Government employees for political purposes; denouncing monopolies and demanding the repeal of all laws which tend to make "the rich richer and the poor poorer"; favoring a diffusion of education; demanding a revision of the laws relating to shipping and the carriage of ocean freights; favoring self-government for cities; opposing child-labor in factories; recommending laws regulating primary elections; and favoring the free-canal amendment. On Friday the ticket was nominated, which is as follows: for Governor, Grover Cleveland; for Lieutenant-Governor, David B. Hill; Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, William C. Ruger; Congressman-at-large, Henry W. Slocum.

The Republican State Convention of Missouri, called in opposition to the decision of the State Central Committee, met at Jefferson City on Wednesday and nominated a State ticket by acclamation.

The Nebraska Republican State Convention met on Thursday and nominated J. W. Dawes for Governor. The platform reaffirms the faith of the party in free labor, free speech, and free schools; advocates currency on a specie basis and a protective tariff; demands legislative control of corporations; and maintains that legislation should prevent unjust discrimination on the part of railway companies.

At an adjourned meeting of the Colorado Democratic State Convention on Friday, resolutions were adopted declaring that reform in the civil service is absolutely necessary. The spoils system and the assessment of public servants for political purposes were denounced, and penal legislation demanded to destroy these evils. The resolutions insist that the remnant of the public domain shall be reserved exclusively for actual settlers as homesteads; recommend a tariff for revenue only, and denounce the Tariff Commission.

An immense meeting of Germans convened in Cincinnati on Sunday evening, under a call of the Association of Independent Citizens, who avow that they aim at guarding personal liberty, and the right to remain "free men on Sunday"—meaning to eat and drink what they please; to allow each one to observe Sunday in his own way; and to obtain legal protection for every branch of business, and uniform taxation. The call disavows all intention to form a new party.

The press throughout the country has been agitated during the week on the subject of the relations of the Associated Press with the Western Union Telegraph Company and Jay Gould, its present controller. It is said that Mr. Gould and the telegraph company desire and propose to collect, as well as transmit, the news for the press. The New York *Herald* stated in a leading article that this purpose of Mr. Gould's had been agreed to by three of the newspapers composing the New York Associated Press—namely, the *Tribune*, the *World*, and the *Mail and Express*—and that there was danger of certain other of the newspapers composing the Associated Press being bought over by Mr. Gould, thus giving that gentleman the control of all the news which is distributed to the newspapers. In view of this danger, the New York *Herald* thinks that the time has come for the Government to consider the expediency of taking the telegraph business of the country into its own hands.

There was a Cabinet meeting at Washington on Wednesday, at which were present the President and Secretaries Frelinghuysen, Lincoln, Teller, and Folger. Only routine business was transacted.

President Arthur will be unable to be in Boston on October 3, the day set for the celebration of the Webster centennial. The celebration has therefore been postponed until October 11, at which date the President will be able to be present.

A reception to Engineer Melville took place at Washington on Saturday evening. Assistant-Secretary-of-State John Davis presided, and the orator of the evening was Mr. R. W. Thompson, ex-Secretary of the Navy.

Up to Sunday last the money value of donations to the Garfield Memorial Hospital fund amounted to about $80,000.

General Hazen, Chief of the Signal Bureau at Washington, has received advices that the supply expedition which sailed July 8 from St. John's, Newfoundland, with additional stores for Lieutenant Greely's party, returned on Saturday last to St. John's, having failed in the attempt to reach them on account of the ice. Depots were established, however, to secure their safe retreat should it become necessary a year or two hence.

By an agreement between the United States and Swiss Post-office Departments, executed in Washington on Tuesday, the 19th inst., the limits of weight and dimensions of sample packets exchanged between the two countries are increased to 350 grains in weight, thirty centimetres in length, twenty centimetres in breadth, and ten centimetres in depth. This increase goes into effect on the 1st of October.

The Secretary of the Treasury on Saturday issued a call for registered bonds of the acts of July 14, 1870, and January 20, 1871, which will be paid at Washington on the 23d of December, 1882.

District-Attorney Corkhill and his assistants were occupied on Tuesday in taking testimony as to the alleged attempts to corrupt the Star-route jury. The proceedings were private.

Mr. Henry George's letter to the President has been referred to Secretary Frelinghuysen. It is learned at the State Department that Mr. Lowell in August acted upon this case, as well as that of Mr. Meany, and that the two cases have been the subject of correspondence by telegraph since the time of the arrests.

The first of the four parties which the Commission appointed by the United States Government has selected to observe the forthcoming transit of Venus from the southern hemisphere sailed for Liverpool on Wednesday. The party consists of Prof. Simon Newcomb, Lieut T. R. Casey, Ensign J. H. L. Holcombe, and Prof. Julius Ulke. These gentlemen will observe the transit from the neighborhood of Cape Town. The three other parties will witness the planet's projection on the sun's surface from Santa Cruz, Patagonia; Valparaiso, Chili; and New Zealand, respectively.

General Kimball, a member of the Utah Commission, arrived in New York on Monday night, and reports the fight against Mormonism to have been fairly begun. He said that the effect of the Commission's work was already apparent in various actions of the Mormons, many of whom were beginning to separate their families with a view to avoiding the cohabitation clause of the law, and large numbers of them are taking out naturalization papers.

A great rain-storm began on Friday morning and inflicted some damage in New York, Brooklyn, and the surrounding country, and serious damage in some parts of New Jersey. The extraordinary nature of the storm is shown by the fact that more than nine inches of rain fell in fifty-six hours. Extensive floods resulted on Saturday in the neighborhood of Paterson, Plainfield, Elizabeth, Newark, and other New Jersey towns, demolishing a great number of bridges, flooding houses, carrying away dams, and causing washouts in all directions, and many thousands of dollars will be needed to repair the damages. Several persons lost their lives.

Despatches from various points in the Northwest report more or less heavy frosts in eastern Iowa, northern and central Illinois, and northern Indiana. In only a few places, however, was the frost heavy enough to injure the corn crop.

The steamship *Lepanto*, of the Wilson line from Hull, arrived at New York on Sunday with her bows badly smashed in—the result of her having run into and sunk the steamship *Edam*, of the Netherlands-American Steam Navigation Company, on Thursday last, during a dense fog, in latitude 41° and longitude 66° 34′. All the passengers and crew of the *Edam* were saved, with the exception of the assistant and third engineers.

A bad accident occurred in the tunnel of the Harlem Railroad, at Eighty-sixth Street, New York, on Friday. The Portchester special train being forced to take the Harlem track by some obstruction on the Hudson River track, was run into by a Harlem train. The last car of the Portchester train was wrecked, and two passengers were killed and twenty-one persons hurt more or less seriously.

FOREIGN

On Wednesday reports of outrages and disturbances in the interior of Egypt continued to arrive in Alexandria. All the European houses and factories in Tanta and a few houses in Benha and Birket-el-Saba were reported to have been looted. An examination of the Treasury at Cairo proved that about £200,000 were taken by Arabi Pasha, of which £18,000 have been discovered at the War Office. It is probable that other deficits will be found in the Department of the Interior. A despatch from Alexandria on Friday night announced

that Damietta had surrendered to General Wood. Of the original garrison of 7,000 at Damietta, however, only 800 negroes remained on Friday night, and they fled without surrendering, after having plundered the town. A despatch from Alexandria on Saturday said that it was disgusting to witness the enthusiasm of the natives for the Khedive and to hear the expressions of loyalty of many who have been notoriously the friends of Arabi Pasha.

Arabi Pasha and his accomplices, both military and civil, will be tried by a court-martial, in which British officers of high rank will sit. The Khedive has issued a decree appointing a special commission to inquire into and prosecute the authors of the outrages committed in Alexandria in June last. This commission is to consist of four Europeans and three natives, and is to be under the presidency of Abderrahman Rushdi Bey, a Maltese renegade and Minister of Finance in Arabi Pasha's last Ministry. There will also be another commission, which will sit at Tanta, to investigate the crimes committed in other parts of Egypt during the rebellion. The Khedive's Government is making wholesale arrests of the supporters of the National party; all who signed the proclamation authorizing Arabi Pasha to continue the war are being imprisoned. The Princes Ibrahim, Hamed, and Kamil, who signed the petition prepared by Arabi Pasha last May for the deposition of the Khedive, arrived on Friday to pay their respects to the Khedive, but he refused to receive them. Some of the princesses of the Khedive's family are said to have been seriously compromised by the revolt.

It is generally believed that property valued at £1,000,000 will be confiscated and applied to the indemnification of sufferers by the massacres.

The Khedive has issued a manifesto stating that England has great interests in Egypt, both in regard to finances and traffic through the Suez Canal; that for the protection of those interests she was compelled to interfere, but that she has no intention of annexing the country. The Khedive also announces that he has authorized General Wolseley to represent him in restoring order and punishing the rebels, and all loyal Egyptians are called upon to render him every assistance.

The Khedive has offered Sir Edward Malet, the British Consul-General at Alexandria, the Grand Cross of the Order of the Osmanli, the highest decoration he can bestow.

On Tuesday the Khedive arrived at Cairo. He was received at the depot by the Duke of Connaught and General Wolseley with all possible military honors. The streets through which the Khedive passed were densely crowded, and the natives gave him a friendly welcome.

A grand reception was held at the Ghezireh Palace on Tuesday by the Khedive. Nearly 1,000 representatives of different villages were present. The Khedive refused to receive many implicated pashas and beys who came to profess loyalty, and warned the Ulemas and other high personages that they would be severely punished if they relapsed into disloyalty.

Arabi Pasha is reported to have said that the best thing the English could do for Egypt would be to send the Notables and other leading men out of the country, for if they do not, vengeance will surely be wreaked upon them after the departure of the British. Arabi says he is sorry he fought the British, and asserts that he never thought they would send so large an army to assist the Khedive, else he would not have gone into the war. He denies that he had any communication with the Sultan during the war.

The Khedive, with the approval of England, has offered Baker Pasha the task of reorganizing the Egyptian Army. The latter has accepted the task.

A solemn service of thanksgiving for the British pacification of the country was held in the Roman Catholic Church at Alexandria on Sunday. There was an immense congregation present. Thanks for the success of the British troops were also given in the churches in London and the provinces on Sunday.

It is officially announced in England that General Wolseley and Admiral Seymour will be raised to the peerage, in acknowledgment of their services in Egypt.

A despatch from London says that members of a committee disapproving Mr. Gladstone's Egyptian policy having, with a view of discrediting his opinions on foreign politics, reiterated the charge that he sympathized with the South during the American Civil War, Mr. Gladstone, replying through his secretary to an inquiry on the subject, writes that the statement attributing such sympathy to him is untrue, and contrary to authentic facts long ago made public.

The Grand Shereef of Mecca has been deposed and imprisoned at Taife, where Midhat Pasha was a prisoner. Abdallah Atricun has been appointed Grand Shereef. He is a brother to the Shereef who was murdered some time ago, as was then supposed by orders from the Sultan, because he was favorable to the British.

The Sultan of Turkey has ordered the immediate surrender to Greece of the whole frontier fixed by the International Commission. The representatives of the Powers who, at the invitation of Count Corti, the Italian Ambassador, had assembled at Constantinople on Sunday to discuss the Turco-Greek frontier question, dissolved their meeting on hearing of the settlement of the difficulty.

The Czar and Czarina arrived in Moscow on Wednesday. Immense crowds lined the streets through which they passed from the depot to the Kremlin palace, and they were received with the utmost enthusiasm. On Thursday the Czar held a reception in the Kremlin, at which he expressed thanks for the cordial welcome and the many assurances of loyalty which he had received. The object of the visit is to view the exhibition, which is to close on the 1st of October. A despatch from St. Petersburg to the *North German Gazette* says that the idea of an improvised coronation is out of the question. On Sunday the Czar and Czarina returned to St. Petersburg.

A despatch from St. Petersburg says that a recent speech of General Drenteln, Governor of Kieff, against the Jews, has been taken as a signal by the peasants and minor officials of the provinces for the renewal of hostilities against the Israelites. From all sides accounts are received showing a revival of anti-Semitic animosity.

It is reported that the German Government intends to devote its attention to the execution of a project for the construction of a canal to connect the North Sea with the Baltic.

A despatch from Berlin says that on Saturday the entire press congratulated Prince Bismarck on the twentieth anniversary of his entrance into the Prussian Ministry. The Opposition journals, while condemning Prince Bismarck's home policy, warmly referred to the services he had rendered the nation.

The Emperor William of Germany has written a letter to the King of Saxony, in which he says it affords him sincere satisfaction to again assure himself how entirely the King's views coincide with his own respecting the importance of keeping the troops in a state of readiness for war.

A despatch from Dublin states that owing to the release of a number of prisoners consequent upon the immediate expiration of the Coercion Act, the authorities have sent away certain persons suspected of informing, fearing that they would be murdered if they remained. On Thursday the last of the "suspects" were released from Kilmainham jail.

Patrick Walsh was hanged on Friday for the murder of Martin Lyden.

A Conference of Irish Nationalists will meet in Dublin on the 17th of October. Toward the end of the year there will be a great Irish National Convention to review the position and condition of the country. The delegates to this Convention will be elected by the people. A scheme has been propounded by Mr. Davitt for the formation of a gigantic organization whose leading objects will be the improvement of the social and political condition of the Irish, and the prevention of emigration from Ireland by obtaining profitable employment for laborers and evicted tenants. The scheme is to be discussed at the Convention of Irish Nationalists. Mr. Parnell, however, refuses to sanction the project, on the ground that the formation of such an organization would be impossible under the existing Coercion Act.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* states that Mr. Dillon will retire from Parliament owing to ill health. In a letter announcing this intention, Mr. Dillon says it will not be possible for him to take any part in Irish politics for the next few years.

Mr. E. Dwyer Gray has written a letter to Lord Mayor Dawson regarding the development of Irish manufactures. He advocates the holding of an exhibition in 1883 and the formation of an association to push the sale of Irish manufactures. He also advocates the holding of an Irish exhibition in the United States, and suggests that the United States should modify their tariff in favor of Irish productions.

Mr. Gladstone, replying to a correspondent, reiterates the declaration that he is unable to interfere with the operations of the Mormons in England, as he presumes their converts go with them willingly.

The Earl of Derby, the Right Hon. Hugh Childers, the Right Hon. William E. Forster, Sir Henry James, and other prominent men, have joined the Longfellow Memorial Committee.

A meeting was held in London on Wednesday evening to discuss the proposed introduction of Chinese labor into Great Britain. A motion calling upon the Government to frame measures to prevent the importation of Chinese was adopted.

Delegates representing 20,000 miners, at a conference at Rotherham, England, on Monday, decided to demand an advance of fifteen per cent. in wages.

Overdank has confessed that he drew lots with his confederates to decide who should attempt to take the life of Francis Joseph, and that he intended to throw a bomb into the garden of Miramar Castle. The High Court of Venice has given an opinion in the case of the recent arrests, that the extradition of persons conspiring against the life of the Emperor of Austria on Italian territory is allowable.

The Emperor of Austria has subscribed 100,000 florins for the relief of the sufferers by the recent floods in the Tyrol.

Baron van Lynden, the Dutch Minister of Finance, announced in the States-General on Monday that he estimated there would be a deficit in the budget of 26,000,000 florins.

At a consistory held at Rome on Monday Monsignor Czaki, Papal Nuncio at Paris, and Monsignor A. Bianchi, Nuncio at Madrid, were created Cardinals.

The Mexican Congress has adopted a constitutional amendment declaring that in the event of the death or removal of the President, his successor shall be the Senator who presided over the Senate during the month preceding the vacancy. When the Senate is not in session, the President of the Permanent Committee, who is alternately a Senator or Deputy, is to succeed. In the case of a permanent vacancy, the elections are to be held immediately. Hitherto the Chief Justice has been ex-officio Vice-President.

The exhibition building at Sydney, New South Wales, has been totally destroyed by fire with all its contents. The loss is estimated at £500,000.

MR. FOLGER'S NOMINATION.

THERE is no reason for surprise at the result of the New York Republican Convention. The struggle which preceded the nomination was virtually a struggle between two Machines—the National Administration Machine on one side, naturally strong by its patronage, and in this instance reinforced by Jay Gould and Mr. Conkling's "legal practice," and on the other side the State Administration Machine, reinforced by an honest public sentiment recognizing the good features of Governor Cornell's official conduct during the latter part of his term. Had the decision of the question, who should be the Republican candidate for the Governorship, been in the hands of the masses of the party, the relative strength of the Machines as such would not have turned the scale. But as it was in the hands of the politicians who "fix" and "run" primaries, and who get themselves elected as delegates to conventions, and who are under the influence of the Machines all the time during the different stages of the proceeding, there could scarcely be any doubt as to which Machine would eventually prove the strongest. If there was anything calculated to cause surprise, it was that the number of delegates to the Convention elected with the expectation that they would vote for Cornell or Wadsworth, was so large. But it was not surprising at all that a number of them, sufficient to give the National Administration Machine the ascendancy, should in the Convention have been won over, probably much to the disappointment of those who sent them there. There is much cheap material among New York politicians in both parties, and that material shows itself in its true character when power passes from one faction or one leader to another.

The nomination of such a man as Mr. Folger would, as such nominations go, be considered a strong one were the nominee permitted to stand on his own merits. As a member of the Legislature and as a Judge, Mr. Folger made a very creditable record. As Secretary of the Treasury he has done some very reprehensible things, of which the appointment of the notorious Mike Dady is a specimen, while he has credit for having refused to do things still worse. His management of the business affairs of the Department has been, on the whole, respectable, too. But as the Republican nominee for the Governorship he appears under decidedly unfavorable circumstances. The rapidity with which he skipped from a high judicial position into the Treasury and then tried to skip from the Treasury into the Governor's chair of this State, all within one year, is calculated to produce the impression either of great unsteadiness of purpose on his part, or of readiness to let himself be used as an instrument for the purposes of others. He appears, moreover, as the candidate of the national Administration for a State office, and if anything should be odious to the popular mind, it is an intrusive interference of the Federal power with State affairs. Such interference has, indeed, not been unusual in this State, but there is certainly a growing sentiment against it. It is scarcely necessary to add that the appearance of Jay Gould and the legal practitioner Conkling, with wires and leading-strings in their hands, is not a captivating background to Mr. Folger's candidacy.

What the general effect of his nomination on the masses may be, we can as yet, of course, only guess. The leaders of Mr. Cornell's forces in the Convention naturally gave in their adhesion without hesitation. It is quite probable that the professional politicians on that side are perfectly sincere in their assurances of support. It is, indeed, reported from Saratoga that some of the non-professionals, especially Wadsworth men, complain of the use of corrupt means in making up a majority for Mr. Folger, and threaten to "bolt." How much there may be in this, time will show. But as to the rank and file of the party, we are persuaded that thousands of good Republicans in this State, when they read the news of the nomination, laid down their paper with a languid sort of equanimity, saying, "Well, now let us wait to see what the other side will do."

The stories which are being told of the way in which the nomination was brought about —of the bargaining, intriguing, purchasing, and even forging which attended it or procured it—must place Judge Folger in a position of some embarrassment. In fact, the situation is one in which it is hard for a man of high character to know how to act. He is reported by an interviewer to have expected the nomination, if it came to him at all, as the free and practically unanimous offer of the Convention, brought about after a fair comparison of views and trial of strength. It has come to him, however, as the result of a victory of one faction, achieved, the minority says, by foul means, and leaving behind so much openly avowed discontent as to make his election even now seem very doubtful. Moreover, his small majority undoubtedly came from this city, which has now no real representation in any Republican Convention, and whose delegates have few or no relations of any kind with nine-tenths of the voters for whom they undertake to speak.

This is a state of things which must make the inconveniences of the rôle Judge Folger has taken on himself seem greater to him every day, owing to the very qualities which led the Stalwarts to select him. An ordinary politician would not have answered their purpose. The reputation of their leaders is such that it is impossible for them to succeed in any enterprise dependent on the moral sense of the community without producing a standard-bearer with a better one. To have had a man like Mr. Folger within their reach was, therefore, a piece of luck for them which might not happen to them again in twenty years. But, sagacious as he is and long as his experience of politics has been, he can hardly have realized the way in which the party regards them, and the small amount of moral weight which conventions controlled by them carry, when he put himself into their hands. He can afford to be Governor of New York, but can he afford to seek the Governorship, or seem to seek it, or be made to seek it, for any other purpose than filling it with the highest efficiency and integrity? Will Judge Folger be just the same after half the voters of the State have satisfied themselves that a set of political jobbers have put him in nomination partly to cover up their own shortcomings and partly to restore their Machine? No matter how sure he may feel that he would make a good Governor if elected, it must be of moment to him what people think about the way he became Governor. He cannot, like Mr. Cornell, better his condition before the people by being a good Governor. His character needs no rehabilitation or vindication. His capacity and integrity are both sufficiently established to enable him to forego the additional lustre which any fresh office could give them. But he may encounter an enormous deal of discomfort by having, as an upright man, to quarrel with his backers, and may bring great discredit on his perspicacity by having to plead that he did not know them when he allowed them to run him.

There was a time when a man of high standing could console himself for accepting a nomination from doubtful hands by the reflection that he was going to stand on a platform which contained a genuine political programme. But Judge Folger's friends do not furnish candidates with any such platforms nowadays. Their platforms do not contain their own high resolves, but exhortations to other people to be good. The things they commend to popular consideration are almost always things which they are themselves determined to avoid; so that their candidate can never flatter himself that he is charged with a mission or has the care of a great cause. If Judge Folger really meant what he said, that a nomination to be acceptable to him must be brought about by worthy means, he must, we repeat, read the current news about the proceedings which brought about this one with great perplexity as well as amazement, while making up his mind what answer to make. The public will certainly expect from him in this matter some practical illustration of what he considers fair in politics.

THE DISAPPOINTMENT IN EGYPT.

WHETHER the telegraphic reports from Cairo on Tuesday of the way in which Arabi Pasha is crying craven be correct or not, there is no doubt that the manner of his surrender and the behavior of the population since the surrender are an immense mortification to those who had vouched for him as a fanatical patriot and the head of a genuine national movement. The enthusiastic and brilliant reception of the Khedive at Cairo, the Mohammedan clergy being among the first to receive him at the railroad station, is certainly, considered as the termination of a two months' campaign on behalf of national independence, almost worthy of opéra-bouffe, and must fill Egyptian sympathizers like M. de Lesseps, Mr. Wilfrid S. Blunt, and Mr. Keay with honest shame. Poor M. de Lesseps is doubtless in a worse position than any of them, because he promised more terrible fighting on behalf of the Egyptians than any of the others. They said that Arabi's cause was just, and that he had the Egyptian people at his back, but M. de Lesseps said he would die in the last ditch, and one of his

friends predicted that even the Bedouins, who "can see a hare behind a tuft of grass a kilometre off," "would pluck the English sentinels like flowers," and that 80,000 men at least would be required to restore the Khedive. But Arabi, the people, the Bedouins and all, have betrayed their friends. Probably the most extraordinary failure of all was that of the Bedouins on the night before the attack, when they let the invading army get within 1,000 yards of Arabi's position in the open desert without giving the alarm. For men who could see a hare a mile off this certainly showed a distressing want of vigilance. But every other incident of the campaign was in keeping with this one, and now the abject submission of the chief gives what ought to be a tragedy the air of a rather broad burlesque.

How this impression of Egyptian desperation got abroad, it is not easy to see if we examine Egyptian history only. Egyptian troops have never made a respectable figure in any war, and those who know the fellah best are most emphatic in denying him all military qualities. He has all sorts of good stuff in him, but he has not the stuff of a good soldier. Nor is there much support for the expectations about him to be found in the history of other Mohammedan peoples. It is more than two centuries since any Mohammedan force was considered formidable on account of its morale. The Persians and the Indian Mussulmans have, during that period, displayed nothing but feebleness and want of enterprise in the field. The Turks have, since the siege of Vienna, shown none of their old martial fire, and have constantly receded before Christian aggression. The defence at Plevna was rather an accident than a revival. Their success during the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries was due — as any one may see who reads Busbecq's 'Memoirs'—rather to their superiority to Europeans in discipline, in organization, and in armament, than to religious zeal. In other words, the Europe they terrified was a collection of poor barbarous and disorderly states, in which the military art was hardly cultivated at all. The success of the Turks was therefore enormous, and there can hardly be a better illustration of the terror they inspired in Christendom than the continuance to our own day of the old belief that a fanatical Mussulman is a formidable soldier.

The only Mussulman people who in recent times have done anything in war to sustain this belief are the Afghans, and yet they have never shown real tenacity on a set field. They have shown, however, wonderful tenacity in continuing hostilities. They have the unconquerable hate, and the courage never to submit or yield, which are supposed to be characteristics of all Mohammedan zealots, but they do not show it under arms. They fly nearly as readily as the Egyptians, but they do not throw away their arms, and they are always ready to try again, and they never kiss a conqueror's hand. They make their submission with dignity.

The suddenness and completeness of the Egyptian collapse will probably have some effect on European diplomacy in the East, by diminishing the impression of the intractability and ferocity of Mohammedan populations, which has really had considerable influence thus far in upholding the Turkish Empire. Down to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877 it was quite common for the Turkish Ministers to repress the troublesome importunity of foreign Ministers by hinting at an outbreak of fanaticism which would put Christian lives and property in danger, and which the Government would be unable to control. One argument, too, and a very effective one, used against the introduction of reforms into Asia Minor by extraneous pressure, has been that the population being mainly Mussulman, it would be difficult for any power but the Porte to control them, and that, deplorable as their lot was under Turkish rule, they must be left to their fate as long as their master did not care to improve it. What has occurred in Egypt is therefore not unlikely to make the ambassadors at Constantinople less gingerly in using pressure, and less troubled by the accounts the pashas will give of the effect on the Turkish people of concessions to infidels.

ARABI AND HIS ARMY.

KNOXVILLE, TENN., Sept. 16, 1882.

IT was my fortune—good or ill, it is hard to say—to spend something over two years in Egypt, in the service of the late Khedive, Ismaïl Pasha, as an officer of Engineers in his Army. I lived in Cairo with my family, was daily in intimate association with the native population, and had charge, as Chief of the Third Section, of the General Staff of the Topographical Bureau. I trust that the opportunities offered for observation have made me somewhat familiar with the country and its people.

Since the days of Mehemet Ali, and his great warrior son, Ibrahim Pasha, Egypt has entirely lost her military prestige; she has had no recent victories of any importance. It is true that during the reign of the Khedive Ismaïl Pasha the boundaries of Egyptian dominion were extended, apparently by military conquest, over a part of Nubia, Darfur, Kordofan, and up the Nile almost to the Equatorial Lakes. But these conquests were really not won by fighting successful battles; they were the results of creating dissensions among the native tribes, of purchase and bribery, of superior diplomacy and treachery, of following up the march of trade by detachments of troops, and converting trading stations into forts and military posts. In 1876 the Egyptian troops under Rauf Pasha made a successful attack upon Harrar, a walled town of the Sumalis. With this single exception, all of their recent military efforts have been most disastrous failures. I need only mention the series of terrible catastrophes attending the abortive attempts at conquest in Abyssinia during the years 1875 and 1876. The writer was one of the unfortunates who participated in those inglorious undertakings, and knows whereof he speaks. The first expedition into Abyssinia was under Colonel Arendrup, a Danish officer in the service of the Khedive. He commanded a column of troops of all arms, numbering about 3,500 men. They were apparently excellent troops, were well organized, well drilled, well armed, and well equipped in every way; and yet on the very first encounter with the Abyssinians the entire force engaged was literally wiped out of existence. Only a few desperately wounded, maimed, and mutilated men, who were left as dead by their ruthless foes, were the survivors of that bloody fight. These wretched sufferers, with wonderful vitality, crawled off the field of carnage, hid themselves by day in the caves and jungles, fed on wild fruits and berries, dragged their festering limbs along at night, and reached Massowah, some of them weeks after the battle, and told the horrible tale.

To wipe out this disgrace and avenge this defeat, a large army, which ultimately numbered fully 20,000 men, equally as well appointed in all respects as the other force, was sent into Abyssinia. They reached the Abyssinian plateau without resistance, and about 12,000 of them at one time were engaged with the hordes of King John. Of all that met the King in the open field, but very few returned to the two forts which formed the flanks of their position. I have no intention of giving a description of this battle of Gura, as it is called, but simply of showing the fighting capacity of the Egyptian troops. The position occupied by the Egyptian Army was an excellent one: they were on an open, nearly level plain, themselves posted on the rising ground; they were splendidly equipped with Remington breech-loading rifles; their artillery was composed of French mountain-howitzers, English steel guns, and German Krupps, besides a fine rocket battery; their cavalry was magnificently mounted and perfectly armed; they were commanded by the Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian Army, and his best officers; they had some dozen or more American and European staff officers to encourage them, exhort them, and set them a good example. King John attacked them squarely in front, with his host of naked, barefooted, bare-headed warriors, who had but few fire-arms, no artillery, no organization—nothing military, in fact, but courage. And yet, in one hour and a half, all of 7,000 troops who were outside of the forts, except a bare handful, were killed or captured by the Abyssinians, who rushed upon them with sword and spear and shield, and slaughtered them like sheep in the shambles. The loss of the Abyssinians was about 150 men!

This bare statement of facts makes comment unnecessary. How it all happened it is difficult to tell. Colonel Dye, who was in the battle, wrote a book to explain it, but did not succeed, I think, even to his own satisfaction. Why it so happened is easier to answer, and the answer is this: the Egyptians will not, cannot fight. A disaster equally complete, but on a smaller scale, occurred to a column of Egyptian troops under Munzinger Pasha, nearly contemporaneously with the Arendrup tragedy. This column was marching through the Galla country to coöperate with Arendrup, and, when several days' journey from Tajurrah, was attacked at night by the natives, and absolutely annihilated. The writer saw one of the victims of this catastrophe, who escaped because his wounds were thought to be certainly fatal. He was an officer of Engineers, and will be mentioned again.

The events thus briefly epitomized plainly demonstrate the lack of fighting qualities of the Egyptians. Now, the question naturally arises, Why are they thus utterly worthless as soldiers? That question it is the main object of this article to answer. There are two classes of soldiers in the ranks of the Egyptian Army. The smaller class consists of Nubians, Darfurians, Sudanese, and Berbers from up the Nile. Many, in fact it is said that most of them, are slaves, either taken or bought from the regular slave-hunters and traders of the interior, and liberated by the late Khedive Ismaïl, by being placed in the Army. However recruited, they constituted the only fighting part of the Army in the Abyssinian campaign, and they were vastly inferior to the colored troops of the Union Army during the late Civil War. They have some soldierly quali-

ties: they are strong, hardy, able-bodied men, can stand heat and hard work and long marches well; they are docile, obedient, and seemed to learn the routine duties of military life readily, and perhaps under good officers might make fairly good soldiers. Some of these negro troops went with Prince Hassan to Turkey, and participated in the Russo-Turkish war; but there was no mention made of any brilliant achievements accomplished by them, and it was said they suffered terribly from the coldness of the climate of the mountain regions of Turkey, and were therefore of little service.

The larger part of the Egyptian Army is made up of recruits taken by conscription from the villages and fields of the lower delta. These fellaheen are the most abject of slaves, and have been so for hundreds of years. They are not slaves of a single owner who would be responsible for their welfare, and would profit by their well-being, as was the case with the former slaves of the South. They are the slaves of the soil upon which they live, and of every man who occupies a higher position in life than they, from their own sheik-el-beled to the Khedive. Every effendi, bey, and pasha with whom they come in contact in any way whatever looks upon them as different beings from himself, calls them habitually "ebn-el-kelb," sons of dogs, and kicks, cuffs, and beats them *ad libitum*. In consequence of this bad treatment, and by heredity, they are low, mean, cowardly, and cringing beyond any people on the face of the earth. And the manner in which they are drafted into the Army, and the way they are subsequently treated by their officers, does not in the least improve them. They are dragged from their fields while at work, or snatched from their mud huts, chained together in gangs, and carried to the citadel, and there kept in close imprisonment until they are drilled and uniformed. They are not allowed to settle their own affairs, to make any provision for their families, or even to bid their wives and children farewell, when the time for their conscription comes. When the recruiting sergeants lay hands upon them, it is as if a sudden and terrible death had claimed them; and they are mourned and wept over by friends and relatives as if they were dead.

Once become soldiers, and branded as it were by the uniform, escape from the ranks, until term of service expires, is impossible. Desertion is generally punished by death, even in time of peace. They are treated by their officers no better than they were by their taskmasters in the fields. The courbash is the instrument of punishment for every trivial offence, in spite of the fact that flogging is prohibited by law. Not only is the common soldier whipped by his company officers, from sergeant to captain, but even the subaltern officers are subjected to the same indignity by their superiors. The writer once saw a lieutenant held down by two men of his own company, while his colonel beat him unmercifully with a walking-cane. When the beating was finished by the bey's becoming exhausted, the lieutenant arose, took off his sword and handed it to his superior, and said: "You have disgraced me in the presence of my own men; I am no longer worthy to be an officer—put me in the ranks." For this—the only manly act I ever witnessed among these people—the lieutenant was charged with insubordination and mutinous conduct, was tried by court-martial, was sentenced to be shot, and I saw the sentence put into execution.

This was during the Abyssinian campaign; and on another occasion I witnessed the novel sight of a colonel giving his own major a good thrashing with a walking-cane, and the major took it like a lamb, without a murmur or even a grunt of disapprobation. The lieutenant of Engineers mentioned above as having escaped from the Munzinger massacre, had receipted to the Government for some engineer stores and a small sum of money for engineering purposes. Although he came back to Cairo desperately wounded, and brought back a few of his engineer troops, yet he was tried for the loss of the property and money, and his pay was stopped until the loss was made good. This is not hearsay. This lieutenant was in my own corps of Topographical Engineers. I was his chief, and had to approve his pay-account, and I know all the circumstances just detailed to be facts.

No wonder, then, that such a people—so treated when in civil life that every spark of manhood is crushed out of them, and so abused as soldiers that they have not even the courage of a crushed worm, which strives to sting the heel of its destroyer—no wonder such a people will not fight. And the inglorious termination of Arabi Pasha's wretched attempt at revolution is but the legitimate result of his and his deluded followers' antecedents. No one who knew him and his people had any doubt how the affair would end from its very incipiency. I made Arabi Bey's acquaintance in Abyssinia. He was then a lieutenant-colonel. After the Egyptian Army was defeated by King John, Arabi Bey was made an envoy, and sent to the King with presents and bribes, and propositions for peace. He was so far successful in his mission that King John gave the Egyptian Army an opportunity to retreat from his country without molestation. For this brilliant achievement Arabi Bey was promoted to the rank of colonel, made a bey of the first class, and decorated with the order of the Medjidieh. This cumulation of honors turned his head. He was probably, at that time, the only native Arab who held so high a rank—the beys and pashas being universally Turks or Circassians. He imagined himself a great man, and thought he was chosen of fate as the deliverer of his people.

A few words as to the conduct of the campaign on both sides. Arabi Pasha has done better than I ever thought he would. He held his troops together quite well, and manœuvred them well, for a man whose natural ability is not great, whose education is meagre, and whose military experience has been small. It is my opinion that Arabi Pasha has received instructions from a source little suspected by most people. That he should have made his first serious stand at Tel-el-Kebir, with his back as it were resting on Zagazig, shows that some one wiser than himself put the idea into his head that that position was the key to the Nile delta. He must have learned that from General Stone—not since the General has cast his fortunes with the Khedive, of course, but before that time, and before Arabi Pasha put himself in the attitude of open rebellion. It was a favorite idea of General Stone's that Tel-el-Kebir and Zagazig would one day be of great moment in Egyptian affairs. I have frequently heard him speak of their strategic importance; and when I tendered my resignation in 1875, the General told me he regretted my leaving before I had helped him fortify *these two places*.

Sir Garnet Wolseley has conducted the attack upon the Egyptians in a manner altogether admirable. In view of all the difficulties he has had to encounter, his progress has been remarkably rapid. His taking Ismaïlia for his base of operations put him on the shortest line of march to Cairo. His gradually forcing the enemy back until he could get all of his forces together at their strongest point may have looked to some unwise and unmilitary, but it was exactly the right thing to do with the foe he had. In this way he was enabled to deal one deadly blow and end the war at once. This he knew he would be able to do. Finally, the manner of engaging the Egyptians showed his perfect knowledge of their calibre, and his consummate skill. He went at them with a rush, as the Abyssinians did, and that was the end of the whole matter.

S. H. L.

THE RELIGIOUS CONDITION OF ENGLAND—THE SALVATION ARMY.

LONDON, September 7, 1882.

THE doings of a body which calls itself the Salvation Army have, during the last few months, excited an amount of attention from the educated classes in England which is chiefly remarkable as showing how little those educated classes seem to have previously known, or cared about, the religious phenomena which manifest themselves among the humbler part of the population. I will not attempt to write the history of the movement, which for the matter of that has lately been set forth in one of our best magazines, the *Contemporary Review*, by its founder and dictator, General Booth; but the occasion is a suitable one for saying something about the state of religious belief and practice among the masses in England, and considering how far such organizations as this are calculated to amend it.

Amendment it certainly needs. Whether the poorest class, the day laborers in town and country, were in the habit of attending church and shaping their conduct with some reference to what they heard there, even in Roman Catholic times, may be doubted; it is at any rate not so certain as Roman Catholic writers are apt to assume in talking of "ages of faith." But since the Reformation there seems to have been always a section of the poor who lay outside religious agencies, and with the growth of great towns this section has naturally grown vastly larger. At present, of the artisan and laboring class in the towns—the class which lives by weekly or daily wages for manual labor—certainly less than a half, and perhaps only a fourth, can be said to belong to any church or denomination: that is to say, to be in the habit of regularly attending any place of worship. The more intelligent and active-minded artisans are chiefly Dissenters, and for the most part Methodists—we have, like you, several different Methodist bodies—or Baptists. The Irish are, of course, Roman Catholics, and a certain number—small but capable of being increased whenever an energetic clergyman appears on the scene—still adhere to the Established Church. In the purely agricultural parts of England the proportion of churchgoers is larger, and the strength of the Anglican establishment greater; in Scotland, too, religion has, even in the towns, a stronger hold on the mass of the people than in the manufacturing or mining districts of England. To return, however, to these last-mentioned districts, their condition is a very disheartening one. To what extent atheism, or secularism, as it is now usually called, prevails among them, cannot easily be determined, though the small support which Mr. Bradlaugh and other lecturers of his type receive seems to show that the secularist organizations do not count many members. But there is a vast section of the working class which, whether or not it has any theological or anti theological opinions, lives practically uninfluenced by religion, and comes in contact with the ministers of religion only on the occasion of baptisms, weddings, and funerals. Add to this that there is also among our poorer classes, as well in country as in town, a vast deal of wretchedness, chiefly caused by intemperance, and a good deal of violent crime directly arising from intoxication.

The various churches, and especially the Church of England, have, within the last thirty or forty years, become much more uneasy and ashamed in the face of this state of things, which they feel that they have failed to grapple with. Constant efforts are being made by religious and philanthropic agencies, by town missionaries, Scripture readers, parochial Bible women, temperance societies, bands of hope, ragged schools, and innumerable other similar means, to get hold of the intemperate or criminal class; but the results, although in some directions encouraging, remain small when compared with the magnitude of the evil. In spite of the vigor of religious life among the upper and middle classes in England, the tendency has of late years been to rely rather on what may be called social and philanthropic than on purely religious modes of action, apparently because people felt (though they did not like openly to acknowledge) that neither the decorous and dignified composure of the Anglican service, nor the dogmatic Calvinism which still, although its sterner aspects have largely vanished, characterizes the ordinary Dissenting pulpit, was well suited for the ignorant and indifferent mass, which is substantially heathen, caring for this world only and the pleasures it affords. It is indeed true that the extremer High Churchmen, those whom it is the fashion to call Ritualists, maintain that the elaborate ceremonies which they have engrafted on, or restored to, the public worship of the Church of England, do succeed in attracting and moving the humblest and least instructed classes, which can be most easily touched through their eyes. But although some of these Ritualistic clergymen have done admirable work among the poor and outcasts of the great towns, it has not yet been shown that they can create large permanent congregations from these elements or bring them into their ecclesiastical fold.

Things being such, it is natural that the rise of a movement which undertakes to reclaim the heathen part of the population should be watched with interest, and even received with sympathy. To be sure, there is nothing novel in such movements. Several of the humbler Dissenting bodies have always used violent preaching, the passionate singing of lively tunes, and other modes of exciting an audience, and under such modes there have often been the physical manifestations of overwrought feelings—women falling into convulsions, men crying out, people believing that they had suddenly freed themselves from the devil and emerged into light and peace. Street preaching, too, is not new among us, but has been pretty common for the last twenty years or so, at least since the days of the Irish revival in 1858. However, ordinary English society has not realized this, and is therefore more surprised than it need have been by the appearance of the Salvation Army, in which there is little or nothing new, beyond the more elaborate organization, with its military titles, and the subjection of all its branches to the dictatorship of one energetic man. The Army first came into notice by the attacks made on its processions—marching in processions with banners flying and the singing of hymns is a main feature in its programme. Whoever joins it must become a total abstainer: its presence is therefore unwelcome to the liquor-sellers, and they are suspected of having in many places organized opposition to it. Whether owing to their action, or to the natural disposition of the British rough to molest any one who looks peculiar, or does anything unusual in a public place, these processions were frequently attacked, the processionists hustled, stones thrown at them, the column sometimes broken and chased off the streets by gangs of vagabonds, while the "soldiers" themselves, faithful to the non-resistance principles which they profess, did not defend themselves, but only sang the louder. When these disorders were brought to the notice of the local magistrates, they, whether from sympathy with the publicans (the brewing interest is often strong among the unpaid magistracy), or, as it is more charitable and more reasonable to suppose, in the idea that the blame of disturbances ought to be laid on those who give occasion for them by parading in an unusual fashion, mostly punished the Salvationists, and tried to stop the processions altogether. The Army, however, found useful allies in some active temperance members of the House of Commons, who, regarding it as a powerful agency on behalf of teetotalism, plied the Home Secretary with questions and remonstrances, and forced him, rather against his will, to admit that the magistrates had been wrong in their view of the law; that Englishmen have a perfect right at common law to parade the streets in any decent garb they please to assume, and are entitled to be protected against assaults by bystanders. Thus the magistrates were pulled up, and the tables have been turned completely in favor of the Salvationists, whose good behavior under great provocation has gained public favor for them. They are rapidly becoming a large and powerful organization, with a "corps" in nearly every considerable town, and are erecting "barracks" for their meetings with the proceeds of the subscriptions they receive, not only from the soldiers, who are of course mostly poor people, but from well-wishers in the richer classes. Their special delight is to purchase some large tavern or music hall, or other questionable place of public amusement, and turn it into a hall for their meetings, since they thus not only establish an agency for good, but extinguish one for bad. And in this way they have recently acquired some valuable properties in London.

It must be well understood that this movement has nothing new in the way of theology to teach. Its idea and purpose simply is to bring religious influences to bear on the English heathen, the people who, living in the midst of churches and chapels, enter neither set of places; and more particularly on those among these heathen who get drunk, beat their wives, and are generally in conflict with the law. This is doubtless one reason why the clergy of all denominations are either friendly or neutral. "General" Booth does not aim at laying hold of people who now attend either the Church of England or any Nonconformist place of worship; and although, of course, a certain number of his followers come from the Dissenting chapels, still the attendance at those chapels is not diminished: one does not cease to be a Methodist or a Baptist by being also a Salvationist. All intention of founding a sect to rival the existing sects is strenuously disclaimed: the object of the Army is to do by its military and aggressive organization what the denominations from the Anglican establishment downward have failed to do; and the converts it most values are those who have hitherto lived in flagrant and outrageous sin.

When I went to one of their meetings in the town of Scarborough a few weeks ago, the chief attraction was an old woman named Jane Johnson, said to be over eighty years of age, and who was announced to have been in prison two hundred and forty-three times (if I recollect aright) for being drunk and disorderly and assaulting the police. The poor old thing, whose age seemed to refute the doctrine that intemperance shortens life, gave a sort of address, which, so far as one could follow it—for she had lost her teeth and spoke an exceedingly strong North-country dialect—was a narrative of various adventures that had befallen her in "getting tight," as she expressed it, and of consequent conflicts with the officers of the law, all of which excited great merriment among the audience. There was also a lady, described on the wall posters as "the Yorkshire Nightingale," who sang hymns in a strong and sweet voice, the Army joining in as chorus; and a good many short extempore prayers were offered, and addresses delivered by various persons, while ejaculations of "Bless the Lord!" and "Hallelujah!" resounded from all quarters of the hall. In fact, it was much like one of your camp-meetings. The most striking thing was the absence of anything that could be called theology or dogma. Although the doctrines of the Army are just those which are to be heard in our Methodist and Baptist pulpits, and which were preached by Mr. Moody when he came here on his revivalist mission, there was far less attempt to set them forth connectedly, much less to prove them out of the Bible, than Mr. Moody made. Considered as a contribution to religious life and thought, the Salvation Army has no importance, and it is one of the most curious symptoms of our condition that when a movement of this kind arises, it should have absolutely nothing new to say. As to its practical value, people's opinions of course differ as they are more or less shocked by its offences against good taste, such as the motto "Blood and Fire," which it has adopted. Some apprehend mischief from the violent physical excitement into which it throws the newly-converted, or hold that by producing antinomianism it may even increase vice. Others think that the reclamation of a certain number of drunkards and criminals, even for a time, is clear gain which may outweigh contingent evils. Meantime the Archbishop of Canterbury subscribes £5 to help it to turn a low theatre into "barracks"; and General Booth, its commander-in-chief, originally a Methodist minister, is one of the most conspicuous figures of our day. Y.

THE COMING PRUSSIAN ELECTIONS.

BERLIN, September 1, 1882.

THE elections for the next Prussian Landtag will take place in the course of October, probably toward the middle of that month. As they are not held under the rule of universal suffrage, but under an indirect system which prescribes three classes of electors, each of which has the same representation, although only a few taxpayers may constitute the first or second class, the agitation of the parties thus far is rather secret and the participation of the people rather small. The candidates of the different parties have mostly been nominated, but their names will not be published before the commencement of the campaign, in September, which measure will shield them a few weeks longer against the calumniations and slanders of the opposite party. Do not imagine that our political elections are carried on with that candor and fairness which becomes an educated people; on the contrary, in this respect we have but too soon imitated the manners and customs of the oldest political constituencies. The tone of a Berlin election, for instance, will not stand much behind a primary of a New York ward, with the sole exception of revolver-shooting, to which the German is not yet accustomed. And what is worse here than with you, if I am permitted to finish the comparison of Berlin with New York, is that here it is not only the small fry, the political rabble, which attends to the mean business of electioneering; but clergymen, like the notorious court-preacher Stöcker, officials, so-called young noblemen and officeholders in high positions,

who wish to draw attention to their patriotic merits, and to be rewarded accordingly, strike the keynote in the Conservative camp. For the last Reichstag election the Conservatives, although they ought to have known beforehand that they could not conquer a single seat in this city, gave free theatrical representations, concerts, public amusements, and free lager to the voters, in order to win them to their side. In the rural districts the parties resort to other means. Thus, in the immediate neighborhood of Berlin the adversaries of a Liberal candidate who was very popular with the farmers as well as in the small towns, and who had been sent to the Reichstag in three consecutive elections, spread and even published the rumor that if the said gentleman were elected for a fourth time, his constituency would have to pay him a life-long pension of 4,500 marks a year (about $1,100). Now, the members of the Reichstag receive no salary, which fact, if there were no other consideration, would prove that a member of that body who serves gratuitously is not entitled to any emolument; but naming the exact amount of the pension, and the positive assurance that it would not have to be paid except after a fourth election, made so great an impression on the minds of the farmers and small-town tradespeople that they defeated their own old candidate and helped to elect a Conservative. The Liberals, on the opposite side, having less means at their command, must raise every cent among themselves, and number less influential persons in their ranks, but they work with greater energy and with more method. Their country press is better organized, and gives the people plain truths, which every voter understands, while the Conservatives' pamphlets, except those which indulge in abuse and personal attacks, are written in a professorial tone, unintelligible to the masses. The Liberals, too, agitate better in the rural districts, and attract greater crowds to their meetings. In consideration of the fact that a successful Deputy has not a single tide-waitership to bestow on his most trusted and energetic friend, and that the Liberal rank and file, who for their positions are dependent on the Government, or even on the Landrath or gendarme, can every day be punished or ill-treated by their superiors, too much praise cannot be bestowed on the great mass of the electors, who risk more than they can gain, very often suffer heavily, but nevertheless stick to the Liberal platform.

To return, however, to the impending elections for the Landtag, there is every reason to anticipate a Liberal victory. While on former occasions the Liberals of all shades marched alone and worked for themselves, thus splitting their votes and weakening their influence, they are this time appreciating the old wisdom of acting harmoniously together. It is the merit of an able parliamentarian, Professor Haenel, of Kiel, to have brought this homely truth to the minds of the leaders and of the masses. "Let us stand by each other, and, without breaking up existing party ties, offer a united front to the Conservatives. Such is the appeal which resounds from all parts of the country. Let the differences which separate the several organizations among the Liberals remain untouched, but let us not lose sight of the main point—*i. e.*, the common fight against the Conservatives, and the creation of a Liberal majority. Do away with the patriotism, or, rather, the particularism, of cliques and factions, ignore or suppress the jealousies of the real or imaginary party leaders, but, in the common interest, help to build up a Liberal party which, if every one does his duty, will and must rule the councils of the nation." This parole will animate the exertions of the Liberals. In the elections for the last House of Deputies of the Landtag, the Party of Progress had lost forty-two per cent., and the National Liberals about the same number. Among 432 members there was a Liberal minority of 145. Now, if the Liberals wish to regain their influential position, they must reconquer some seventy or eighty seats. As under less auspicious circumstances they in the last elections for the Reichstag won some forty seats, there is little doubt that they will succeed if they fully do their duty. If now all side issues be left alone, an honest understanding of all Liberal organizations can easily be realized and their victory secured, the more as they all agree in their opinions on the three leading questions which will determine the character of the next Landtag. These three questions comprise the relation of the State to the Church, the regulation of internal taxes, and administrative reform.

I explained in my last letter the difficulties which the Government has created for itself by its yielding to the Pope. The overbearing tone of the Clerical combatants shows that they even expect more than Prussia has surrendered. The claims of the Church always increase when it is sure to deal with a weak adversary, but they grow very elastic when it must settle terms with a strong and independent enemy. While the Pope, for instance, at present courts and flatters Republican France, which threatens the existence of the Catholic clergy in its foundations, he is cool and arrogant toward Prussia, which, judging from the tone of the Conservatives, he believes unconditionally dependent upon his help.

I do not believe that the unnatural alliance of Centre and Conservatives will last, and I doubt if they will be able to reach any positive results. The Conservatives, certainly, are ready to sacrifice the independence of the school upon the Church, and even the sovereignty of the State, to Clerical insolence. On the other hand, the Liberals of all shades, willing as they may be to conclude peace, unanimously insist on three absolute conditions on which it must be based—viz.: the control of public schools by the Government; the maintenance of the law of civil marriages; and the sovereignty of the State, which, of course, has to prescribe the boundary line between itself and the Church. The Conservatives, even with Bismarck at their head, will never succeed in making our Protestant people accept a total submission to the Pope and his tools. The Liberals, therefore, represent the real feelings of the country, and have a good chance of being elected on such a platform.

The second question, on which all the Liberals agree, and on which a union will easily be effected, is the policy of taxes and internal revenue. While the Government wants the Reichstag to raise an indefinite number of millions from indirect taxes, in order to use them for a tax reform in Prussia and in the smaller States, the Liberals have treated and still treat this demand with the utmost distrust, which has been justified by the experience of late years. The Reichstag granted 145,000,000 marks by increasing duties and passing a stamp act. Of this amount, which was distributed among the several States of the Empire, Prussia obtained 67,000,000, and of these 67,000,000 she has, in two successive years, abated fourteen and six (or together twenty) millions of marks in taxes. These, however, she was forced to raise by a loan, as the new income had been spent for other purposes. In order to conceal the failure of its pet measure, the Government demanded 115,000,000 for the last year but one, and 188,000,000 more for the next coming year; but the one will be refused just as the other has been rejected. Thus far the poorer classes have been saddled with new taxes, while the richer ones have been eased; now it is the purpose of the Government still to increase to an unlimited extent the indirect taxes and still more to reduce the direct ones. The Liberals, like one man, have withstood this measure as well as this other, that the individual States be supported (*alimentirt*) by the Empire, and the towns and communities by the several States—a system which kills personal responsibility and freedom and creates extravagance.

There remains the question of administrative reform. In 1872 a beginning was made with the limited introduction of self-government and other lesser reforms into the counties of the eastern provinces, but it soon came to an end. Instead of starting with the towns and villages, the second step was taken before the first. The consequence is that the partial reform, unsupported by other institutions, hangs in the air; and now that the western provinces ought to be benefited by the same democratic reform, it is found impossible to effect it. It is true, considerable progress has been made in destroying the greatest drawbacks of the feudal composition of county and provincial representation; the participation of all classes of the people in the administration has been achieved, and even legal protection and the enforcement of the law for or against administrative measures have been laid down as a basis for public life. The progress is enormous, if you bear in mind that our eastern provinces were first conquered by the nobility and afterward settled by the people. Whatever political division is found there was created by and in the interest of the gentry. In the newly acquired and western provinces, however, it is different. There, some Roman Catholic districts perhaps excepted, a highly civilized population forms the marrow of society, while the nobility is of not so great importance, so that the people will consequently master the reforms to be introduced much more easily than the farmers and small-townspeople in the East. You have the difference in a nutshell by comparing in this respect the eastern provinces with your former slave States, and the other old provinces with your New England States. The Government appreciates the above-mentioned fact, and for this reason it tries to do away with or cripple the entire progress, instead of extending it over the whole country. With bureaucratical schemes which defy all historical development it tries to introduce a bogus reform, which, in fact, will not do away with the jurisdiction of the law over administration.

These are the most important differences which separate the Liberals from the political tendencies of the Government. The Liberals will insist on and fight for the sovereignty of the State over the Church, the justice and economy of the taxes, as well as the introduction of self-government in town, city, county, province, and State, and they will be supported herein by the people in the next coming elections. A hired press, fed by the so-called "Reptile Fund" (interest of the money derived from the confiscated property of the late King George of Hanover), will not be strong enough to counteract the popular opposition. We are approaching better times. † † †

Correspondence.

DORSEY AND THE PROTECTIONISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your prejudice against Western men has, I think, caused you to do Mr. Dorsey an injustice. The manner in which you have often referred to him leads one to suppose that you consider him but little better than a thief, when

he has simply followed the example of men whom you delight to honor. In my business of farming I use barbed fence wire to fence my field, and wire to bale my hay; I have to pay twice as much for these articles as they are worth, because Mr. Hoar, of Massachusetts, has entered into a conspiracy with other officers of the Government to enable some of his constituents to get rich at my expense, by compelling me to pay more for an article than it is worth. This is just what you charge Mr. Dorsey with doing. When three men stop me on the highway and vote that I must give them my money, it is called robbery. When the people vote at an election that I must pay the Massachusetts manufacturer twice what his goods are worth, it is merely protection, yet the result is the same: I do not get a fair return for my money. I confess that I feel more respect for the man who steals openly than for one who gets unjust laws passed to protect him while his hands are in my pocket.

Were it not for your prejudice against Western methods, you would, I think, have taken the ground that Dorsey's "infant industry" was entitled to protection. SUBSCRIBER.

DENVER, COL., Sept. 10, 1882.

THE TRAFFIC IN VOTES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Although your readers must be familiar with the general evils of modern political machinery, they may be as startled as I have been to hear of the concrete results of its working as shown in this part of the country. Of the demoralizing influence of the Portsmouth Navy-yard it is hardly necessary to speak. At this moment an election is approaching, and literally hundreds of "doubtful" voters are lounging away their days there, on higher wages than they could get elsewhere. Carpenters, for example, are said to receive $3 a day, when their regular wages are $2, and to pass a good deal of their time "skulking around corners," to use the language of an intelligent mechanic with whom I have just been talking. What is more, the recent visit of the President and of the Secretary of the Navy is thought by the common people to have some connection with this state of things—a pleasing instance of the popular estimate of national dignitaries.

Of all this, however, your readers must have heard enough. Certainly, I have heard of it for some years. But until very lately I was unaware that the country people hereabouts, and the lower classes in Portsmouth, habitually consider the actual sale of votes as a matter-of-course feature of an election. Of actual instances this is hardly the place to speak. A thousand actual instances could not show the extent of the evil so clearly as the common talk of the people, who speak of open bribery in much the same way that they speak of tippling. It is not a good thing, of course; but *que voulez-vous?* It exists, and, provided a man does not do too much of it, it is not remembered against him. In short, the people have grown so used to it that the respectable mechanic of whom I spoke before — who is reputed, and seems to be, an honest man—remarked, with a sage grin: "This election's coming hard on the Democrats. They can't assess for their votes, and I don't see where they'll find the money to get 'em." B. W.

NEWCASTLE, N. H., Sept. 16, 1882.

DUTY ON FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to an article in your issue of August 31, in which are set forth the arguments used by Mr. Houghton in defence of a high duty on foreign publications, and especially on those the most elevated and influential in their character. Now, without discussing the merits or demerits of Mr. Houghton's reasoning on this question, I am constrained to point out an inconsistency between his precept and his practice. I believe he is the senior partner in the house of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who have been engaged in importing English editions of leading periodicals, invoiced at about one-half the prices charged by the English publishers to English dealers, and at a proportionately diminished duty, such methods of importation being made all the more easy by the shipment of the publications in printed reams of paper unfolded and unbound. And now, under a late arrangement with the English publishers, the entire duty is avoided by forwarding the periodicals through the post-office instead of the custom-house. If, as Mr. Houghton contends, American literature and American authors would be injured by the admission of foreign publications at low rates of duty, how can he be justified in pursuing a course intended to bring about this result, and in commending to American readers—as he is, in his advertisements, continually doing—this same class of literature for its excellence and its cheapness? L.

TARIFF REFORM AND TEMPERANCE IN OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The short editorial comment by the *Nation*, in the issue of September 14, in regard to the Congressional campaign in this district, was read with interest by some Republicans, at least, who are sick of the "iniquities of the existing tariff" and really desire a revenue reform. Of these there are, perhaps, not many; but the uncertainty as to their numbers causes some disquietude to the Republican managers. Party lines on national questions seem hopelessly confused, and it would be difficult to show any very good reason, from a national standpoint, why Republicans in sympathy with the tariff-reform movement should not vote for Mr. Frank Hurd. As the *Nation* remarks, "It cannot be said that the rights of any human being, white or colored, will be put in jeopardy by his election." Doubtless some apprehensions of unwise financial legislation exist, but they are probably more than counterbalanced by the necessity of taking some steps toward the attainment of a normal condition of foreign trade and domestic production.

But, unfortunately, the campaign is so complicated by the importance of the liquor question, which is a leading issue in the State, that the tariff-reform Republican who would be independent is placed in a somewhat embarrassing position. The attitude of the Republican party on this question is strong and decided; that of the Democrats, shuffling and evasive. The recent "Pond Law," heavily taxing the liquor-sellers, shattered on the constitutional provision forbidding any license of the traffic. The Republicans have come out squarely in favor of putting before the people a constitutional amendment striking out this clause, so as to leave the whole matter open to legislation, in which case the Pond law, or something similar, would not be obnoxious to the same objections, and would undoubtedly be carried by a Republican Legislature.

The position of the Democratic party on this point is defined (?) in their platform as follows: "*Resolved*, That the Democratic party . . . is opposed to legislation merely sumptuary." This means, if it has any meaning, that the Democrats are in favor of letting things remain as they are. But to this the great mass of the adherents of "law and order" are strongly opposed.

It is an open secret that the liquor men have furnished funds to the Democratic Campaign Committee, of which Mr. Hurd presumably gets his share. And although the liquor question is local, the feeling on it runs high, and will exert a marked influence on the Congressional vote. Mr. Hurd will probably, on this account, lose more votes among independent and intelligent citizens than he will gain on the score of free trade; besides which, there are some Democrats who are by no means in accord with him on the latter subject. On the other hand, he will undoubtedly gain many German votes. The result of the campaign will of course hinge on the comparative strength of these elements, which is at present purely a matter of conjecture.

Mr. Hurd, while doubtless sincere in his advocacy of free trade, is a thorough Democratic politician; and it is not surprising that Republicans are a little afraid of him, even though they agree in the main with his views on the tariff. Perhaps the best solution of the difficulty would be, remembering that in politics not the best conceivable, but the best attainable, should be our immediate aim, to support Mr. Hurd for Congress, inasmuch as the good he may effect seems likely to overbalance any evil which might possibly result from his election. S.

TOLEDO, O., Sept. 19, 1882.

POLITICAL ECONOMY IN GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The notice, in a recent number of the *Nation*, of Professor Fredericq's report on instruction in history in the German universities, suggests the thought that perhaps a short account of the instruction in political economy in these schools would be of interest to your readers. I describe the work as it is laid out in the University of Halle, both because I am better acquainted with that institution and because, in the opinion of competent critics, the work there is, on the whole, better organized than at any other similar school in Germany.

Instruction in political economy is given, in the first place, by lectures. There are three professors in this department. In the course of a year they offer several series of lectures on the following subjects: History of Political Economy, Theoretical Political Economy, Practical Political Economy (the discussion of the economic problems of modern society), Science of Finance, Statistics, Police Supervision, and Administration. Lectures upon other subjects are occasionally given, especially upon economic topics of current interest.

These lectures are supplemented (1) by the politico-economic *Seminar*, and (2) by the politico-economic debating society. The former is organized as a department of the University; its object is to provide opportunities for those who wish to make a specialty of economics. It is a society of students under the direction of a professor. It meets for two or three hours, regularly, once a week, sometimes oftener. The exercises consist of essays by the students on subjects suggested by the director, followed by discussion and criticism of them. At the beginning of the term the professor prepares a list of subjects, theoretical, practical, and historical, from which each of the members of the *Seminar* chooses two or more which he agrees to present during the term. A programme is made out, and one or two of these essays assigned to each session. The subjects being known beforehand, each member of the society is expected to prepare himself for the discussion which follows the reading. Such subjects as the following are

assigned: Value, Banks of Issue, Double Standard, Income-Tax, State Ownership of Railways, etc. The student is expected to know, for instance, in the first case, the opinions of all prominent economists in reference to the subject, and their definitions of it. He must be able to give reasons for his own view, accompanied with refutation of the views he rejects, etc. It will be seen that the director has an excellent opportunity in his questions to test the thoroughness and extent of the student's investigation and to form an opinion of his ability.

The object of the society is really to promote original work in economics. A liberal amount of money is appropriated to the purchase of all recent publications of value in any language for the *Seminar* library. The society, although not yet fifteen years old, has done valuable original work, and its publications are rapidly acquiring an enviable reputation in Germany. A recent pamphlet by one of the members on "American Competition in European Markets" attracted the attention of the Government, and the young man who wrote it was offered a place on a commission which was to come to America and investigate the whole subject and report to the Imperial Government, but he was prevented from accepting by his election to the Reichstag. All possible assistance is given to those who aim to do original work, and the keen but sympathizing criticism of professor and fellow-student is no small aid in preventing mortifying blunders and mistakes. Professor Conrad, who now has charge of the society, is a really great teacher, able to inspire enthusiasm for his work, and wisely to direct the efforts of his students. There is also a statistical *Seminar* under his charge, which makes a specialty of original work in statistics.

The politico-economic debating society is under the control of the students, and discusses economic questions in the form of resolutions. It occupies itself, naturally enough, rather with practical questions of current interest than with purely theoretical problems. Its work is more serious and valuable than the work of corresponding organizations with us, because each of the members has had a tolerably complete course in political economy before he enters it.

It will be seen that the advantages offered the liberally-trained student who desires to specialize are excellent. Such a system would, of course, be of no value in our ordinary colleges, whose students need the drill and training of schoolboys much more than they do opportunities for original research. E. J. JAMES.

NORMAL, ILL., Sept. 12, 1882.

THE BEGGING OF DRINKS BY POLICEMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If Mallock ever establishes his "science of human character," it is hoped that one of its effects will be to prevent the *Nation* from publishing such comments on a New York policeman as are to be found in its last number. The case is this: A policeman was detailed to accompany a distinguished foreigner through the low lodging-houses of New York. During the quarter of an hour so occupied, the policeman twice hinted that he would like to be treated. So the visitor treated him to a drink, and he also gave him a dollar, remembering, by way of contrast, that a Parisian gendarme had once refused to accept a napoleon when the service performed was much greater. The *Nation* thinks this performance "is calculated to bring the blush of shame to the cheek of patriotism," and assumes that said policeman expected five dollars.

Now, this policeman certainly is not any credit to the force; but is not the *Nation*, by the sweeping assumption which it makes, doing more to bring the "blush of shame" than the original statement of fact as contained in the book? The extent to which its foreign readers are influenced by the utterances of the *Nation* in regard to Americans has been recently illustrated by the comments called forth by its statement that not one person in one hundred thousand here *ate with a fork*. In the case of the policeman, there is strong evidence that no gratuity in money was expected; for had there been, the hint at a drink would not have been given. "To stand the drinks," although the *Nation* and distinguished foreigners may not know it, is, among the classes from which policemen are drawn, an exceedingly common way of requiting obligations which are so small, or which are of such a social character, that a payment in money seems out of place. It is far more likely that the payment of the dollar surprised the policeman (especially after they had drunk together) than that he expected a larger sum; and yet, precisely because he was a European, M. D'Haussonville probably expected all the time, as a matter of course, to pay the dollar, and, notwithstanding his Parisian experience to the contrary, it was not so much the acceptance of the money as the fact of drinking atrocious Sicilian wine with a common policeman that impressed him. If the Parisian gendarmes, as a class, or any other class in Europe, set the Americans a good example in refusing gratuities, then many Americans who have travelled abroad will be greatly surprised and interested to know it. E. F. S.

NEW YORK, Sept. 26, 1882.

[There is one fatal flaw in our correspondent's argument. He fails to show that among "the classes from which policemen are taken" it is "exceedingly common" or permissible to beg drinks. It is only among the classes which this policeman took M. D'Haussonville to see in their hideous lairs in the low lodging-houses that it is customary to remind a friend or companion that it is time to drink at his expense. In the policeman class, the usual attitude with regard to gratuitous liquor is one of dignified, silent, and, let us add, carefully concealed expectation. Of course a member of it who was craving for a drink from a friend would not avoid taking him past a grogshop, but he would not for worlds direct attention to the grogshop unless he himself meant to be the giver of the treat. This is so elementary a drinking rule that it is almost painful to have to point out its existence to a writer who professes to speak on the subject with a certain authority.—ED. NATION.]

DEFORESTING THE ADIRONDACKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is probably no writer whose opinion is more highly and deservedly respected, on the subjects he has specially treated, than the late George P. Marsh. His great work, 'The Earth as Modified by Human Action,' is a wonderful exposition of the dangers to which nations are exposed by ignorance or want of a realizing appreciation of certain laws of nature which cannot be violated with impunity, though the penalty may be so long delayed that it is only by such careful examination as he has given that the consequences can be traced back to the original cause. But the course of nature is as certain as the passage of time, and at this day, when results have been so clearly demonstrated, it is disgraceful if we incur punishment which cannot be averted simply because its infliction does not immediately follow the transgression.

It is a remarkable fact that a supposed case cited by Mr. Marsh in the above-named work, the results of which he foretells by comparison with what has actually happened elsewhere, has now been literally fulfilled in its incipient stage by act of the State of New York. After describing the terrible results which have followed the clearing the forests from the mountains of southeastern France—which the Government is now endeavoring, at great cost, not to retrieve, for that is hopeless, but simply to check—he goes on to say:

"It is evidently a matter of the utmost importance that the public, and especially landowners, be roused to a sense of the dangers to which the indiscriminate clearing of the woods may expose not only future generations, but the very soil itself. Some of the American States, as well as the Governments of many European colonies, still retain the ownership of great tracts of primitive woodland. The State of New York, for example, has in its northeastern counties a vast tract of territory in which the lumberman has only here and there established his camp, and where the forest, though interspersed with permanent settlements, robbed of some of its finest pine-groves, and often ravaged by devastating fires, still covers far the largest proportion of the surface.

"Through this territory the soil is generally poor, and even the new clearings have little of the luxuriance of harvest which distinguishes them elsewhere. The value of the land for agricultural uses is, therefore, very small, and few purchases are made for any other purpose than to strip the land of its timber. It has been often proposed that the State should declare the remaining forest the inalienable property of the commonwealth; but I believe the motive of the suggestion has originated rather in poetical than in economical views of the subject. Both these classes of considerations have a real worth. It is desirable that some large and easily accessible region of American soil should remain, as far as possible, in its primitive condition—at once a museum for the instruction of the student, a garden for the recreation of the lover of nature, and an asylum where indigenous tree, and humble plant that loves the shade, and fish and fowl and four footed beast, may dwell and perpetuate their kind, in the enjoyment of such imperfect protection as the laws of a people jealous of restraint can afford them. The immediate loss to the public treasury from the adoption of this policy would be inconsiderable, for these lands are sold at low rates. The forest alone, economically managed, would, without injury and even with benefit to its permanence and growth, soon yield a regular income larger than the present value of the fee.

"The collateral advantages of the preservation of these forests would be far greater. Nature threw up those mountains and clothed them with lofty woods, that they might serve as a reservoir to supply with perennial waters the thousand rivers and rills that are fed by the rains and snows of the Adirondacks, and as a screen for the fertile plains of the central counties against the chilling blasts of the north wind, which meet no other barrier in their sweep from the Arctic Pole. The climate of New York presents even now greater extremes of temperature than that of southern France. The long-continued cold of winter is more intense, the short heats of summer even fiercer, than in Provence, and hence the preservation of every influence that tends to maintain an equilibrium of temperature and humidity is of cardinal importance. The felling of the Adirondack woods would ultimately involve, for northern and central New York, consequences similar to those which have resulted from the laying bare of the southern and western declivities of the French Alps, and the spurs, ridges, and detached peaks in front of them."

In spite of this warning, the deed has been done. A very large tract of the Adirondacks has been sold for the express purpose of stripping it of its wood. It is to be presumed that neither party to the bargain would give a moment's heed to what Mr. Marsh calls the "poetical view" of the subject, and it is evident that those who have thus disposed of the tract are too ignorant to take any but a very limited view of the actual results involved in the issue. There is, however, no excuse at this day for such

ignorance on the part of those who assume such a responsibility. The actual necessity of preserving a due proportion of forest throughout the country, and the ruinous consequences of stripping the woods from the mountain tops and sides, are familiar to every man who has studied the subject; and no man who is not thus informed should presume or be allowed to give a vote on a question of such momentous importance.

There is nothing so difficult as to induce people to think and form an opinion for themselves on any matter outside of their immediate personal interests. And it is for want of the watchfulness which can only come of such thoughtful decision, that such outrages become possible. It is to be hoped that the indignation it has excited in the minds of all who appreciate its practical as well as poetical aspects, will continue to be expressed with sufficient force to prevent the possibility of its repetition or further perpetration. If it should lead to the appropriation of a portion of the same region as an experimental forest for practical illustration of forest culture under proper management, the evil which has been done would not be entirely without compensation. H. W. S. CLEVELAND.

CHICAGO, Sept. 11, 1882.

THE THEATRE OF EPIDAUROS.*

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: After the excavations of the Germans at Olympia, and of the French in Delos, it was natural that the attention of archæologists should be turned to Epidauros, the greatest ancient sanctuary of Asklepios, and especially to its theatre, which, in the opinion of Pausanias, was "eminently well worth seeing—for what architect could compete in harmony and beauty of design" with him who planned this theatre, the great Polykleitos?

In March, 1881, the Greek Ephor of Antiquities in charge of the islands of the Ægean, Mr. P. Kavvadias, was commissioned by the Council of the Archæological Society of Athens to explore the sanctuary of Epidauros. Mr. Kavvadias began work at once, and carried on his investigations steadily until the beginning of July, when he was despatched by the Government to superintend the new excavations of the French school at Athens in Delos. During this period of over three months, Mr. Kavvadias laid bare nearly the whole auditorium of the theatre, and part of the remains of the stage foundations. In March of the present year the work was resumed. The exploration of the theatre was soon completed, and that of the other monuments of the sanctuary was begun, and is still going on. Among these monuments were numbered, besides several temples and other buildings described by Pausanias, a remarkable circular building called the *tholos*, designed by Polykleitos, and a beautiful fountain. Among these ruins much that is of interest in architectural, sculptural, and epigraphic remains has been found already; but the work is still too incomplete to demand a comprehensive summary of its results. I propose, therefore, to confine myself to a review of the features of the theatre, which not only was one of the largest and finest of Greek theatres, but is one of the oldest and most perfect in many ways of surviving examples.

Mr. Kavvadias found the site of the theatre covered so thickly with trees and underbrush that it was impossible to force one's way from the bottom to the top of the auditorium. His first week was spent, therefore, in clearing out this luxuriant growth; but even then, merely the general form of the auditorium was visible—the edges of the stone seats appearing only in a few places, in the lower part and at the extremities of the hemicycle, above the thick bed of soil washed down from the slopes of Mount Kynortios above. Henceforth, therefore, the work of exploration consisted almost wholly of excavation. This work has demonstrated the incorrectness of the descriptions and plans of the theatre given by Donaldson, Leake, Blouet, and others, which were necessarily in great part conjectural, on account of the condition of the site described above.

The theatre of Epidauros was situated without the sacred peribolos of Asklepios, upon the northwestern slope of Mount Kynortios, in a wide ravine, which was of such shape that it required but little labor to give it the requisite form of the auditorium. The rows of ordinary seats, and the seats of honor, or thrones, of the κοῖλον, are constructed of the white limestone of the neighborhood, while the supporting-walls at the extremities of the wings, and the surviving substructions of the stage, are built of tufa.

The arc of the auditorium is greater than a semicircle, and its curve deviates but little from that of a geometrical circle. The auditorium is divided by a diazoma into two zones, of which the upper consists of twenty-two rows of seats, according to the interesting topographical drawings of Captain Solomos, of the Greek Army, which are given in the Πρακτικά. According to the text, this upper zone contains only twenty rows of seats, besides a sort of bench above the diazoma, upon which the spectators placed upon the lowest row of seats rested their feet. The lower zone contains thirty-two rows of ordinary seats. Besides the ordinary seats, there are three rows of thrones.

The diazoma which separates the upper and lower zones of the theatre presents an arrangement which has not been found elsewhere. It consists of two passages paved with slabs of stone, one of which is upon a higher level than the other. The lower passage is 1.90 metre broad. On the side nearest the stage it is bordered by a row of thrones immediately above the uppermost row of seats of the lower zone. On the side away from the stage is a supporting-wall 1.36 metre high, crowned by elegant mouldings, and forming a base for the second row of thrones. The upper passage of the diazoma lies between this row of thrones and the bench beneath the lower seat of the upper zone, and is only 60 centimetres wide. The third row of thrones is below the lowest seat of the lower zone, and forms the immediate enclosure of the orchestra. The thrones and seats were constructed of blocks of hewn stone fastened to each other by iron clamps set in lead. Instead of being divided into separate seats for each spectator entitled to a place of honor, as in the Dionysiac theatre at Athens, the thrones of Epidauros extend unbroken, in each κερκίς, from κλίμαξ to κλίμαξ, thus resembling modern sofas. Unlike the Athenian thrones—which are, it is true, of very much later date—they bear no inscriptions designating the privileged persons for whom they were reserved. The three rows of thrones differ in height and in amount of sculptured ornament, those nearest the orchestra being the most ornate and the highest (90 centimetres). The ordinary seats of the lower zone are exactly similar in design and in height to those of the Dionysiac theatre; those of the upper zone are higher, and have square faces. The lower zone was divided into twelve κερκίδες by thirteen κλίμακες, which were continued through the supporting-wall of the thrones of the διάζωμα to the terrace above the upper zone of seats. Between each two of these κλίμακες in the upper zone was another stairway, so that the upper zone was divided into twenty-four κερκίδες by twenty-five κλίμακες. The design of the theatre of Epidauros is thus entirely different from that given as typical of the Greek theatre by Vitruvius, who assigned eight stairways to the lower zone, thus placing the axis of the theatre in the middle of a κερκίς of this zone—not in a κλίμαξ, as at Epidauros.

The κοῖλον was surrounded above by a wall, leaving a terrace 2.15 metres wide beyond the upper row of seats. There was probably direct access to this terrace by doors, and to the διάζωμα by stairways along the supporting-walls of the wings, to facilitate access to the theatre, which would have been difficult if confined to the approaches leading from below through the orchestra. Contrary to the indications of Vitruvius, no remains of a portico exist along this upper terrace, either in the theatre of Epidauros or in any other theatre of purely Greek arrangement.

The orchestra is about 26 metres in diameter. It consists of two parts—a passage paved with stone before the base of the lower row of thrones, and a circle, with a radius of 12.16 metres, extending toward the stage beyond the plan of the κοῖλον. The floor of the passage is 21 centimetres lower than that of the circle, and is so arranged as to collect and discharge outside the theatre through drains the rain-water falling in the auditorium. The periphery of the circle is constructed of stone; its surface, however, is not paved, but is formed of a carefully-laid bed of sand or ashes (κόνις). We have here, without doubt, the explanation of the hitherto doubtful term, κονίστρα, applied by the ancients to the orchestra of the Hellenic theatre as distinguished from that of the Romans, which was paved with stone. At the centre of the circle is embedded a circular stone, in which is a deep, circular hole. This marks the place of the thymele—the altar of Dionysos—in a circle about which the chorus moved, continuing thus the early traditions of worship from which the Greek drama derived its origin.

At a distance of 38 centimetres beyond the circle of the orchestra, and parallel to the chord of the arc of the auditorium, are the foundations, built of white limestone, of the wall of the hyposkenion. This wall was decorated with eighteen Ionic semi-columns of Attic design. The bases of six of these columns remain in position; and one of the capitals has been found (this spring), and some fragments of the Ionic cornice. The foundations survive of the double doors at either side which gave access to the orchestra and to the buildings of the stage, and formed at the same time the architectural connection between the stage and the auditorium. The foundations of the stage seem to indicate that there were only three doors in the wall behind the λογεῖον; nothing, however, remains of the Hellenic foundations, except the lower courses. Above these, the stage buildings appear to have undergone entire modification at several periods—the last probably during the Middle Ages, when they seem to have been adapted to the needs of habitation.

Mr. Kavvadias does not give the general dimensions of the κοῖλον. According to the plans of Captain Solomos, its greatest diameter is about 415 feet, English; and the length of the axis of the theatre, from the centre of the circle of the orchestra to the wall above the upper terrace, 205 feet.

In the course of the excavation of the orchestra and the stage, Mr. Kavvadias found a number of statues of both male and female figures—all headless, and many of them otherwise mutilated.

* Reports of Mr. P. Kavvadias, in the Πρακτικὰ τῆς ἐν Ἀθήναις Ἀρχαιολογικῆς Ἑταιρίας, ἀπὸ Ἰανουαρίου, 1881, μέχρι Ἰανουαρίου, 1882—ἐν Ἀθήναις, 1882; and in the Ἀθήναιον, τόμος Ι', τεῦχος ς' (March and April, 1882).

Some of these are of fine workmanship, but nearly all are of comparatively late date. One of them has been identified as the statue of the Empress Livia, dedicated by the people of Epidauros, of which the base, with its inscription, was found in position. The most interesting artistic discovery made by Mr. Kavvadias, however, is a statue of Hygieia, which, for artistic and critical reasons, he believes to be by the hand of Polykleitos himself. This statue, like the others found, has been deprived of its head—doubtless by the zeal of the Christians in the time of Theodosius or Justinian. Mr. Kavvadias describes this statue carefully in his report, and sets forth at length his reasons for believing it to be a work of Polykleitos. Unfortunately, it has not yet been published, though found more than a year ago; and artistic criticism cannot but be unsatisfactory and inconclusive in the absence of a graphic representation of the object under discussion.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

COTTAGE LAWN, YONKERS, N. Y.

Notes.

WE take from the *Publishers' Weekly* the following supplementary announcements of forthcoming books from the houses respectively named. D. Appleton & Co.: 'Fifty Perfect Poems,' selected and edited by Charles A. Dana and Rossiter Johnson; 'Hours with Art and Artists,' by G. W. Sheldon; Austin Dobson's 'Eighteenth Century Essays'; and Arabella B. Buckley's 'The Great Backboned Family, and How it Has Spread over the Earth.' Harper & Bros.: A translation of Dr. Franz von Reber's 'History of Ancient Art,' by Joseph Thaccher Clarke; 'The Friendships of Mary Russell Mitford,' edited by the Rev. A. G. L'Estrange; 'Travels in South Kensington,' with notes on decorative art and architecture in England, by Moncure D. Conway; 'Highways and By-Ways' (of New England), by W. Hamilton Gibson, with the author's own illustrations; 'The Story of the New York Volunteer Fire Department,' by George W. Sheldon; 'Eras and Characters of History,' by William R. Williams; 'A History of Wood Engraving,' by Prof. George E. Woodberry; and 'New Games for Parlor and Lawn,' by George B. Bartlett. Henry Holt & Co.: Bernhard Ten Brink's 'Early English Literature,' translated by Horace M. Kennedy; Heine's 'Harzreise and Das Buch Le Grand,' annotated by Prof. James A. Harrison, and his 'Romantic School,' translated by S. L. Fleischmann; J. A. Symonds's 'Italian Literature'; the second part of Cory's 'Guide to Modern English History,' and the second volume of Fyffe's 'History of Modern Europe'; J. A. Doyle's 'English Colonies in America'; and 'Political Economy,' by Gen. Francis A. Walker (in the "American Science" series). Charles Scribner's Sons: 'Corea, the Hermit Nation,' by Prof. W. E. Griffis; Lenormant's 'Origines de l'Histoire,' translated by Mary Lockwood, under the title, 'The Beginnings of History According to the Bible and the Traditions of Oriental People'; 'Idyls of Norway,' poems by Prof. H. H. Boyesen; and Sidney Lanier's 'The Boys' Percy.' A. S. Barnes & Co.: 'Anatomical Technology,' with reference to the domestic cat, by Professors Wilder and Gage, of Cornell University. Dodd, Mead & Co.: A new historical series, "The Minor Wars of the United States," beginning with the War of 1812 and the Old French War, by Rossiter Johnson; 'Cradle Songs of Many Nations'; Schaff and Gilman's 'Library of Religious Poetry'; and Hesse-Wartegg's 'Tunis.' George Routledge & Sons: A new illustrated and complete edition of George MacDonald's novels; 'Pan-Pipes,' a book of old songs arranged by Theodore Marzials and illustrated by Walter Crane; 'Randolph Caldecott's *Graphic* Pictures'; and 'Little Ann,' Jane and Ann Taylor's rhymes, illustrated by Kate Greenaway. Fowler & Wells: 'Traits of Representative Men,' by George W. Bungay; and 'Forty Years in Phrenology,' by Nelson Sizer, a "practical examiner." Fords, Howard & Hulbert: A series of reprints from *Our Continent*, including E. C. Gardner's 'The House that Jill Built after Jack's had Proved a Failure'; and 'Bullet and Shell; or, War as the Soldier Saw It,' by George F. Williams. Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston: 'Elements of Geology,' and 'Geology,' text-books by Prof. N. S. Shaler; a 'Spanish Grammar' and 'Readings from Spanish Literature,' by Prof. G. Knapp; 'Reader's Guide to English History,' by Prof. W. F. Allen; 'A Science of Mind,' by President Seelye; and 'Introduction to the Study of Philosophy,' by G. Stanley Hall. Little, Brown & Co.: 'A Treatise on the Principles and Practice of the American Law of Patents for Useful Inventions,' by Prof. W. C. Robinson, of Yale, a work much needed since the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Miller *vs.* the Bridgeport Brass Co. Estes & Lauriat: A juvenile 'History of New York,' by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb. S. E. Cassino: New editions of Goethe's works, revised and edited by Dr. F. H. Hedge and Prof. Leopold Noa, and of Schiller's, uniform with the foregoing; Fergusson's 'History of Architecture in all Countries'; and 'Flowers of the Field and Forest,' by the Rev. A. B. Hervey. J. B. Lippincott & Co.: An illustrated edition of 'New England Bygones,' by E. H. Arr (the late Mrs. Ellen H. Rollins); and a new illustrated edition of T. Buchanan Read's Poetical Works. Robert A. Tripple: 'Historical and Biographical Sketches,' by Samuel Whitaker Pennypacker. S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago: 'A Practical German Grammar,' by Prof. Wesley C. Sawyer; and 'The Development of English Literature and Language,' by Prof. A. H. Welsh. Rand, McNally & Co.: The second volume of Lalor's 'Cyclopædia of Political Science, &c.'; and 'American Etiquette and Rules of Politeness,' by Profs. W. R. Houghton, J. K. Bach, and P. J. A. Woodburn.

The *Publishers' Weekly*, on its own account, announces several handy little books uniform with its 'Reading Diary' and 'Books of All Time,' such as, 'Readers and Libraries,' by W. E. Foster; 'Schools and Libraries,' by S. S. Green; 'A Descriptive Catalogue of Historical Novels and Tales,' by H. Courthope Bowen; 'Books for the Young,' by Miss C. M. Hewins, etc., etc.

Harper & Bros. have brought out in the Franklin Square Library (No. 271) Mr. Smiles's 'Self-Help,' which might naturally have come somewhat earlier upon the list. We hope, by the way, that the "two-column edition" (8vo) of this Library, with neat yellow paper covers and no increase in price, will commend itself so as to encourage a reversion to ordinary book form.

Macmillan & Co. have issued at a reduced price the third revised and corrected edition, with fresh notes, of Butcher and Lang's prose version of the Odyssey.

Three poems of Bryant's, "Thanatopsis," "The Flood of Years," and "Among the Trees," heretofore issued separately, with illustrations, by G. P. Putnam's Sons, have been united in a single holiday volume. The designs of the first two are by Mr. W. J. Linton; of the last, by Jarvis McEntee.

'The Charles Dickens Birthday Book,' of which T. Whittaker is the American publisher, is not only peculiar in having been compiled, edited, and illustrated in the author's own family, but in the neglect to indicate the source of the numerous extracts. No great names are inserted under the several dates, and some odd juxtapositions may ensue, as when a young lady inscribes her name under December 4, and reads opposite—"I like your appearance, old fellow."

Ginn, Heath & Co. publish a new edition of Wentworth's 'Elements of Algebra.' The first 380 pages are a reprint of the first edition, which was reviewed in the *Nation* of September 22, 1881. To this second edition ten new chapters, comprising 130 pages, have been added, treating of "Continued Fractions," "Imaginary Numbers," and other subjects which are usually considered as belonging to the higher algebra. The general execution of these additions is in keeping with the previous part of the work. They perhaps justify the title of 'Complete Algebra' stamped on the back and sides, though the original title-page remains unaltered. We can only repeat the opinion expressed in regard to the first edition, that it is a very practical and usable book for a school.

R. G. Hutchinson, No. 44 Maiden Lane, sends us a convenient index for a small private library of say 2,000 works. It is a bound volume, crown 4to, of 240 pages, with ruled spaces for title, author, particulars of publication, size, binding, etc. It is available for either author or title-indexing, but not for both.

From L. W. Schmidt, 7 Barclay Street, we have the catalogue of the Johannes Paul art collection to be sold at auction at Cologne on October 16. Following a most practical custom, the catalogue is provided with numerous comprehensive heliotype views of plates, vases, tankards, keys, cups, flagons, coffers, etc., etc., which speak for themselves.

B. Westermann & Co. have received parts 2-5, of Düntzer's illustrated edition of Goethe's works, already described by us. The engravings show no falling off in quality, and are so abundant as to meet the needs of even the most indolent imagination.

Griffith & Farrar, says the *Athenæum*, owning most of Bewick's wood blocks for 'The Looking-Glass for the Mind,' will complete the set, and shortly bring out a reprint of the edition of 1792, under the editorship of Mr. Charles Welsh.

Mr. Christern sends us the prospectus of *Oud Holland*, a journal of researches in the archives of Amsterdam made by Drs. A. D. de Vries and N. de Roever. It will be illustrated in a manner to please the historian and antiquary. The publishers of this quarterly review are Frederik Muller & Co., Amsterdam.

M. Tamizey de Larroque, says the *Revue Critique*, has made a curious discovery. In a hitherto unknown pamphlet which he found in the library of Carpentras and published in the *Revue des Bibliophiles*, called 'Entrée de Charles IX. à Bordeaux,' it is said that the livery of the King was "blanc, pers, et rouge"—that is, white blue, and red, or that very tricolor which now is to Royalists like a red flag before a bull's eyes.

Mr. E. Steiger, 25 Park Place, with characteristic energy and earnestness, has reprinted his letter, on the abolition of the duty on books, to the *Evening Post* last August, together with Mr. Houghton's argument in a contrary sense before the Tariff Commission and the *Nation's* comments upon it, and sends them broadcast with a petition, returnable to himself, praying Congress to remove the duty in question. No better employment than obtaining signatures to this petition could occupy any one's leisure during the next two months.

—The large and valuable library left by the late Mr. George P. Marsh, United States Minister to Italy, has been sold by the Rev. Dr. Nevin,

on the part of the executors of Mr. Marsh's estate, to Mr. Frederick Billings, whose residence is at Woodstock, Vermont, Mr. Marsh's birthplace. It is said to be the intention of Mr. Billings to present this library to the University of Vermont at Burlington, of which he is himself an alumnus, and of which Mr. Marsh was for some time one of the Trustees, while his home was at Burlington. These facts lend a special interest and fitness to this gift. Mr. Marsh had at one time made a will by which he left his library to the University of Vermont, but later his circumstances were so impaired by what he spent in the public service that he was unable to carry out his original intention. Mr. Billings has done a generous and delicate act in thus securing the library for the institution with which Mr. Marsh himself had wished to place it.

—Mr. John Bigelow's "Railway Invasion of Mexico" in *Harper's* for October contains a mine of information for the investor who is now putting his savings into the hands of the financiers engaged in "developing the resources" of that country. Mr. Bigelow's facts amount to a demonstration that the railroads now under construction cannot for years and years pay large dividends or a heavy interest, because there is not enough business for them to do, and a future increase cannot be relied upon as it has been in our Western States, because there is no flow of emigration into Mexico, and no reason to think that emigrants will want to go there as long as they can come to the United States. The mere building of railroads will not bring them. What is being done in Mexico is very like what was done years ago in Peru and other South American countries; and the results must be the same, except that the state of society in Mexico is now peaceful and settled, and there is reason to believe that her internal improvement will not be interfered with in the future by revolutions. The emigration of which we have heard as "pouring" into Mexico during the last year or two, has chiefly consisted of 5,000 or 10,000 Italians or negroes, who have been brought in by the railroad contractors themselves to work on the new roads. To Mexico the construction of a number of lines with foreign capital is a great thing; to the contractors and the capitalists who place the bonds on the market it is a great thing; but the investor ought to understand that the scheme as a whole is a speculation of which the profits are less likely to come to him than to any one in the wide world, and that if he wants to see what is probably in store for him, he has only to recollect what the early investors in "Peruvians" and "Egyptians" found in store for them.

—M. E. W. Sherwood contributes an illustrated article on "Certain New York Houses," the interiors of which show the pitch of luxury and taste at which we have arrived, and suggest to the pessimistic reader that the palaces of New York differ from all the palaces which have preceded them in other countries, or now rival them, in being inhabited, to a large extent, by a class whose occupations are not naturally associated with palace life at all. A life of money-getting in the United States is now usually wound up by the construction of a palace in which a successful dry-goods man, or pork-packer, or operator in stocks drags out the evening of his days in the midst of taste and splendor for the enjoyment of which he has neither a natural or acquired capacity. He knows that it is his duty to have an æsthetic interior, and he likes to beat his neighbor on the opposite corner by having a little more æstheticism in it than he; but in his secret soul he must feel that these are rather things for "the girls" and artists, and that the place for him is in his counting-room or watching the tape of the stock-ticker. Mr. W. H. Bishop, always a good observer and describer, writes on "Southern California," and those who are interested in the once much-talked-of "Symmes's Hole," as well as those who never heard of either Symmes or the hole, will find B. F. Madden's paper on the subject a curious bit of reading. The Rev. D. Stevenson contributes to literature Chief-Justice Marshall's "Eulogy upon his Wife," which has never seen the light before; and we may take this opportunity to say that the eulogies on wives by their husbands, even when distinguished men, though they pander to a morbid curiosity, are seldom of any real interest, because they are all alike utterly uncritical, and, as they are the products of affection rather than intellect, ought to be sacred, at any rate unless, as in Mill's case, the survivor himself insists on taking the world into his confidence. All that can be said of the Chief-Justice's eulogy is that it shows Mrs. Marshall to have been very like Mrs. Mill in the estimation of her husband; but that she was so in fact is improbable, to say the least.

—The *Century*, as usual, is full of illustrated articles, the best of which, perhaps, are "Life in a Mexican Street," by S. G. W. Benjamin, and Charles H. Farnham's "Gibraltar of America," the illustrations of the latter being by Henry Sandham and F. Hopkinson Smith, who have managed to reproduce the main Quebec "effects" with great success. David C. Barrow, jr., describes in an entertaining manner a Georgia "corn-shucking," one of those plantation institutions which have flourished and expanded since the war, and the survival of which shows that the hilarity and gregariousness of the negro have not been so much affected by the possession of civil rights or the suffrage that we need yet dread his losing the power to amuse us. Mr. E. E. Farman, who, as American Consul-General, conducted the negotiations with the Egyptian Government which led to the gift of the Obelisk, makes a detailed statement of what he did in the matter, and publishes the letter he received with regard to it from Sherif Pasha. This shows that the latter regarded the Obelisk as given to the city of New York, and not, as seems to be the belief of those who have charge of it, to the United States. It is a matter of small consequence, however, as it is evident from Mr. Farman's own account that the Khedive in giving it hardly cared to know to whom the title was to be transferred. A good many people wondered at the time the negotiations began why, if the Khedive wanted to give us an obelisk, there should be so much delay over it; but it appears from what Mr. Farman has to say that the Khedive never had any intention of giving it at all. We sent out and asked for it, and the Egyptian Government finally gave it because they found that we wanted so much to have it. An enterprising journalist started the negotiations by announcing that the Khedive was all ready to give an obelisk "upon a proper application," all of which shows that good things may often be got by insisting on having them, though in the intercourse of nations the procedure described by Mr. Farman is certainly novel. There is something rather funny in his account of the persistent way in which he argued to the Khedive that we really must have an obelisk in New York, because then our entire population of 50,000,000 could see it, whereas only a small proportion of them would ever be able to visit Egypt. The *Century*, which is now perhaps the most judiciously edited magazine in the world, has a few words said for it by its editor in this number, and it will surprise no one who is accustomed to look through it to learn that its circulation during the past year has been larger than ever, and that it has a large circulation in England.

—The *Atlantic* contains a pleasant description, by Mr. F. H. Cushing, of a curious tribe of Indians who inhabit a cañon of Rio Colorado Grande. The "Nation of the Willows" is a tribe very unlike, in many of its characteristics, any of the Indians that we know anything about in the East, and among other peculiar traits has an abnormal sense of humor. They find humor, it seems, in all sorts of out-of-the-way places, where it is often hard for the Caucasian, even when gifted with more than a Scotch capacity for the comprehension of a joke, to follow them. A dead horse, and the difficulties in which his death placed his owner, were enough to set them wild with merriment; and many were the jests that they extracted for the owner's benefit from this unpromising subject. They are great mimics, as well as great wags, and liked to watch and imitate the motions of Mr. Cushing's hand and pencil in writing, though they had not the slightest comprehension of what he was doing, and could only produce as the result of their efforts a meaningless scrawl, of which their love of a joke led them to "read off a ridiculous, usually obscene, rendering." Mr. Cushing, who is an Indian by adoption, will, we presume, collect the Indian articles he is now contributing to the magazines in a book, as they have a permanent anthropological as well as literary interest. "Storm on Lake Asquam" is a poem by Whittier, which is characteristic of him, and, it is hardly necessary to say, true to nature as he sees it—that is, to nature seen with the eye of faith, and never as an indifferent spectator. Mr. Harrison's "Studies in the South" is continued, and contains this time some rather good negro stories. One very curious effect of emancipation is seen in the antics the negroes now play with their old names, for the purpose of magnifying them and making them more like white names. "Thus Romeo Jones of the old times now signs his name Romey O. Jones; Pericles Smith writes himself down Perry Clees Smith; and a boy who was always known as Polly's Jim, having learned to read the New Testament, is now Mr. Apollos James." To a Northerner, however, the Southern whites are often as amusing as the negroes. The story of a Kentucky election dispute, told by Mr. Harrison, throws a flood of light on those queer "affairs of honor" which are always coming off in the South, and which are called there "tragedies" or "duels," and elsewhere are looked upon as murders. The disputants were editors of rival newspapers, and were rival candidates for the nomination to the Legislature. They began the canvass with a bargain not to use money or whiskey "as a motive power"; but, as a leading citizen said, in the course of the canvass there were "some very serious developments." One candidate published a card, in which he charged the other with the use of whiskey as a motive power; upon which the other made a careful reply, beginning with a full biographical notice of himself, and concluding with the following remarks upon his opponent: "I desire to say, clearly and explicitly, that his course towards me has been the result of delirium tremens, or of the most fiendish and vicious feeling of jealousy and envy. He is a liar and a cowardly puppy. He is not in my way, and is hereafter welcome to do whatever the promptings of a soul which professes to believe there is no God, may suggest." Now, the curious part of all this was that the place in which it happened grew wild with excitement about it, and it was generally believed that

blood would flow like water. One of the editors, who were both arrested, shrewdly refused to give bail, and was sent to jail, and it was generally conceded that his "incarceration" would give him a decided political advantage over his opponent.

—*Lippincott's* opens with an illustrated article on "Norfolk, Old and New," by Charles Burr Todd; and Annie Porter writes of her escape from the Mississippi floods of last spring, with that ready sort of descriptive power which is perhaps the most marked gift of feminine authorship. "Bark Canoeing in Canada," by "Kanuck," is a readable article; and there is the usual supply of fiction and poetry. *Lippincott's* of this month can hardly be compared with the other magazines, because in it little or no attempt has been made to give serious literary or social articles, or to discuss or criticise. The pabulum provided is of a lighter sort than that furnished by its rivals.

—Mr. Rose's corrections of the Census, which have been published in the past five issues of the *Nation*, have not received from the press the attention which they merited. No doubt this has been partly owing to their want of "quotability," for in the nature of the case they did not lend themselves readily to the scissors. Confining himself to the Population volume, Mr. Rose has demonstrated in general such a contradiction between the tables (with the text) and the corresponding maps that if either be taken as a standard, the other is not to be trusted. Further, that the tables abound in errors, many of them huge and palpable, and all highly discreditable to the editing of this delicate and important work. He has shown that many of these errors recur in various combinations without detection, and he makes it seem probable that if his tests were protracted an indefinite number of errors might still be unearthed. Now, the journalist may pass this exposure by, but the Census Bureau itself cannot afford to be silent, even if there is no help for the botchwork of the volume already issued. The Baltimore *American* says: "Mr. Walker, the Superintendent of the Census, should at once take steps to correct what is wrong: at least, he should in some manner refute the charges made, or endeavor to explain how they could have occurred." We do not, for our part, know who is responsible for the defects pointed out, but considering the extent to which they vitiate the entire work, one recalls the epithets "gross and ridiculous" applied to the Census of 1840. It must not be forgotten that the results now given to the world will be used for comparison by the makers of the eleventh and of each following Census, and will thus become endlessly misleading. With the earlier and cruder Censuses nothing could be done but to take them as they were, and contrast them one with another and with subsequent returns; but there ought to have come a time when we could rest with absolute confidence in the statistics, not only as gathered but as printed, and make them the sure basis of deductions as to the national growth and development. Improved methods of taking the Census are of small account if the figures are to be subject to careless compilation, computation, and typography. Perhaps it will appear that we have undertaken too much for our imperfect statistical organization, and that a large number of the tabulated phases of the returns have rather a curious interest than a practical value; while all will agree that a minutely accurate and trustworthy, even if meagre, Census is far better worth the enormous outlay of each decade than a multitude of faulty or suspected manipulations of data not fundamentally called for. On this last head at least we are sure General Walker could speak inteligently and with authority.

—The American Commission has just issued "Instructions for Observing the Transit of Venus, December 1, 1882, prepared by the Commission authorized by Congress, and printed for the use of the observing parties by authority of the Hon. Secretary of the Navy" (Washington: Government Printing Office). The parties organized by the Secretary of the Navy are invested with naval character, and subject to naval rules, regulations, and discipline. The command of each party is assigned to the Chief Astronomer, the order of rank and authority in each party being as follows: Chief Astronomer, Assistant Astronomer, Chief Photographer, Assistant Photographer. The instructions were prepared primarily for the use of the parties organized by the Commission, but as the Transit will be visible in this country, they have also been adapted to the use of amateur observers who desire to be made acquainted with the methods by which they may make observations of value. Detailed directions are given for the selection of observing stations, and for setting up instruments. The success of the American system of photography, on the occasion of the Transit of 1874, has led the Commission to rely chiefly on this method of observing the coming Transit. A very considerable portion of the 'Instructions' is therefore devoted to the photoheliograph, the instrument by which the pictures of the Transit are taken. The pamphlet of instructions contains explicit memoranda regarding the photoheliograph and its adjustments, the heliostat, the exposing-slide, the photographic tube, the plate-holder plumb-line, the batteries and electrical connections, the measuring rod, errors of the photoheliograph, fittings of the photographic house, care of the sensitive emulsion, selecting and marking glass, cleaning and albumenizing glass, coating plates, exposure of plates in the photoheliograph, the development, fixing and varnishing, blistering and lifting of the film, spots and other defects, preliminary practice, preparation for the Transit, photographing the Transit, development and packing the Transit-plates, wet emulsion-plates, bath wet-plates, and general precautions. Other sections treat of time-observations and chronometer-comparisons, exchange of time with other parties, latitude and longitude of station, the employment of the equatorial telescope, and the observation of occultations of stars by the moon for finding the longitude of stations not otherwise determinable.

—Under the head of general instructions respecting observations of contacts, it is said that, with regard to the determination of time, arrangements will be made with the Western Union Telegraph Company to transmit time-signals from the Naval Observatory to every part of the country. The aperture of telescope to be preferred in the observations is from five to six inches. Apertures as small as four inches may be used without serious detriment, and three inches may be regarded as the smallest with which observations of real value can be made. The eyepiece should have a magnifying power of not less than 150, nor much more than 200. An equatorial mounting is nearly indispensable to accurate observation, and a clock-motion is desirable. A regular filar micrometer will not be of any use as an instrument of measurement. If shade-glasses are used, they should be made of three thicknesses of glass, the piece next the eye being thickest and darkest in color, all being fitted loosely into their cell so as to allow free expansion. An aperture of five inches may then be used without danger of splitting the sunshade. The observer must attend carefully to the firmness of the telescope, to his ability to move it so as to keep any part of the sun's edge steadily in the centre of the field, and to the accuracy of the focal adjustment. The degree of brilliancy of the sun's disk as seen by the eye is to be particularly attended to; and the American instructions suggest a simple modification of the method of reducing this brilliancy recommended by the Paris International Conference. The conditions necessary to the making of a really good observation of external contact of the planet and sun are such that but few observers will be able to secure anything worth recording. From the time of external contact to that of internal, a period of about twenty minutes, the observer should have little or nothing to attend to, in order that he may be prepared, optically and mentally, for the important observation of internal contact. All the confusing difficulties attendant upon this observation are specifically dealt with, and mention made of every precaution which may lead to a successful and valuable observation. The final sections of the pamphlet relate to methods of recording contacts, measures of the diameter of Venus, data required in reducing the observations, the records of observations and operations, and the transmission and publication of observations. Appended are four lithographic plates showing (1) the lines of synchronous internal contact at ingress, (2) egress; (3) the illuminated hemphisphere of the earth at the middle of the Transit, (4) paths described by several stations through diurnal motion, as seen from the sun during the Transit.

—We have received from Dietrich Reimer, Berlin (New York: L. W. Schmidt), several admirable maps, of which we will first name one physical and one political of the British Isles. These are both wall-maps, for school use, edited by Richard Kiepert, and are published in four sheets. The scale is one inch to about sixteen miles (1 : 1,000,000), and the elevation of the surface, the depths of the neighboring waters, the population of towns and cities according to the census of 1881, etc., are all clearly represented without excessive detail. Ireland is given entire on one sheet in each series. A map useful not only for schools of the higher grades, but also for merchants, students, and statesmen, is Dr. Heinrich Kiepert's "General Map of South America" (Mapa general de la América Meridional). This beautiful production is on a single large sheet (folio by doubling), and on a scale of 1 : 10,000,000, with numerous side maps for almost every country and for the outlying Galápagos archipelago, forever associated with the triumphs of Darwin, whose nominal monument, however, is a peak in Tierra del Fuego. Nothing is more impressive than the longitudinal way in which South America, in contrast with our own continent, has been settled and politically split up. Chili's snake-like extension bids fair to reach the equator, and there is a prospect of endless wars over disputed boundaries among every one of her neighbors to the north: Ecuador, for example, between the claims of Colombia and Peru, being reduced to a mere wedge. But as regards not only boundaries but natural features like the course of rivers, the glorious uncertainty of South American geography is well exhibited by the broad differences between Kiepert's delineation and that of the larger-scale maps in the new Stieler's Atlas. Between two such eminent authorities the layman cannot undertake to decide. We have finally to mention this learned cartographer's editing of Professor C. Haussknecht's journeys in Northern Syria, Southern Armenia, Mesopotamia, Kurdistan, and Central and Southern Persia. These journeys were made at private expense in the interest of botany, but advantage was taken of the

opportunity to add to our knowledge of districts heretofore little visited and therefore most promising for botanical research. Prof. Haussknecht's intelligent observations and second-hand information have been supplemented and checked by Dr. Kiepert from various sources, public and private, and are mapped under the auspices of the Berlin Geographical Society, with the aid of the Carl Ritter fund. The Turkish portion is the most original and valuable. The work fills four sheets, on a scale of 1 : 6,000,000 and 1 : 8,000,000 for each pair respectively. From the traveller and his editor we have short introductions explaining the circumstances of the undertaking, in a small quarto pamphlet accompanying the maps ; but Prof. Haussknecht promises a detailed description of the interesting region traversed by him as soon as possible.

—Dr. von Reber, the celebrated archæologist and art-historian, publishes in the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* for August 10 a highly complimentary notice of the investigations at Assos of the expedition of the Archæological Institute of America, as described in Mr. Clarke's first report. Dr. von Reber notes the beauty of the representations of animals among the temple sculptures, and the comparative inferiority, in general, of those of the human figure. He calls attention, however, to the head of a sphinx from the epistyle frieze, which is in a remarkable state of preservation, and which approaches very nearly the type of the Apollo of Tenea and similar monuments. All earlier students have placed the date of the temple of Assos before 500 B. C. —some of the most eminent of them even before 600 B. C. The earlier the date the more important is the building in the history of Doric architecture, as thus its influence upon the later and fully developed style may have been considerable. Mr. Clarke, however, thinks that the building of the temple was due to the art-impulse which followed the Greek victories over the Persians in the first quarter of the fifth century, and that it is contemporary with the temple of Ægina. He accounts for its many archaic features by the position of Assos, remote from the centres of Hellenic thought, and by the strong Oriental influences of the neighborhood. Mr. Clarke's opinion has great weight, as his knowledge of the temple is necessarily far greater than that of his predecessors ; and certain confirmation of it will be received with much interest. Dr. von Reber thinks that the exploration of the Street of Tombs of Assos, now in progress, promises especially important archæological results. He mentions with much satisfaction the recent discovery there of a Doric stele-column, provided with a base like those of Egyptian models, and resembling closely the proto-Doric shafts of Beni-Hassan. He looks upon this stele as an important evidence in support of his theory that the want of a base is not an original characteristic of the Doric column, but that it resulted from the use of stone in the place of wood in the epistyle, and the consequent closer placing of the columns. This, he thinks, caused the bases, extending out beyond the shafts, to lie so inconveniently near each other that the old architects preferred to give them up, or, rather, to combine them with the stylobate.

—Americans who were ashamed at the conduct of the audience at the Guiteau trial may derive an unsatisfactory consolation from the accounts of the *procès Fenayrau* at Versailles. The crime was a hideous murder, for which one of the accused was condemned to death and his wife to imprisonment for life ; a piece of the victim's skull was exhibited in court, as the President's bones were, and yet, just as in the American trial, we read of *hilarité prolongée, rires, hilarité générale, on rit.* Thackeray has described in one of his sketches the intense popular enjoyment of a hanging, and intimated his belief that such scenes encouraged rather than deterred men from crime. Public executions have been in a measure abolished. Can anything be done to render trials for murder less hilarious? With many of the spectators laughter is only a necessary unbending after strained attention, a reaction from pity and horror ; with others it is part of the amusement which was their object in coming to the trial. In either case it ought to be deferred till they are outside of the court-house. But how ? The audience can no more be gagged than the prisoner.

ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

A Short History of the Kingdom of Ireland, from the Earliest Times to the Union with Great Britain. By Charles George Walpole, M.A., Barrister-at-Law. London : Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. ; New York : Harper & Bros.

Mr. Walpole's 'History of the Kingdom of Ireland' is about as melancholy and as instructive reading as any book one can take up. The annals of that country are, from beginning to end, the record of failure and misery. Their special sadness consists in the fact that calamities spreading over centuries appear on a first view to be caused solely either by human folly, selfishness, and stupidity, or by the special perversity and unkindness of fate. The kingdom of which Mr. Walpole tells the story seems, on cursory observation, the one spot on earth where no system of government has been able to produce anything but misery. The vigor of Wentworth, the despotism of Cromwell, the energy of William, achieved at least as little permanent good as the enlightenment of Grattan and all the attempts at improvement made by statesmen who believed that the evils caused by oppression and intolerance could be removed by freedom and religious equality. It is natural enough for any one who realizes the failure of statesmanship to remove the hundred evils under which Ireland has suffered, to assume that if energy and policy have failed to bear good fruit, the cause of this want of success lies in the special wickedness either of the Government or of its subjects. Hence Irishmen are apt enough to believe, and not without considerable show of reason, that the misfortunes of their country may be ascribed to the wickedness of England, in the same sense in which a definite crime may be charged upon an individual criminal. We have known men who, in other respects possessed of sense and judgment, could not get quit of the feeling, if not of the belief, that the Englishmen of to-day — Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Bright, and others—were, in spite of their endeavors to do justice to Ireland, constructively responsible for "the curse o' Crummell," the breach of the Treaty of Limerick, the cruelties of 1798, and the corruption which procured the passing of the Act of Union. Englishmen, on the other hand, assume that the most conspicuous of England's failures is due to the innate folly, indolence, or crookedness of Irish nature. Which of us has not heard that the calamities of Irishmen are due to the vices of the "race"? How many of us have reflected that the formula which attempts to explain everything by reference to blood is, in ninety-nine out of a hundred cases, no better than a restatement of the very fact which requires explanation, or that the reference to "race" is singularly unsatisfactory when applied to a country which has been planted and colonized more than once with men of Scotch and English blood ? If "race" be the solution of the problems presented by Irish history, it were well to consider the question why it is that the descendants of Cromwell's Puritans have furnished even more than their due quota to Irish discontent.

The plain truth is, that if the melancholy history of the kingdom of Ireland is to yield any instruction to the philosophic investigator into the course of human affairs, his first step must be to get rid of the delusions caused in the domain of history, as elsewhere, by personification. He must cease to think of England and Ireland as persons who may be charged with individual and continuous responsibility for the crimes or follies of the past. He must also carefully check the natural but delusive tendency of the human mind to conceive that when anything goes wrong you can always lay your finger on definite, assignable wrongdoers—that is, upon some man or men who can be held responsible for faults and errors as a murderer may be held guilty of murder or a robber of theft. No one who reflects on the profound truth of the dictum (attributable, by the way, to an Irishman) that "history is at the best but an old almanac," can hope that investigations into the past will do much to guide the future relations of England and Ireland. One thing, however, the careful study of history may perhaps achieve—it may slightly modify the historical animosities which still divide Ireland from the rest of the United Kingdom. It is at any rate worth while for serious students to turn their minds away from hopeless and interminable disputes about individual responsibility for the errors of the past, and to examine how far the miseries of Ireland and the failures of England may be the effect of causes too general to be in any way identified with the intentional wrong-doing of given persons. Whoever looks at the facts recorded by Mr. Walpole, and as far as possible neglects the color which that author's natural feeling or sentiment gives to these facts, will be able to draw from the events with which he deals several conclusions of considerable speculative importance.

First. England and Ireland have from the beginning of their ill-starred connection been countries standing at a different level, or a different stage, of civilization. This has been the fruitful source of a thousand ills. Hence has arisen (among other evils) the whole crop of difficulties connected with the tenure of land. When James I. determined that the "old Brehon law was to be utterly abolished, and the means of appealing to English law brought within the reach of every one," he and his ministers really meant to introduce a beneficial reform. They hoped that out of the old tribal customs a regular system of landholding according to the English tenure would be developed. In forcing on this change, English statesmen probably felt convinced not only that they were carrying out a reform, but that they were promoting the cause of justice. To men trained under the teaching of lawyers like Coke, and accustomed to regard the tenure which prevailed in England as something good in itself, it must have appeared that to pass from the irregular dominion of uncertain customs to the rule of clear, definite law, was little less than a transition from anarchy and injustice to a condition of order and equity. They acted in precisely the spirit of their descendants, who are absolutely assured that the extension of English maxims of government throughout India must be a blessing to the population of the country, and are at this moment shaping their Eastern policy upon their unwavering faith in the benefits which the European Control must of necessity confer on the Egyptian peasants. If, however, it is probable that King

James meant well to his Irish subjects, it is absolutely certain that his policy worked gross wrong. His "scheme only provided for the more powerful members of the tribes, and took no account of the inferior members, each of whom in their degree had an undeniable, if somewhat indefinite, interest in the tribal land. . . . It never occurred" to Sir John Davis, who carried out the plan, "that the humblest member of the tribe should, if strict justice were done, have received his allotment out of the common territory; and the result of his settlement accordingly was that the tribal land was cut up into a large number of freehold estates, which were given to the most important personages among the native Irish, and the bulk of the people reduced to the condition of tenants at will." An intended reform led to injustice, litigation, misery, and discontent. This case is worth notice, for it is a type of a thousand subsequent English attempts to reform and improve Ireland. The rulers of the country were influenced by ideas different from those of their subjects. Ignorance and want of sympathy produced all the evils of cruelty and injustice.

The history of the religious reformation of Ireland is in principle much the same as the history of the reform of Irish land tenure. The singular inappropriateness, not to say absurdity, of attempting to impose Anglican Protestantism upon a people who had not reached the stage of development which was absolutely essential for even the understanding of Protestant doctrine, conceals from us the strength of the pleas which may be urged in excuse of a policy which to critics of the nineteenth century seems as iniquitous as it was absurd. Till very near the end of the seventeenth century, it was the all but universal belief of the best and wisest men of the age that the religion of a country was the concern of the Government, and that a king who neglected to establish and enforce the "truth"—or, in other words, his own theological beliefs—neglected his obligations to his subjects and incurred the displeasure of Heaven. From this point of view, the conduct of the Tudors and their successors must appear to us as natural under their circumstances as to themselves it appeared wise and praiseworthy. That England should have been ripe for Protestantism at a time when the majority of the Irish people had hardly risen to the level of Roman Catholicism, was to each country a grievous misfortune. That English Protestants of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries should have believed that toleration of Papists was a grievous sin, and should have acted on the belief, was the cause of immense calamities. But inevitable ignorance or prejudice is not the same thing as cruelty or wickedness.

Secondly. The virtues no less than the vices of Englishmen have rendered them singularly incapable of conciliating the good-will of dependencies. It will always remain a curious paradox that the nation which has built up the British Empire has combined great talent for legislation and government with a remarkable want of power to consolidate its subjects into one state. The explanation of this paradox lies, it may be plausibly conjectured, in the aristocratic sentiment which has given the tone to the policy, and to a great extent moulded the institutions, of England. An aristocracy is far more prone than a despotic or democratic government to respect the rights of individuals; but an aristocracy identifies right with privilege, and is essentially based on a belief in the inequality of men and of classes. "Privilege" is the key-note of English history; the tendency to cling to privileges has preserved English freedom, but it has made England slower than almost any other civilized country to adopt ideas of equality. This love for privilege has vitiated the English government of Ireland in more ways than one. The whole administration rested, avowedly down to 1829, and unavowedly to a later period, on the inequality of Catholics and Protestants; and Protestant supremacy itself meant (except during the short rule of Cromwell), not Protestant equality, but Anglican privilege. The spirit which divided Ireland into hostile bodies prevented Englishmen who dwelt in England from treating as equals Englishmen who settled in Ulster. When the Protestant Volunteers claimed Irish independence, and the American colonists renounced connection with the mother country, the same cause produced the same effects. In each case English colonists revolted against English sovereignty because it meant the privilege of Englishmen who dwelt in Great Britain to curtail the rights and hamper the trade of Englishmen who dwelt abroad; for even the monstrous and iniquitous restrictions on the trade of Ireland, which are morally far the most blameworthy of the wrongs done by England to Irishmen, were not precisely the acts of deliberate selfishness which they seem to modern writers. The grievance under which Ireland suffered was in character the same as the grievances in respect of trade inflicted on the American colonies; yet it is certain that but for the insane attempt to subject the colonies to Imperial taxation, the War of Independence might have never broken out, or would, at any rate, have been long deferred. Even the sufferers from a vicious commercial policy did not see its essential iniquity. It is hardly a subject for wonder that the generation of Englishmen who at any rate supposed themselves to gain greatly by controlling or extinguishing the colonial or Irish trade, should not have realized the full iniquity of a policy which in itself hardly seemed intolerable to many of those who suffered the wrong. English selfishness was masked from Englishmen by English ignorance; but let no one fancy that to palliate the moral guilt of England is in any way to lessen the reality of Irish grievances. Injustice is as hard to bear when it results from ignorance as when it results wholly from greed or rapacity.

Thirdly. The English Constitution has wrought almost as much evil to Ireland as it has conferred benefit upon England. Mr. Froude and others who point to the misgovernment of Ireland as a proof that the Parliamentary system is radically bad, prove something, though what they prove is not the point which they intend to establish. A representative government is in many cases an excellent form of government for the people who are represented. It is a thoroughly vicious form of government for any nation whom it does not represent. The assailants of Parliamentary government do not make out that England has suffered from the power of the English Parliament. They do show that a Parliamentary despotism is a worse government for a dependency than a Royal despotism. This is so for two reasons. Parliament, in the first place, is less capable than a king of compensating for the evils of tyranny by the benefit of good administration. Parliamentary government, in the second place, means, or has always meant in England, government by parties; and whatever the merit of party spirit in a free country, its disastrous effect when applied to the administration of a dependency is patent. Down to 1783 Ireland was avowedly ruled under a Parliamentary despotism. At every turn the interest of the country was sacrificed to the exigencies of English politicians. Between 1783 and 1800 the nominal independence obtained by the Volunteers placed some check on the power of the English Parliament; yet no one can fail to see that in substance the Parliament of England remained the true sovereign of the kingdom of Ireland. If Pitt could have carried the King and the English Parliament with him, he would, we may feel sure, have carried out his policy of Catholic emancipation in spite of any resistance which could have been offered at Dublin by the adherents of Ascendancy. A calm observer may even at the present day doubt whether under the Parliament of the United Kingdom Ireland obtains the real benefits of the British Constitution. A hundred representatives from Ireland sit, it is true, in the House of Commons; but any one who is determined to look facts in the face must feel far from certain whether Ireland is, for any practical purpose, represented at London in the same sense as Middlesex or Midlothian.

The last, the most inevitable, the worst and the least blameworthy, of the evils caused to Ireland by England has been the artificial suppression of revolution. The crises we call revolutions are the ultimate and desperate cures for fundamental social disorganization. The issue of the revolutionary struggle shows what is the really sovereign power in the revolutionized state. The interest of mankind (at least, in any European country) in favor of some kind of settled rule is so strong that civil disturbance will, if left to itself, end in the supremacy of some power which by securing the safety at last gains the attachment of the people. The Reign of Terror begets the Empire. Even the wars of religion at last produce peace, albeit peace may be nothing better than the iron order of despotism. Could Ireland have been left for any lengthened period to herself, some form of rule adapted to the needs of the country would have been established. Whether Protestants or Catholics would have been the predominant element in the state; whether the landlords would have held their own, or whether the whole English system of tenure would have been replaced by one more in conformity with historical traditions; whether the different classes of the community would have established some *modus vivendi* under which individual freedom might have been secured, or whether some despotic form of government would have been sanctioned by the acquiescence of its subjects—are matters of pure speculation. What, however, is certain is, that Ireland would, if left to herself, have, like every other country, arrived at some permanent settlement of her difficulties. The British connection has been fatal to such a settlement. Revolution has been suppressed at the price of permanent disorder, and a nation which has never been independent has never borne the burdens or learnt the lessons of national responsibility. Disastrous as this result has been, it were difficult to say who it was that at any given point was to blame for it. Had France been attached to, and dependent upon, a more powerful neighbor, the governing state must have checked the agonies of the Reign of Terror; but it is almost certain that the forcible defeat of Jacobinism through an external power would have been fatal to the progress and prosperity of France.

A FRENCH VIEW OF GERMAN SCHOOLS.

Excursions Pédagogiques. Par Michel Bréal, Membre de l'Institut. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1882.

THE total impression produced by M. Bréal's valuable essays is painful. The new France is moving forward, but the progress is slow and every step disputed. The Clericals have the advantage of tradition, of definite method, definite aims. M. Bréal, himself a prominent and able advocate of progress, is too clear-sighted not to see through the wily tactics of the other party,

and the volume is full of facts and suggestions of the highest interest to those who are studying the history of the Third Republic, and not without value for our own present and future.

One can hardly parallel the readiness with which France has set herself to study the methods of her victorious enemy both in civil and in military education. It is easy enough to talk about learning from an enemy, but it is hard to practise it. The defeated would often prefer to stay defeated rather than be successful as the enemy has been successful. Imitation seems to involve assimilation, and assimilation is too high a price to pay. But France defeated did not hesitate to copy Germany victorious, and those French scholars who had long been familiar with German systems pressed this opportunity of introducing needed reforms. In his preface M. Bréal takes occasion to enter a protest against the wholesale introduction of German methods, but he finds, as we should all find, much to learn from the management of gymnasium and university in Germany.

The German gymnasium, M. Bréal remarks, is more simple in its organization than the French lycée; it does not admit so great a variety of studies. In the lycée some follow the regular course, others prepare for the Army, the Navy, the polytechnic school. In the German gymnasium all follow the same curriculum. The French lycée often assumes enormous proportions. In Germany every large town has several gymnasia, several *Realschulen*. Thus, Breslau, with 150,000 inhabitants, has three *Realschulen* and five gymnasia, so that the schools are of moderate size. Provision for lodging and boarding the pupils (the *internat*), which is the rule in France, is almost unknown in Germany, with the exception of a few old foundations, of which Schulpforta is by far the most famous. The specialization of teachers is not so marked in Germany as in France, where specialization has been developed by centralization. The French specialist is despatched by the central authority to any point where his services may be needed. The German teacher covers more ground, and M. Bréal thinks that the instruction is no less exact, no less profound. The gymnasium teacher works harder than a professor in a lycée. Even the highest of them think it nothing extraordinary to give from eighteen to twenty-two lessons a week, the lesson being some forty-five or fifty minutes. But then the gymnasium teacher is better paid; and, as M. Bréal naturally remarks, nothing costs more in the long run than an underpaid faculty. Secondary occupations ever multiply, and consume the time and the strength that are needed for the principal work.

In his chapter on classical studies in the gymnasium, M. Bréal notes especially the thorough drill in grammar, as, for instance, the varied practice in the Greek accidence with the good old fashion of head and foot, classically called *certatio;* and he expresses his amazement at the accuracy of the young students in Greek accentuation. In this respect the French boy is at a sad disadvantage, and, we might add, the English boy as well. The German learns accent by the ear, the French and English by the eye—which is, of course, a pure counter-sense. High praise is given by M. Bréal to the off-hand translations of German into Latin and Greek, but it seems that attempts to transplant the *extemporale* into France have failed. In order that the exercise should be thoroughly effective, the scholars must have had good preliminary training, and the teacher must be a master of the language that he teaches, so as to be ready for any emergency. Under these conditions extemporaneous translation into Latin and Greek is of the highest value. The works on Latin style used in German gymnasia are far superior to the French text-books on the same subject, but M. Bréal, who has found so many points of superiority in Germany, observes at least one in France: the French boy, it appears, far surpasses his German rival in Latin verse. Indeed, M. Bréal goes so far as to say that Latin verse-making has disappeared from the list of subjects taught in the German gymnasium, and it must be confessed by the most enthusiastic admirers of German training that the verses produced on festal occasions are mostly of very inferior workmanship, and that of late years Latin prose has been sinking to the level of Latin verse. Certainly Latin speaking has gone down very perceptibly in the last two or three decades, and it might seem safe to predict an utter extinction of the use of Latin as a vehicle for modern thought if it were not for the multiplication of philological literature in all manner of outlying languages. This will in all probability bring about a reaction, and it is to be hoped that Dutch scholars will continue to write readable Latin, and keep alive the secret of an art which is well-nigh lost.

In his chapter on the character of German teaching, M. Bréal makes a general observation, which is well worth considering in the development of our university life. In France, he says, one is rarely the pupil of a man: one is the pupil of the École Normale, of the École des Chartes, of the École Polytechnique. In Germany one is the pupil of Boeckh, of Hermann, of Ritschl, of Haupt. How is it to be in America? As yet our university life has not been fully developed. We are still in the college stadium, and we must still speak of Harvard, Yale, Princeton. But wherever a great master has arisen, and real university work has been done in this country, the man and not the school is recognized as the teacher. Thus we spoke of pupils of Agassiz; thus we are speaking of pupils of Sylvester. And this will be more and more the case as time goes on, for the type of our higher work is German, and not French, while the tendency of common-school education is rather to excessive centralization and mechanical subdivision, which, as we have seen, are apt to go together.

In commenting on the career of the great men who made German preëminence in the classics possible—Ernesti, Gesner, Heyne, and Wolf—M. Bréal stops to comment on the youth of these professors when they began their work. Wolf was but twenty-four when he took charge of instruction in ancient literature. In France no one can make a beginning as a lecturer until he is twenty-five; no one can become titular lecturer until he is thirty. Practically, matters are even worse than that. The lecturer must have passed his best years, his most fruitful years, in occupations of a different nature and of a different order; and yet one must be young to attract the young, to fire them with enthusiasm. True, youth is not simply a matter of years—it is often a matter of temperament; but the average teacher is himself kept alive by the vitality of his earlier training. The philological world will long mourn for Charles Graux, who died famous at an age when American scholars are scarcely out of their pupilage. The physiologists of England are plunged in grief for the untimely death of Balfour, and we picture to ourselves what these men would have become had they been spared. Perhaps as teachers they were at their best when they were taken, for every teacher of long experience can confirm the statement that the first fruits ripened by the heat of an unchilled enthusiasm are often the fairest of all. And so M. Bréal thinks. The French system assigns to the work of superior instruction men who are already fagged, men who have already given out the best that they have; a striking contrast to the universities of Switzerland, which seek men of rising reputation and give them up to other countries when they have become recognized celebrities.

The German teacher stands nearer to his pupils than are the French professors to theirs, and M. Bréal attributes this, in a measure, to the fact that the German student pays lecture-fees and the French student does not. There seems to be at first something crude in this way of putting it, but M. Bréal goes on to explain: the fee gives the students a right to the services of the professor; the French hearers seem to receive everything from the professor's condescension. Payment for lectures was instituted, not by reason of the professors, nor in their interest, but by reason of the students and in their favor. In America, a few institutions make the remuneration of each professor depend directly and in large measure on the fees paid by the students in his department; but the most important of these institutions, the University of Virginia, has abandoned the plan, and the fees are now merged in a common fund. The Scotch universities follow the German method, and, owing to the large number of students, the Scotch professorships are great prizes. The whole question is one of much complexity, and cannot be discussed in a running commentary on M. Bréal's book. It may be said, however, that if the professor is to receive the fees in his department, a reasonable counterbalance should be arranged in the way of salary. A professor of Hebrew is as necessary to the completeness of a university as a professor of French, and yet the remuneration might be glaringly unequal. The professor of Sanskrit at Edinburgh and the professor of botany—an obligatory medical study—must be in very different financial zones. It is not pleasant to remember that some of the most illustrious men in Europe, at the height of their renown, have had to give private lessons on very modest conditions—for example, the eminent scholar Bopp himself. As human nature is constituted, direct remuneration for direct exertion is stimulating, and until that principle is introduced, M. Bréal thinks that French professors will not exert themselves as do their German colleagues. But it must always be borne in mind that the German fees are low, and that the stimulus of a small increment to the regular income is sufficient to incite a salaried officer to a disproportionate amount of extra work. In closing his account of classic studies in Germany, M. Bréal notes, as every one must note, that mere erudition is far too dominant, and that certain literary qualities which are indispensable for good teachers of youth are kept down too much. "But for the development of special lines of work, for the awakening of the scientific spirit, these four years of university life are of inestimable value." The elevation of university instruction in Germany has had for its consequence the advance of secondary instruction, and so our French reformer desires to see the good work begin in the university life of France.

M. Bréal has much to say about the final examination of the gymnasium, the examination which tests the student's preparation for the university. Among the points in favor of the German method are the absence of cramming and the large share taken by the teachers of the gymnasium in the examination. The French baccalaureate degree is conferred upon the recommendation of outside judges, and the previous faithfulness of the candidate has no influence in determining the result. As for the prevention of cramming, that has been professedly the aim of all teachers, and various devices have been resorted to in order to counteract the

tendency—most of them with as little result as Count Rumford's scheme of leisurely mastication in the Bavarian Army. Some men—and those whose judgment is not least worthy of respect—have maintained that the dead strain of reading up for an examination is not a bad preparation for the work that is often to be done in life—the gathering up of all the faculties for a prolonged effort. To say that learning so acquired does not stick, is a feeble objection. Forgetting has its own use, and, in many things, to have learned how to learn is all that is needed.

A sketch of the origin, history, and constitution of the *Realschule* closes the section entitled "Un Voyage Scolaire en Allemagne," the only portion of the interesting volume that can be considered here. M. Bréal gives a very sad account of the state of things in Belgium, and his excursions in France, to which half the volume is given up, are full of severe criticisms, tempered, it is true, by warm commendations of individuals, and hearty recognition of reforms which have been introduced since these pedagogical rambles were undertaken. For the book, in its substance, is not of yesterday, and in this review only those points have been touched on which are of standing interest.

Records of Later Life. By Frances Ann Kemble. Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

MRS. KEMBLE has almost every gift as a correspondent that a letter-writer of the letter-writing sex can have—a simple, straightforward style; a love of detail, and a capacity for distinguishing between the interesting and the tedious in detail; a knowledge of character, the knack of telling a story, a keen sense of humor and sensitive imagination, and in everything perfect naturalness and freedom from affectation. Her letters present a most pleasing picture of her character, and she has shown a wonderful reserve in suppressing everything which might cause the least pain or even annoyance to persons whose names appear in her pages. Nothing could have been easier for her, with her wide acquaintance on both sides of the Atlantic, than to make her book a storehouse of doubtful gossip and amusing scandal; but with all her humor and love of anecdote, and knowledge of society, she has no malice, and of the many people who must have opened her book (as all such books are opened now) with dread, not one but must have given a sigh of relief in discovering that it is a collection of letters in which nothing that could wound or distress any one is printed.

Yet it is a book filled with "veracity." Mrs. Kemble, for instance, describes life as it existed in the United States forty or fifty years ago without touching up the picture at all; and that the facts which she records do not produce any sense of offence is due not merely to the fact that the American public is less sensitive to foreign criticism than it was, but to the tact and good temper which make it impossible to attribute what she says to a desire to blacken or ridicule. This part of her book, though it is a small part, has considerable value, as it reproduces in very vivid colors the impression made by American society and manners on the mind of a person born and brought up in an entirely European *milieu*, yet really desirous of finding good in everything American. It was a period when there was a vastly greater difference between the European and American way of looking at life and way of living than there is now, when we had no large cities, no wealthy and idle class, no society struggling to be as English as possible. We are not such good democrats as we were then, and if Mrs. Kemble were living in Lenox to-day, she would hardly be likely to record that one of her friends, the son of a much respected New England judge, himself the "owner of a beautiful farm adjoining," had been engaged in mowing her grass.

Turning to the English portion of the book, it is full of entertaining anecdote and criticism of persons more or less well known—Sydney Smith, Rogers, Macready, Rachel, Charles Greville, and a host of others. Some of these may be worth extracting. As to the effect produced by Macaulay's marvellous gift of discourse, she mentions him, while on a visit at the house of a friend, standing, whenever at any time during the day she happened to look into the drawing-room, "always in the same position on the hearth-rug, always talking, always answering everybody's questions about everything, always pouring forth eloquent knowledge; and I used to listen to him till I was breathless with what I thought ought to have been *his* exhaustion." She gives a very good picture of the despotic rule of Lady Holland at Holland House, and tells several stories of her manners which show what a mistake it is to think that having a "pleasant house" always depends on consideration for the feelings of the guests. On one occasion Mrs. Kemble's sister Adelaide was sitting near Lady Holland, when the latter dropped her handkerchief. "Reflecting," continues Mrs. Kemble, "upon her age and size, which made it difficult for her to stoop for it herself, my sister picked it up and presented it to her, when Lady Holland, taking it from her, merely said, 'Ah! I thought you'd do it.'" However, it was very much a case of give and take at Holland House, for we hear of Rogers sneering at his hostess's loss of hair, and causing an "exultant giggle" round the festive board. The manners of Holland House were not the manners of our day, or indeed any day, and it is as dangerous to make general inferences from the remarkable sayings and doings that went on in it as it is to make such inferences from the table-talk of Dr. Johnson as to the general condition of society in his time. Mrs. Kemble knew Sydney Smith very well, and manages in a page or two to give a good idea of the humorous drollery of his conversation, in which wit and humor certainly often received great aid from sheer nonsense. With Rogers she became in later years very intimate, and she used to read to him; in connection with this she mentions the curious fact that she never asked him what she should read without his putting into her hands his own poems, which always lay by him on the table—a trait which recalled to her recollection the fact that Rogers had once declared of Wordsworth that he (Wordsworth), in a visit to a friend's house, had been found daily in the library, but always with a volume of his own poetry in his hand.

Mrs. Kemble's connection with the theatrical and musical world is the source of a good many anecdotes. An encounter of wits between Madame de Metternich and Liszt is rather amusing. She patronized Thalberg, but, having invited them both to her house on one occasion, addressed to Liszt several impertinent questions about a professional visit he had been paying to Paris, winding up with: "Enfin, avez-vous fait de bonnes affaires là-bas?" To which he replied, "Pardon, Madame la Princesse, j'ai fait un peu de musique; je laisse les affaires aux banquiers et aux diplomates." Later in the evening she sneeringly complimented him on his freedom from jealousy of his rival, to which Liszt, who was very sallow, replied: "Mais, Madame la Princesse, je suis furieusement jaloux de Thalberg; regardez donc les jolies couleurs qu'il a!" The musical and dramatic criticism scattered through the book is all interesting, and the reader cannot help wondering, when he remembers Mrs. Kemble's great natural gifts, that she takes such an habitually external attitude toward the stage. Her criticism is acute and impartial; she has no illusions about the profession; she loves it, and is deeply interested in everything connected with it, yet she regards it as a career with something not far removed from loathing.

The correspondence, which is accompanied by a good deal of explanatory comment, makes a very charming addition to the literature of "reminiscences." It is impossible to read ten pages of it without perceiving that we are in the society of a superior mind and character. The letters have just that amount of personal interest which makes us feel that we are taken into the confidence of the writer, and for the time being are even enjoying her friendship.

The State in Relation to Labour. By Prof. W. Stanley Jevons, LL.D., F.R.S. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. Pp. 165.

No book could better illustrate the period of transition through which the study of political economy is passing than the one which lies before us. Its avowed purpose is to deal with the proper methods and limits of legislation in matters relating to labor. Had an English economist of thirty years ago been asked to write such a book, he would probably have replied: It is against accepted principles that lawmakers should interfere at all in matters of industry, and it would therefore be futile to spend time in considering the "proper methods and limits" of such interference. Indeed, the appearance of this little work upon the 'Relation of the State to Labor' is not only itself a contradiction of the claims of classical economy, but, coming as it does from a successful publishing house, shows that the English reading public is in some degree prepared for such a study. Professor Jevons takes it for granted that his readers will agree with him in denying the character of a principle to free competition. He conceives it to be a maxim, rather, or a general rule which may or may not apply to any specific case. He assumes, what is coming to be regarded as tenable ground, that free play of economic forces may effect evil as well as good, and where evil is observed to result this freedom should be curbed by the only agency capable of exercising that power—namely, the state.

That this correctly represents him may be learned from the first chapter of his book, which is devoted to a consideration of the principles of industrial legislation. The position assumed here is that there is no principle which may be followed in all cases. "The first step," says the author, "must be to rid our minds of the idea that there are any such things in social matters as abstract rights, absolute principles, indefeasible laws, unalterable rules, or anything whatever of an external or inflexible nature." If one ask what criterion then remains for judging of industrial legislation, the reply is, that the legislator is thrown back upon his sense of what is appropriate in specific cases. The rule is, *Salus populi, suprema lex*, and there can be no logic machine for its application. In another place we read:

> "No laws, no customs, no rights of property, are so sacred that they may not be made away with, if it can be clearly shown that they stand in the way of the greatest happiness. . . . I conceive that the state is justified in passing any law, or in doing any single act which, without ulterior consequences, adds to the sum total of happiness. Good done is sufficient justification of any act, in the absence of evidence that equal or greater evil will subsequently follow."

What then becomes of our liberty?

"The liberty of the subject," says Professor Jevons, "is only the means toward the end; it is not the end itself; hence, when it fails to pro-

duce the desired end, it may be set aside and other means employed." (Pp. 12, 13.)

It is from this standpoint—that laws are to be judged by what they effect, and not by any principle they involve, that "restrictions on industry are not good nor bad *per se*," but according as they are imposed wisely or foolishly—that the author proceeds in his study. In this light he considers the Factory Acts, Trades-Union Legislation, The Law of Industrial Conspiracy, Coöperation, and Arbitration.

Of these questions, perhaps the most pertinent is that of the law of industrial conspiracy. This is usually discussed from the standpoint of workmen only, but Professor Jevons shows his appreciation of its extent by treating it in a manner equally applicable to a conspiracy of railroad magnates. Any one acquainted with the history of this question will remember that in the early part of this century combination among workmen to enforce any demand was characterized as conspiracy, and punished as such. These laws, however, have been repealed, and many appear to regard this repeal as furnishing license to unlimited "boycotting." What is now the legal status of a combination among men to effect, in the course of business, that which no one of them alone could accomplish? To arrive at just conclusions respecting this question, one must recognize the fact that the common law, as well as the great majority of legal enactments, rests on the assumption that "individuals will act as individuals, pursuing independent and usual courses of action." "The essence of illegality," says our author in another place, "is injury to other people." If, then, the entirety of a country's laws be drawn upon the supposition that men will act for and by themselves, and if men refuse so to act, but organize and in a body enforce their demands to the detriment of the body politic, there is nothing in the repeal of the Conspiracy Acts which would forbid our calling such acts illegal. The common law still remains. The maxim of McCulloch, that "a criminal act cannot be generated by the mere multiplication of acts that are perfectly innocent," does not here apply, for the simple act of a single person changes its character when becoming the act of a thousand persons organized for carrying through a definite purpose.

We cannot speak further in detail of the various questions treated. The author endeavors to preserve impartiality, but it is doubtful if he will give satisfaction either to interested parties or to publicists. The book itself is somewhat fragmentary and ill-jointed, and does not indicate that grasp of thought or depth of feeling which a consideration of this, the most important of the permanent questions now before the world, calls for. Highly as we esteem Professor Jevons for work done in the past, we cannot refrain from saying that in this treatise he fails from the outset to discern the true meaning of legislative interference. The question is, Why should the state interfere in matters of industry? The answer does not consist in an array of individual cases of misfortune or suffering, as, for example, a workman torn by an unprotected fly-wheel, children working through their tender years, or a set of laborers threatening and coercing their fellow-laborers. These are answers, but not the answer. The answer, which comprehends in itself all cases, is that under the unrestricted play of economic forces, the worst possible, not the best possible, form of industrial society comes to exist. The moral tone imparted to it is that of the worst and not of the best competing elements. The state, therefore, should interfere, in order to raise the plane upon which competition may take place, and render it possible for the moral standards of the better competing elements to realize themselves. Thus, for an example, suppose, in the absence of Factory Acts, ten manufacturers competing for the supply of a market. Nine of these would not wish, could they control affairs, to weave into their fabrics the lives of helpless children, but the moral sense of the tenth is indifferent to the rights of childhood. This tenth man has it in his power to force the nine down to his conscienceless level, or drive them out of the market. Thus the worst possible business tone is realized, though the good is to the evil as nine to one. The state must step in and raise the plane of competition, saying to the few, You must do business as the better elements of society wish it done. Judicious state interference, then, is defensible, because it conserves all the benefits, while permitting none of the evils, which arise from free competition among men of different moral calibre. A book upon the subject of industrial legislation which does not point out this fact appears to us to be incomplete.

It must be a source of satisfaction to those who admire Professor Jevons—and the writer is of that number—that his reputation, now that unhappily he has been taken from us, will not rest upon the merits of this book, which was doubtless prepared hastily and for general reading. There are other works from his pen which exhibit, as this does not, his acuteness and indeed brilliancy of thought. Perhaps nothing has appeared in England since the day of John Stuart Mill which may be ranked in economic literature by the side of Professor Jevons's 'Theory of Political Economy.' This book, it is true, contains but the outline of a theory, but it is a theory which, worked out, will greatly influence industrial thought. Indeed, there could be no more fitting memorial to a scholarly life prematurely cut off than a full development of the suggestions found in the chapters upon Utility, Labor, and Capital.

A Holiday in South Africa. By R. W. Leyland. With maps and illustrations. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 1882. Pp. viii.-362. 8vo.

Mr. Leyland's holiday lasted a little more than three months, during which time, by dint of hard travelling, he was able to pass through a large part of the settled country lying to the north of the Cape. It is hard to conceive, however, of a region less fitted for a mere pleasure excursion than this. Rough roads, execrable food and lodgings the rule even in the larger towns, long stretches of sandy plain uninhabited by man or beast, would seem to offer few attractions for the holiday-seeker, intent on neither business nor sport. Occasionally there are to be found bits of picturesque scenery, and here and there a pretty village with trees, gardens, and running streams, but these are the rare exceptions. Our author's route into the interior was by steamer to Port Elizabeth, "the Liverpool of South Africa," and thence due north by rail and coach. Near this place is one of the largest ostrich farms in the colony, two thousand acres being laid out in "breeding camps," in which are about two hundred birds. Of this industry, which "seems likely to make more radical changes in the pastoral and commercial features of the country than any other discovery or innovation that has been made since the Cape was first discovered, with the exception of the opening up of the diamond-fields in 1867," the author gives many interesting particulars. The average price of a pair of good breeding birds is $750, though there are some which "would be vastly more expensive to buy," as they bring to their owners an annual revenue of over $2,000, "through the number of eggs they produce and by the sale of their feathers." On this farm the eggs are hatched by incubators, and the chickens, when only three days old, are sold for $25 a piece.

Kimberley, the principal town of the diamond fields, proved very unattractive. "Diamonds, Drink, and Dirt appeared to be the chief characteristics of the place," and accordingly Mr. Leyland hastened to leave it. A three-days' and three-nights' ride by stage, during a part of which it was impossible to get food, as the route was new, brought Mr. Leyland to Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal. "A comparatively small number of houses, and a large number of gardens bordered by hedgerows of roses in luxuriant profusion, oleanders, and willow-trees, gave the town a charming appearance when first seen; and the agreeable impression was materially strengthened by a further acquaintance with the place and its inhabitants." Though he details at some length the causes which led to the annexation of the Transvaal, yet he makes no allusion to the revolt of the Boers, which broke out shortly after his visit. This is the more strange as he refers to a "very interesting conversation" which he had with the Governor on "the condition and prospects of the Transvaal," in which he reports that this functionary "did not appear to attach much importance to the present attitude of the Boers. He regarded their mutterings and threatenings as so much vaporing, which would probably soon die out." Were it not that in describing a steep mountain-pass on the borders of Natal he says, "Though not intimated to me at the time, I presume the portion of the road to be Laing's Nek," we should imagine him to be in entire ignorance of the events which doubtless every Englishman would be glad to forget.

The most interesting part of the book is the account of a visit to Rorke's Drift, where was the hospital and supply camp so heroically defended by a hundred British soldiers during the afternoon and night succeeding the massacre of Isandhlwana. Sheltered behind walls of biscuit-boxes and meal bags, they successfully resisted for twelve hours the attacks of an enemy thirty times their number. Isandhlwana, about ten miles distant, and now the site of a mission station, was still thickly strewn with evidences of the slaughter of the English troops. On his return to Cape Town, Mr. Leyland was enabled, through the assistance of Bishop Colenso, to see Ketchwayo. Among other questions, he asked him, "'Why, when Natal was at your mercy, after the battle of Isandhlwana, did you not overrun the colony?' 'Because I had no desire to fight the English,' replied the King. 'I wished to act on the defensive only, all through, not on the offensive. I was extremely angry with my people for crossing the river to Rorke's Drift house after the battle.'" Considerable space is given to a refutation of the charges of cruelty and hostile intent made by Sir Bartle Frere against the Zulu King; but so little literary skill has been employed in arranging the materials at the author's disposal, that it is well-nigh unintelligible. It seems very clear from his statements, however, that it was a great mistake to hold Ketchwayo a captive. Deprived of their leader, whom they trusted and implicitly obeyed, the Zulus were at that time demoralized to an extent which threatened their destruction by famine and misrule. Very touching are the expressions of love for the King by some of his chiefs given in these pages: "There has never been known one like him among us Zulus before—so good, so kind, so merciful." "Then my prayer was that I might be with him—that, wherever they took him to, I might go and be killed, if he was killed, by the same death with which they killed him. And that is my prayer

still. And, truly, without him, we have no wish to remain above ground." The English Government were finally convinced of the wisdom of restoring the King to his people. First, however, he must be taken to England to see for himself the power of the nation against whom he was presumptuous enough to fight, and even to win a battle. This visit would hardly seem to have been necessary, judging from the following anecdote: A telephone had been put in operation between two places near the Zulu frontier. "When shown to the Zulu chief Usbebo, some short time since, who, of course, could not understand it, he made use of the expression, common among natives, 'Death alone is the white man's conqueror.'"

Beauty in the Household. By Mrs. T. W. Dewing. Harper & Bros. 1882.

THIS little book is not one of which we can speak in terms of commendation. The authoress treats the subject of beauty in the household wholly as if it were a matter of merely external form. Considered in this way, the subject can never, we think, be rightly understood or usefully treated. The pursuit of beauty, as thus understood, inevitably leads to meaningless fancies and ridiculous pretensions. Beauty in the household, as everywhere else, is essentially and strictly an outgrowth and expression of beautiful conditions of life and feeling—not at all a matter of mere external form. That education of the feelings which makes people appreciative of beauty, and capable of producing what is beautiful in their surroundings, is not to be obtained from books of this character, nor through the productions of sophisticated æsthetic movements, but rather by cultivating habits of simple integrity and good sense, and through familiarity with the beauty of nature and of those works of art which are the outcome of true and disciplined feeling. Not clearly and practically recognizing these facts, Mrs. Dewing has—as, indeed, have most other recent writers on household taste—given her book largely the form of a series of mere directions for furnishing and adorning apartments. But such directions must always be useless, since taste is a matter of individual cultivation.

The sentiments of the chapter on small apartments we regard as of decidedly pernicious character, tending as they do to exclude from home life all those humbler domestic employments upon which, in our view, the higher accomplishments should rest as on their proper foundation. Mrs. Dewing would have persons of moderate means relegate the family cooking and washing to the public caterer and laundry. After setting forth the supposed advantages of this arrangement, she exclaims: "How many a woman who now patiently devotes her life to the merely sordid realisms, would feel like a released prisoner under such a system!" The prisoner thus released, both from actual domestic usefulness and even from superintendence of domestic affairs, she would have occupy herself only "with the more ornamental portions of life." We cannot imagine a more unwholesome doctrine of domestic economy than this, nor one more sure to quench, and render for ever impossible, all right and healthful sense of beauty, and all beauty itself in the household. The state of mind, as regards beauty, which such a system engenders is precisely that which "Patience" so keenly satirizes, and which we had hoped it might tend to cure. The fact is, that by far the larger part of what is known as the æsthetic movement, both in England and in this country, is essentially of this quality; and on this account contains nothing to recommend it seriously, and no element of permanence. The forms of so-called decorative art which it produces will be pleasing only as the fashions of the moment, and will soon be thrown aside in their turn like other mere fashions.

Of the illustrations to the book, nothing better can be said. There is not a good line or a good form in one of them. Take the proportions and treatment of the frontispiece—a "Mantel for Nursery"—the design for a glass panel facing page 16, the designs for bas-reliefs facing page 22, the "Tile for a Nursery" on page 157, and others. In no case are those qualities upon which the grace and beauty of a natural object depend laid hold of. In the design for a "Pattern for Cushions for Drawing-room," page 111, for instance, the swan's wing is utterly unorganized. The plumes have no functional arrangement, no power of united action, no elastic grace of curvature, and consequently the wing has no beauty. These qualities are precisely among those which lend themselves to decorative uses, and they are those which all good designers are quick to seize. A comparison of this drawing with any design of a bird's wing on the cheapest Japanese fan will make our meaning clear. It would be a vast gain to the growth of taste, and to all forms of art among us, if the present ambition to write books on æsthetics, and to produce decorative art, might, in some greater measure, give place to more of serious and modest study of nature and standard art, as a means of cultivation and for the sake of cultivation.

La Poésie Alexandrine sous les trois premiers Ptolémées (324-222 B.C.). Par Auguste Conat, Doyen de la Faculté des Lettres de Bordeaux. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1882.

THE Alexandrian school of poetry, clearly defined as it was in its aims, manner, and even diction—enclosed, too, within a tolerably defined period, which may be stated roughly as from 340 to 200 B.C.—has hitherto found no adequate expositor in any modern language except German. Even in German, no work, so far as we know, deals with this part of Greek literature exclusively, though it is well handled by Bernhardy in his History, and not badly by Donaldson in his continuation of Müller's well-known manual. M. Conat has thus undertaken a task which needed doing, and, on the whole, he has done his task well, even if many points in his book are open to criticism and many grave omissions mar its completeness.

It is natural that the author of a work on Catullus (1875) should be led to the study of the Alexandrian poets. Little as that poetry can be taken as a gauge of the splendid inspiration of the Roman lyrist, and false as is the language of some critics who, on the strength of a splenetic passage of Cicero's letters, rank Catullus as one of the "chanters of Euphorion," it is nevertheless true that in form of every kind—not metrical only, but throughout—in a finish of detail which could not be contented with anything rough, and hated prolixity as the sin of sins, the Alexandrians were the models by the close study of which the Romans, only after a long struggle with the difficulties of their language and the hard and unyielding temper of their national genius, at last emerged to a really great literature. This it is which makes these poets so important in the history of literary development. Callimachus and Apollonius of Rhodes were, as compared with the great names of Greek literature, very minor geniuses indeed; but Callimachus was the model of Catullus, of Propertius, of Ovid; Apollonius, more than any single author it would be possible to mention, moulded the diction and the cast of thought of the 'Æneid.'

M. Conat begins with an Introduction on the foundation of Alexandria, and the Museum and Library, which under the patronage of the Ptolemies became the most celebrated in the world. It is an indication of the peculiar lines which Alexandrian literature followed, that its most typical representatives in poetry were successively librarians in the Museum. Callimachus and Apollonius, master and pupil, rivals in poetry—and jealous rivals—each died holding the librarianship. Erudition was, in fact, at this time an indispensable qualification for poetical success. The poet was, as a rule, also a voluminous author in prose. We learn this from Suidas, but it is quite palpable in the remains of either poet. As M. Conat shows, the Hymns of Callimachus are stuffed with learning; the most recondite stories connected with the cult he celebrates are brought in to set off the power of the god. The "Argonautica" of Apollonius are obviously written partly with the archæological object of recording the local legends associated with the northern coast of Asia Minor, along which the *Argo* sailed; and the nearest approach to simplicity to be found in the poems is the directness with which he adds, at the end of each such legend: "Whence to the present day a custom still exists." This, by the way, was no doubt one cause of his popularity, as it certainly is one cause of the occasional tediousness which at the present day readers of this undeniably fine poem—among them M. Conat—confess to experiencing.

The second chapter of the Introduction examines the chronology of the chief Alexandrians, who are arranged in the following order: Philetas (340-285), Hermesianax, Zenodotus, Theocritus, Aratus, Callimachus, Eratosthenes, Apollonius, Aristophanes, Aristarchus (217-145). Whatever doubts may occur to the reader in perusing this chapter—and if he has read Ritschl's essay on the subject, they will—it would be unfair to deny that the author is independent enough and forms his conclusions on arguments of his own. And this is true throughout. M. Conat is nowhere merely the exponent of the views of others; even Schneider, to whose dull erudition and often perverted judgment, if to any one, he is disposed to bow, is sometimes criticised severely, though we hold our author, on the whole, to be far too deferential to this particular scholar, and, as a corollary thereto, far too little inclined to give due consideration to others as great, if not greater, in erudition, and in judgment incomparably superior—such men, *e. g.*, as Näke, Hecker, and Meineke. There is more of substantial worth in one page of Meineke's 'Analecta Alexandrina'—an admirable work, which philologists would do well to read over and over again—than in six of Schneider's verbose and windy 'Callimachea,' with its conjectural stitchings of scattered fragments and its miserable *supplementa*, recalling an extinct period of philology.

The bulk of M. Conat's volume is divided into five books, discussing severally the Alexandrian elegy as represented by Philetas, Hermesianax, Phanocles, Alexander Aetolus, and, lastly, Callimachus; the hymns of Callimachus (191-291); the epics of Apollonius and Rhianus, and the epyllion "Hecale" (294-390); the pastorals of Theocritus (391-444); the didactic poems of Aratus and Eratosthenes. A chapter on the literary quarrel of Callimachus and Apollonius, which produced the 'Ibis' of the former poet, concludes the volume. We have learnt a great deal from all these chapters, and they are written in a sufficiently good style to interest more than the special student. It is, however, only fair to say that the author is unduly biassed in some particular directions, notably in favor of Callimachus against Apollonius. This, indeed, is

quite patent from the disproportionate space assigned to each, but it betrays itself unequivocally in the criticism of the "Argonautica." This poem contains four books, averaging 1,500 or 1,600 lines each. The language is terse and condensed; the pathos of the Medea episode is great, far beyond Catullus's "Ariadne," approaching the tragic heights of Euripides and Virgil; the metre is elaborately varied with all the artifice of the school, whose efforts had, as M. Conat excellently shows, concentrated themselves particularly on the hexameter; the incidents follow each other with remarkable rapidity; and the total effect is always pleasing, and sometimes profoundly moving. Yet M. Conat can talk of this *chef-d'œuvre* of Alexandrianism as a "vaste récit," and declares that some of its most interesting episodes may be removed without seriously affecting either the poet or the reader. In the same spirit, he devotes many pages to the reconstruction not only of the "Αἰτια" and "Hecale" of Callimachus (of which only some fragments remain), but of the highly unimportant "Messeniaca" of Rhianus, which he assumes to be practically identical with the account of Pausanias of the second Messenian war. Surely this is mere wilfulness, and wilfulness of a very provoking kind. To turn from the rich banquet of Theocritus and Apollonius to the crumbs of Callimachean and Rhianic fragments; to exhaust ingenuity in conjecturing what a dull but lost poem *may* have been, instead of analyzing what a great but extant poem really *is*, is no healthy sign of philological activity, or rather, it is a sign of the inordinate influence of Germany—of that restless, speculative spirit which delights in impalpable food, and in that combination of the fragment of fact with the vast superstructure of hypothesis which produces so endless and so resultless a literature. How thankfully would we accept from M. Conat, in place of these unsubstantial possibilities, a single well-considered chapter on Lycophron. Of him and of his "Alexandra," a unique phenomenon in the literature of Greece and Rome, not one word. And yet the poem and the scholia which elucidate its "deep and dreadful night"—for surely even India cannot surpass the profundity of its obscurity—contain a fund of mythological, and even historical, allusion unsurpassed by any poem of antiquity. Moreover, it has been excellently edited, and it raises critical problems of the greatest interest. If our author would make his valuable labors complete, we would suggest to him a careful study of this. No task could be a better training in Greek, and it is a task which the tyros in this literature have a right to claim from their instructors.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 5, 1882.

The Week.

HUBBELL'S campaign text-book appears to surpass in absurdity all the other productions of his pen, and is very abusive, and in fact vituperative, of all Republicans who do not agree with him about free trade and political assessments. He singles Mr. G. W. Curtis out for such epithets as "bulldozer," "wilful libeller," "hypocrite," "ballot-box stuffer," and friend of "the Southern oligarchy," "Joseph Surface," "Bois-Guilbert," and "Front de Boeuf," and classes free trade with slavery and secession, denounces all civil-service reformers as "noodles," and ascribes the passage of the act forbidding assessments to a conspiracy of Confederate brigadiers. The fact that this amazing stuff is issued ostensibly by the Congressional Committee, makes it imperative, we think, on all Independent and Civil-Service Reform organizations to send it or extracts from it to all candidates for Congress, and ask them whether they approve of the volume, and whether they are prepared to justify the use of assessments levied on clerks for printing it. Categorical answers to these questions ought to be promptly obtained before the election, for it is quite certain that any one who is prepared to stand by Hubbell in this little publishing enterprise is not fit to sit in any legislative assembly—certainly not as a Republican.

The Albany *Evening Journal* says that "a coterie of small men, with mental horizon not wider than the field of ward primaries, and impudent ambitions as broad as the possibilities of the purse, have usurped the management of the party in this State," and that "their effrontery, their unscrupulousness, their selfishness disgust all thinking men, and their leadership deters thousands on thousands of young men from joining the Republican party." This is all true; but the *Journal* would have added to the effect of it if it had given even a partial list of the statesmen in this city with and through whom mainly the President acts when he tries to influence nominations and elections in this State. We place apart, as *facile princeps*, John F. Smyth, whose son received a paymastership in the Army the other day, from civil life—as a special mark of Presidential favor and friendship, we presume, for the father. The others are Tom Platt, Clint Wheeler, Steve French, Jake Patterson, Barney Biglin, Mike Cregan, Bob McCord, Jakey Worth, Jake Hess, and Mike Dady.

The present canvass, odd as it is in many of its features, has called forth nothing more grotesque than the suggestion of Mr. John F. Smyth, the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, at the conference of the Administration Republicans at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on Monday, that the difficulties of the hour should be met by "an active stump canvass with such men as George William Curtis and W. M. Evarts as speakers." Smyth, we believe, is a Scotchman and not given to joking, but there must have been a twinkle in his eye when he pictured Mr. Curtis stumping the State, under his (Smyth's) direction, in behalf of the Machine ticket, and elucidating the civil-service reform and anti-monopoly planks in the platform.

On Tuesday he appears to have touched the joke up a little, as most great humorists feel at liberty to do—Sheridan, for instance, carefully elaborated all his best jokes—by proposing Mr. Curtis as Congressman-at-large on the same ticket, vice Hepburn declined in disgust. But even as it stood, with this addition, the joke was really far better than Smyth thought it was, for while he was humorously preparing Mr. Curtis for the stump, Mr. Curtis was writing an indignant letter repudiating an article in *Harper's Weekly* which endorsed the ticket, and announcing his own intention to vote against it, as "the only effectual way of overthrowing the corrupt and debasing rule of a Machine." This article was one which Smyth had had struck off and distributed at the door to the Young Republicans in Brooklyn at their meeting last week, by way of warning against "the designing men" who have been leading them astray, of course in the belief that it was Mr. Curtis's. Now that it has come out that Mr. Curtis did not write it, and regrets its appearance, Mr. Smyth must really feel that, when he announced Mr. Curtis as one of his probable stumpers, he "builded better than he knew," as a humorist. He was laying the foundation-stones of an immense Scottish joke, with wings and towers and a Mansard roof, and curious winding passages leading to little secluded chambers filled with laughter.

The public will hardly appreciate as they should the quality of the performance involved in the election of Mr. Smyth as Chairman of the Republican State Committee without recalling the facts of his remarkable political career, and particularly the manner in which he came to grief in 1880, while Superintendent of the Insurance Department. He narrowly escaped conviction on impeachment during his first term. When it expired, therefore, people were amazed to see Governor Cornell nominate him for a second; but this was too much for the Senate, particularly as he (Smyth) had just been enraging the local Republicans by a peculiarly audacious (even for him) attempt to "fix primaries" by issuing a call late in the evening for a meeting the next day at noon, so that none but his own confederates would receive it in time. His name accordingly had to be withdrawn, and it was freely charged against the Governor that he had sent it in mainly to give Smyth an opportunity to replenish the Machine chest for the coming campaign by extorting money from the insurance companies. Smyth held over, of course, pending another nomination, and, nothing daunted, he sought to improve the time by calling on three of the leading insurance companies of this city to submit to an "examination" of their assets (a process which in the ordinary course of things would have taken months), but informed them significantly that if they retained Mr. Chester A. Arthur's law firm as "counsel," and employed Mr. William A. Laimbeer and Mr. G. H. Henry, two of Smyth's henchmen, as "valuators," the report of these gentlemen would be accepted by him "as correct." What this meant may be inferred from the fact that "Tom" Murphy, when employed as a "valuator" the previous year, under similar circumstances, had sent in a bill, which the State Comptroller refused to pass, on a scale which would have given Laimbeer $186,000 for "valuing" the assets of the Mutual Insurance Company alone. The insurance companies, to their honor, resisted, and refused to have their assets "valued" by any such persons, and their correspondence with Smyth, which was printed by order of the Legislature, was one of the most instructive bits of reading of the Grant "boom" in 1880. Mr. Arthur's firm, too, repudiated complicity with Smyth.

It is pleasant and hope-inspiring to see the gloomy view that ex-Senator Theodore M. Pomeroy, of Auburn, takes of the Republican field on account of the low moral tone of the Saratoga Convention, considering the part he played in saving John F. Smyth, the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, from punishment in 1880. Smyth was then impeached for malfeasance in office on charges which it seemed impossible to gainsay, and of the truth of which Senator Pomeroy was at first convinced, and his vote for conviction was confidently relied on. But he suddenly changed his mind. The result was that Smyth got off. Had he been convicted and removed from office it would undoubtedly have put an end to his political activity, and we should not now have the shame of seeing him elected Chairman of the Republican State Committee, as a piece of the preparation—heaven save the mark!—for the conflict of 1884. However, it shows how true is the saying of the poet that

> "Men may rise on stepping-stones
> Of their dead selves to higher things"

when we find Mr. Pomeroy exclaiming:

> "Look at John F. Smyth and B. Platt Carpenter. What kind of men are they to inspire confidence? They are regarded in the country as the representatives of everything in politics that is mean and detestable. Their very names are laughed at, when mentioned politically, even by their own side, and yet here are these two unpopular men at the head of the whole business, instead of being at the tail or out of sight altogether."

The Massachusetts Prohibitionists have just held a Convention, to which resolutions were submitted on Thursday condemning the license system, and asking for a constitutional amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors. The passionate enthusiasm with which the Prohibitionists devote themselves to the pursuit of prohibitory legislation, and the indifference with which they treat the question of enforcing it

after it has been enacted—which experience has shown is the chief difficulty of all attempts to put down drinking by law—is a very singular phenomenon. We believe it is strictly true that out of every three men who vote for a prohibitory law, or a constitutional amendment, two will do nothing to execute it, and laugh over evasions of it. The result is that wherever such a law exists it is openly and shamelessly disregarded in the very places in which there is most abuse of alcoholic drinks. Now, what does this prove? Simply that public opinion is not ready for prohibition in any country in the world, and that until it is ready prohibitory legislation will be mere child's play and worse. It follows, therefore, that Prohibitionists are still far from being ready to ask for legislation. Their business, if they have any, still is to operate on public sentiment. They have got enough converts to procure legislation in some places, but even in those places it would be wise not to ask for it until they get enough converts to put breakers of the law in the category of thieves and gamblers.

The application for a habeas corpus in the case of Mason, the sergeant who shot at Guiteau, was denied on Monday in the United States Circuit Court at Utica, by Judges Wallace and Coxe. General Bigelow, for Mason, contended that General Swaim as Judge-Advocate-General had reviewed or reversed the findings of the court-martial, but Judge Wallace observed that this was an impossibility, as Congress could not have intended that a mere staff officer should have power to reverse the sentence of a military court approved by the Department Commander. It would not be possible for anybody but General Swaim to think anything of the kind either, but he thinks in a way of his own. As he has declared that Mason is not guilty of an attempt to kill Guiteau because the latter was not in the line of his fire, or, in other words, because he did not succeed, there is no saying why he should not believe anything that he may think it convenient to believe about his own powers.

A very encouraging account is given of the operation of the new tax law of Vermont, which, in imitation of the Massachusetts statutes, requires appraisal at a full cash valuation and compels the taxpayer to declare his property on oath, under a penalty of double taxation if he fails to do so. Since the passage of the law, real estate has come up on the tax books from $71,000,000 to $106,000,000, and personal property has risen from $15,000,000 to nearly $47,000,000. If these figures represented an actual increase of wealth, of course everybody would rejoice at the prosperity of Vermont, and all other States would do well to copy the law at once and get rich; but the fact is that the increase of real estate is nominal, and is caused by appraising it at its full instead of a nominal value; while the increase of personal property is merely a disclosure of wealth which previously existed. There is no sort of doubt that such a law will make a taxpayer show his hand, but it is an irritating law, and some of the rich men of the State propose to contest its constitutionality. Curiously enough, they have the rather important support of the Chief Justice of the State, who has refused to comply with the law. The reformers are now going to work to get him off the bench, and this would seem to be very necessary for their purpose.

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, which in its day has done as much to protect the rights of corporations as any court in the country, on Monday rendered a decision of considerable interest to passengers. The case arose out of an attempt on the part of the Pennsylvania Railroad to break up the sale of tickets by unauthorized agents. The Legislature of the State passed a law in 1868 making it the duty of every railroad company to provide its ticket-agents with certificates of authority duly signed and sealed, and making it a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment, for any one not possessed of such authority to sell tickets at all. In the case just decided, a passenger bought a ticket from an unauthorized agent, and the company refused to recognize his right to use it in Pennsylvania, on the ground that it was sold in violation of the law of the State. The ticket was sold in New York, where the criminal laws of Pennsylvania are not in force. But it was contended by the company that the Pennsylvania courts could not enforce a contract arising out of a transaction which the Legislature had declared criminal. The Court, however, took the view that the passenger was not affected by the seller's act in any way; he bought what was on its face a perfectly good ticket, and he was not bound to inquire into the authority of the agent. His act, says the Court gravely, "had no savor of illegality or immorality. It was a mere purchase of the obligation of a common carrier to carry the holder according to its terms."

The singular thing about the case is not the decision, but that the right to use the ticket should have been contested by the railroad company at all. A decision that a passenger is bound to ascertain whether a ticket-agent has authority, under the laws of the State which charters the company, to sell tickets, would involve the most monstrous consequences. A passenger, before taking a railroad journey, would first have to consult a lawyer as to the nature of the authority required by the local statute; and would then have to ascertain, as a fact, whether the agent offering him a ticket possessed it. Not only would this be a serious inconvenience to travellers, but it is hard to see how it could possibly be for the interest of railroads, as the embarrassments it would create in the purchase of tickets would necessarily diminish the volume of travel. With the eternal quarrel between railroads and "scalpers" passengers have nothing to do. A corporation like the Pennsylvania Railroad must protect itself against loss through "scalping" by the ample punishment for the crime which the laws of the State seem to provide for the scalper himself; and an attempt to break up the business by repudiating its contracts with passengers is almost grotesque. With a community as continually occupied in travelling as ours, the easy purchase and sale of railroad tickets are matters of necessity, and the one thing that would do more injury to railroads than any other would be the creation of a feeling of doubt in the minds of the public as to whether tickets good on their face were valid or not. Putting a passenger on his inquiry at every point, and surrounding the authority to sell with uncertainty, would in its way be followed by consequences something like what would follow the passage of laws putting the purchaser of an apparently good promissory note on his inquiry as to the circumstances under which it was made and put in circulation, and holding him responsible in case there was anything wrong.

The Supreme Court of Connecticut has decided that women may be admitted to the bar of that State, taking a different view of the rules of interpretation to be applied to the question from that adopted by the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. The Connecticut judges rely a good deal on the fact that women are appointed to the charge of post-offices under the laws of the United States, although the word descriptive of their office is "postmaster." On the whole, women are making some progress in breaking down the barriers which exclude them from practice, but we believe the opening made for them in two or three States has brought few into actual jury practice. One of the common arguments against women-lawyers is the dangerous effect that they might have as women in biassing and clouding the intellects of juries and witnesses and even judges. But the fact seems to be that women who have great skill in thus affecting the masculine mind do not practise law, but confine their exertions to domestic life, and the few women who appear in court do little to strengthen the argument. At any rate, the evil cannot yet be said to be a crying one.

The public debt was reduced during the month of September by $14,805,948, making the total decrease since June 30 $44,794,238. During the week the Treasury payments were heavy, and were sufficient to strengthen the reserves of the New York banks to a moderate extent. The prepayment of called bonds not having been as rapid as was expected, the stock-jobbers took hold of the money market late in the week and advanced the rate for call loans, which had been 7@9 per cent., to 20 per cent. This rate was only maintained for a short time, but was sufficient, with other influences at work, to help to demoralize the stock market. The decline in stocks during the week ranged from 2 to 16¾ points, the latter having been in the Louisville and Nashville stock, the finances of which company were found to be in a surprisingly unsatisfactory condition. The break-down in this stock helped to depress the whole market, which, however, closed at some recovery. Railroad earnings continue large, and the outlook for the winter's business is good. The foreign exchange market was very weak throughout, and rates for bills on London fell to within 2 cents to the pound sterling of the rate at which gold coin can be imported. This decline was due to the increased exports, particularly of

cotton; to the shipment of railroad securities, chiefly to London, and to the high rate for money here, which induced practical transfers from the markets where it is cheaper. It is expected that the Bank of England will again advance its discount rate, now 5 per cent., to prevent, if possible, the shipment of gold to New York.

The movement in England for an improvement in dramatic education seems to have come to a standstill, not owing to any want of enthusiasm, but from the difficulty of securing an efficient corps of instructors. There is in France a class of competent actors, well on in years, but out of engagements, which is drawn upon for this purpose; but in England this class does not seem to exist. Most leading actors in England and America are self-made; and no one who has listened with care to the most eminent tragedians and comedians of our time can have helped observing that many of the most distinguished among them do not merely lack dramatic education, but instruction of a more elementary kind. We frequently meet, at least on the New York stage, with actors of great histrionic powers who use their own language, to say nothing of the French expressions with which they are so frequently called upon to struggle, in an extremely original manner; but we are bound to say that as a rule these blemishes attract but slight attention from the audience, and as long as this is the case, it is hardly reasonable to expect much improvement. Still, we must say that in the present condition of the drama in this country, grammar and pronunciation are what need reform quite as much as elocution and gesticulation. Mr. Boucicault's attention does not seem to have been called to this.

The National Liberal League had a meeting on Monday, and its Secretary, Mr. Leland, read a report detailing the progress of the Liberal movement in its various endeavors. The League transacted some important business in adopting a new calendar as a substitute for that now in use, with the year 1600 B. C. as the starting point. For the letters A. D. the letters E. M. are to be used, meaning Era of Man. This action seems to be hasty; for, however poor an opinion he may have of Christianity, even a Liberal must admit that, if the performances of the human race are to be taken as a basis for the new calendar, man had not distinguished himself in the year 1600 B. C. nearly as much as he had at the opening of the Christian era. And as every Liberal must believe in continuous human progress, even by 1600 A. D. man had not reached the proud position he occupies in the current year. Indeed, there can be no point at which the Era of Man can be said to begin, unless it is when our primeval ancestor parted company with his simian congeners and set up for himself as a human being. The difficulty about this as a starting point is that it was before historical times, and the precise year in which it took place has not as yet been ascertained. But since that time, whenever it was, there has been continuous progress year by year and month by month, and therefore, while it is perfectly fair for Christians to maintain a calendar based on what they believe to be an important religious date, no Liberal without unfairness to Man can possibly have the right to fix upon an arbitrary date and assume that as the starting point of progress; and Liberals, of all people, ought to remember that Man's unfairness to Man makes countless thousands mourn.

Judge Lawson, who committed Mr. Dwyer Gray for contempt of court a month ago in Dublin, inflicting the very heavy penalty of three months' imprisonment, a fine, and security afterward for good behavior, has liberated him, remitting the bail, but retaining the fine of £500. The reasons he gives for this clemency will, we fancy, increase the scandal caused by the sentence. The offence was the publication in Gray's paper, the *Freeman's Journal*, of a charge that the jury, which was legally in his own charge as High Sheriff, was drunk when considering its verdict in a capital case. If the offence called for such a sentence a month ago, it calls for it still. But the Judge now says he mitigates it because there is a better state of things in the country at large, and because there is an improvement in the tone of Gray's paper. His remarks may of course have been misreported in the telegraphic summary, but if this rendering be correct, we fancy it must greatly stimulate the feeling, of which the sentence called forth much expression, that the power of judges to punish for contempt of court should be curtailed and regulated by statute. A judge has no more right to punish a man severely for contempt by way of improving the condition of the country or improving the tone of newspapers he does not like, than to punish him for the purpose of influencing an election. To remit part of the sentence, therefore, because the political situation has improved, or because the Judge likes the articles in the prisoner's paper better than he used to like them, is to confess an abuse of power of a very gross kind.

The Radicals and Bonapartists in France are passing through a period of great perturbation. A few weeks ago a duel between ten editors of one journal and ten of another was proposed, in imitation of the famous fight of Beaumanoir. Why it never came off we do not know, but the mere proposal shows what the condition of the editorial mind must be. More recently, a large armed band visited a Radical newspaper office, and compelled the foreman of the composing-room to remove certain obnoxious matter from the form before the paper went to press. He had to comply, but he did not go to press, and, giving notice to the subscribers of his paper, they arrived, in arms, also, in the composing-room, when another attempt was to be made to get the paper out. They found the foreman—who is perhaps the editor also—entrenched behind one of his imposing-stones, with a cocked revolver, and waiting for succor and exchanging bad language with his assailants, who had returned to the assault. These were speedily expelled by the relieving force, who mounted guard over the office till the publication was complete, and then marched in a column of twos through the streets, with no molestation from the enemy, who were waiting outside, except cries of "To-morrow!" Radical meetings, too, are very boisterous. Dissidents, who in France are very numerous, because they entertain there the extinct Anglo-Saxon notion that meetings are held for discussion, usually speak up in opposition to the regular platform orators, but, far from getting a hearing, are threatened with expulsion, and are expelled unless they have a following strong enough to hold the room. At a meeting at Bordeaux the other day the forces were so equally divided that they fought for a good while and filled the hall so tightly that the police could not get in, and the row was brought to a close only by turning off the gas. It ought to be said that the high Conservatives are as ferocious in their temper as the low Radicals. One of their editors has recently said that in journalism he belonged to the school of Marat—that is, that he would like to cut the throats of editors who differed with him—but this did not prevent his belonging in politics to the school of Bossuet.

The *Temps*, which is one of the soberest and best of French journals, has lately been moralizing over this state of things in an article entitled "American Manners," in which it draws the conclusion that these goings on are proofs that French manners, of which in their natural state it makes a beautiful picture, are being rapidly "Americanized." But the truth is that French journalistic manners have always been as bad as bad could be. Editors have always abused each other in vituperation which differed mainly from the American article in being more careful, elaborate, and ingenious. But it has always drawn a little dignity from the fact that the opponents winced under it, and that it made almost any of them fight. In fact, the conditions of French journalism have resembled those of Southern journalism, except that quarrels in France do not end in street fights, and are almost always settled with swords, and are consequently seldom deadly. In the earlier days of American newspapers at the North, coarse abuse of rival editors was much more common than it is now, but never have any editors, however bellicose, been successful in getting their subscribers to espouse their quarrels, much less to go to the office of a rival sheet, revolver in hand, to exercise a censorship over it. To American readers, and let us add juries, editorial quarrels always have the air of a farce, or of professional by-play, like the invectives exchanged by opposing but friendly lawyers before a jury. And then the practice of breaking up meetings is one which has no longer any place in American political manners. It prevailed during the abolitionist days, and has probably been not uncommon during the "outrage" period at the South, but in normal peaceful times it is not one of the things which an excited American partisan thinks of doing. In fact, if French political manners were really Americanized, what Frenchmen fond of the old times would have to mourn over would be the growth of excessive patience under insults and abuse, not an increase of irritability or of readiness to resort to force.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, Sept. 27, to TUESDAY, October 3, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Republican dissatisfaction over the result of the Saratoga Convention has increased and become very outspoken. The election of the notorious ex-Insurance Commissioner John F. Smyth as Chairman of the Republican State Committee has given great offence. It is found, also, that in addition to the vote of "Steve" French in the State Committee at Saratoga, on the question of giving the organization of the Convention to the Stalwarts, two other fraudulent votes were cast. Ira M. Hedges took the place of F. Tomkins, without any proxy, but with the understanding that he would vote with the Cornell men; but he voted for Madden. W. J. Montanye voted in place of A. P. Smith, being allowed to do so on the strength of a telegram purporting to come from Mr. Smith, but which Mr. Smith never saw. Ex-State Senators Woodin and Foster have declared their intention not to support the head of the Saratoga ticket. United States District-Attorney Stewart L. Woodford has declared that the fraud and forgery resorted to at Saratoga vitiated all the Convention did, and that "the short, direct, and honorable way out of it is for Judge Folger to refuse to accept a nomination made under the circumstances. His associates on the ticket would be in honor bound to follow his example. The Republican Convention can be reconvened, and, with the prestige the party will secure in standing for the right, the ticket then nominated will be elected." The Rev. Dr. Theodore L. Cuyler, pastor of the Lafayette Avenue Presbyterian Church in Brooklyn, has announced that he will not vote for or support Secretary Folger for Governor. He says: "I stood by the cradle of the Republican party, and I have been proved to be one of its members. But when it is shunted off on the wrong track, I cannot follow it, and I will not go over the precipice with it." Hon. Sherman S. Rogers, of Buffalo, has come out for Cleveland. The Rev. Henry Ward Beecher preached a sermon on Sunday night, denunciatory of the Saratoga proceedings and the ticket, in which he said, "And when Cornell went out, Avarice and Revenge kissed each other." Mr. George William Curtis has written a letter denying that he has advised Republicans to support Judge Folger, and saying: "Every good citizen is bound to resist to the utmost such a wrong to free institutions, and the only effectual way in which the voters can emancipate themselves from the corrupt and debasing rule of a Machine is to defeat its candidates." The Brooklyn Young Republican Club, which took an active part in securing the election of Mayor Low, has passed resolutions denouncing "the interference of the Federal Administration with the free action of the people of this State in the selection of candidates for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor," and declaring that "nominations obtained by such methods are entitled to no respect, and impose no party obligations upon Republicans to support them; but it cordially approves and heartily endorses the nominations of the Hon. Charles Andrews for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, and of the Hon. A. B. Hepburn for Congressman-at-large, and the Brooklyn Young Republican Club hereby pledges them its most earnest and active support." There has been considerable talk about Secretary Folger's declining the nomination, and the Executive Committee of the Kings County Republican General Committee, at a secret meeting last week, passed a resolution, by a vote of 17 to 6, that a committee be appointed to lay before Secretary Folger the situation in Kings County. It is understood that he was told that many influential Republicans considered his withdrawal the wisest course.

All doubts about Secretary Folger's intentions were set at rest by the publication of his letter of acceptance on Tuesday. In it he asserts that the delegates to the Saratoga Convention were freely chosen in the usual manner, and, noticing the reports of fraudulent practices there, he says: "No one claims—no one believes—that I had lot or part therein, or previous hint or suspicion thereof. I scorn an end to be got by such means. I will not undertake to measure the truth of all these reports; that of one is beyond dispute." He says that there is no time to call another Convention, and he must accept the nomination in order to save his party, even if the result is his own political ruin. He goes over the platform at great length. At the same time a letter was printed from Mr. A. B. Hepburn, declining the nomination for Congressman-at-large, because he believes that a new Convention ought to be called.

The State Committee of the New York Anti-Monopoly League has issued an address favoring the election of the entire Democratic ticket.

A Free-Trade League has been formed in Kings County, N. Y., to promote free trade by direct political action, especially by furthering the election of freetraders to Congress.

Among the Congressional nominations of the last week are the following: S. J. Randall (Dem.), Third Pennsylvania District; S. Z. Bowman (Rep.), Fifth Massachusetts District; C. R. Skinner (Rep.), Twenty-third New York District; J. W. Wadsworth (Rep.), Twenty-seventh New York District; N. W. Nutting (Rep.), Twenty-fourth New York District; E. Wemple (Dem.), Twentieth New York District; W. W. Phelps (Rep.), Fifth New Jersey District; J. H. Brewer (Rep.), Second New Jersey District; T. M. Ferrell (Dem.), First (Robeson's) New Jersey District.

There was a fatal political riot at Lancaster, S. C., last Wednesday. From Democratic accounts, a negro procession came into town and a negro threatened a white man with a pistol. Several shots were fired, resulting in the killing of four negroes and the wounding of several others. The Greenback candidate for Governor, whom the Republicans supported, was prevented from speaking at Winnsboro last week by threats of rotten-egging.

Chairman Ramsey, of the Utah Commission, says: "The Commission completed the registration of the voters of Utah—35,000 persons, men and women—and 1,000 polygamists of both sexes were disfranchised. The people generally received the Commission very cleverly, and we had no trouble in carrying out the provisions of law with reference to registration. So far as elections are concerned, they will, of course, be carried by the Mormons. Politics in Utah are not represented in any degree by parties—Republicans and Democrats—but by Liberals, composed of the entire anti-Mormon class, and the People's party, as the Mormons style themselves. The common interest of all Gentiles is directed exclusively against Mormonism. Of course, the Mormon vote, which is at least two and a half to one, will elect the delegate to Congress, and the polygamists, knowing that their men and officers generally will be chosen, can well afford to acquiesce in their own disfranchisement."

The Anti-Monopolists of Nebraska have nominated E. P. Ingersoll for Governor.

In accordance with the Act of Congress, Secretary Chandler has appointed the following Board of Naval Officers to investigate the circumstances of the loss of the *Jeannette*: Commodore William G. Temple, President; Captain Joseph N. Miller and Commander Frederick V. McNeir; Master Samuel G. Lemly, Judge-Advocate.

The gross receipts of the Post-office Department for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1882, were $41,265,317 10, against $36,217,511 55 for the previous year, an increase of $5,047,805 55. The net surplus will be about $1,500,000.

The annual report of Chief Dallas of the Dead-Letter Office shows that of the letters and parcels opened in the office during the year ended June 30, 1882, 19,989 contained money; that 24,575 contained drafts, checks, notes, etc.; 44,731 contained receipts, certificates, paid notes, etc.; 39,242 contained photographs; 52,463 contained postage-stamps; 90,842 contained merchandise, books, etc.; and 3,406,577 contained nothing of value.

It is found that the new State Department building in Washington is so poorly built that the expensive copper roof leaks and the plastering in the upper story drops off constantly.

Stephen W. Dorsey, of Star-route notoriety, has been elected Chairman of the Arkansas Committee for the Garfield Memorial Fair in Washington.

Jay A. Hubbell is said to be preparing a third assessment circular to officeholders who have not paid, as well as a special assessment for this State.

President Arthur is fishing among the Thousand Islands.

An analysis of the bouquet handed to Guiteau by Mrs. Scoville the day before his execution shows that one large bud contained more than five grains of arsenic.

United States Judges Wallace and Cox have refused to grant a writ of habeas corpus in Sergeant Mason's case, holding that a Judge-Advocate-General is simply an advising officer of the War Department, and that Congress never intended to give him power to reverse the findings of a court-martial.

The trial of five men in Philadelphia charged with fraud in connection with Star-route bids has resulted in the acquittal of four and the conviction of one, Joseph R. Black, with a recommendation to mercy.

The Tariff Commission have held sessions in Charleston, S. C., Wilmington, N. C., Richmond, Va., and Baltimore, and are again in session in this city. At Wilmington they heard an argument in favor of a duty on peanuts and chalk.

An expedition sent out by the United States Fish Commission to the edge of the Gulf Stream, in search of tile-fish, has returned unsuccessful in this, but reports the discovery of a new food fish which resembles sea bass.

The public debt was decreased $14,805,948 83 in September.

The Supreme Court of Connecticut has decided that women may be admitted to the bar there.

A bill has been filed in the Court of Chancery at Trenton, N. J., to prevent the Monmouth Park Association from holding any races or permitting gambling upon its premises. All open betting was prevented at the Jerome Park races, near this city, last Saturday, and several "book-men" who attempted to take bets quietly were arrested.

A suit is pending in this city to decide whether the elevated railroads can be required to carry freight.

The Superior Court of Illinois has decided that Railroad and Warehouse Commissioners of that State have authority to regulate freight charges from points in Illinois to points outside the State.

The Edison electric light is giving good satisfaction in this city, the only complaints coming from persons who expected a stronger light than the ordinary electric lamps give. Outside the city, the Edison Company now have 16,976 lamps run by isolated plants. Of 120 lamps in use in some mills in Holyoke, Mass., only five have broken since last April.

The American Steam Heating Company has four miles of main pipe laid in this city. The new method of supplying heat is said to be very popular.

The steamboat *R. E. Lee*, perhaps the finest boat on the Mississippi River, was burned last Saturday morning, thirty miles below Vicksburg. Many lives were lost—twenty-one, it is thought—including several women. A very valuable cargo was also destroyed. The cause

of the fire is unknown. The vessel burned with astonishing rapidity. The pilot stood by his wheel, almost enveloped by the flames, until the boat was run ashore.

A train on the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad was stopped one mile west of Grenada, Col., by armed men, last Saturday night, and the express car was robbed of $5,500 in money.

A man named Rhodes, who brutally murdered an old man and his wife, near Charlottesville, Va., last February, was lynched near that town last Monday morning. After the murder he fled to Tennessee, where he married a reputable young woman.

A very bold robbery was committed in the Exhibition Building at Cincinnati last Wednesday. Just after the doors were opened two men opened a show-case and removed $12,000 worth of diamonds and jewelry, with which they walked away.

Much excitement has been caused at Yale College by the arrest of a Senior, on a charge of obtaining money from under-classmen by false pretences. He has confessed the crime and been fined.

Eleven Sophomores have been sent from Lafayette College, at Easton, Pa., for hazing Freshmen.

The yellow fever is subsiding at Brownsville, Texas, and at Matamoras.

Several shoe-manufacturing firms in Maine are preparing to move their factories from that State, because of the strikes among their employees.

The Trustees of the Newton (Mass.) Theological Institution (Baptist) have voted—13 to 9—that Dr. E. P. Gould's chair (concerning New Testament interpretation) be declared vacant, on the ground of differences of opinion in theological matters between him and President Hovey.

FOREIGN.

An important resolution was adopted at Gotha on Sunday by the leaders of the three great sections of the German Liberal party. The National Liberals joined the Secessionists and Progressists in declaring that Liberals should unite in a more closely organized association against all other political parties, without prejudice to the minor differences which exist in the party.

The only exciting event of the week in Egypt has been a disastrous explosion and fire which occurred at Cairo last Thursday afternoon. A shell on a loaded car exploded, scattering other shells all over the station. A train of cars was ignited, and the fire spread to the railroad depot, which was quickly burned. The flames next reached the commissariat depot, and thence extended to some of the magazines, which exploded. It was found impossible to save the reserve ammunition. The whole of the commissariat stores, the main ordnance stores, the greater part of the forage, all the hospital necessaries, and a large quantity of clothing were destroyed. The loss is estimated at £100,000. There was also some loss of life. It was supposed at first that the explosion was caused by a spark from a passing train, but incendiarism is now suspected. Many natives went about the city afterward, shouting with delight over the explosions, and crying: "This is the people's bonfire, lit by the people in honor of the Khedive's infidel friends." During the fire, two men with torches were seized while endeavoring to fire an adjacent quarter of the town.

The Egyptian Ministers have agreed upon the wording of three decrees, which the Khedive has signed. The first institutes a special commission for the prosecution of all acts of rebellion committed by the military or by civilians. The second orders that a court-martial with eight members, Rauf Pasha presiding, shall be held in Cairo, and that it shall give judgment according to the military code, without appeal, in all cases submitted by the above-named commission. The third directs the assembling in Alexandria of another court-martial to try all cases submitted by the tribunals recently appointed in Alexandria and Tanta. The proceedings of both court-martial will be public, and the accused persons will be permitted to employ counsel. The Khedive will soon issue a decree granting amnesty to all officers, from captains downward, engaged in the late rebellion, excepting those who directly participated in the riots or joined the Army after the beginning of the campaign.

There have been riots in several towns in Upper Egypt, owing to the efforts of officials to enforce demonstrations of loyalty to the Khedive. Flags and devices have been torn down by mobs, and Christians have been insulted and maltreated. A correspondent at Alexandria telegraphs that he is assured that the Egyptian Government has possession of a telegram from Prince Ibrahim to Arabi Pasha congratulating him on the supposed Egyptian victory at Kasassin, and hoping that at the next Feast of Bairam Englishmen would be sacrificed instead of sheep.

A grand review of the British troops was held on Saturday afternoon in the square in the centre of Cairo, where the troops assembled after marching through the streets. Arabi Pasha and Tulba Pasha watched the review through the bars of their prison windows.

Alexandria is daily becoming crowded with people, and rents are greatly increasing.

General Wolseley will not leave Cairo until urgent questions awaiting solution in connection with the courts-martial, the withdrawal of a portion of the British troops, and the reorganization of the Egyptian Army, are settled. He has been ill, but has recovered.

Baker Pasha has tendered his resignation of his post of aide-de-camp to the Sultan, and gone to Egypt to reorganize the Egyptian Army. He has presented to the Khedive a scheme for the reorganization of the Army, making a portion of it consist of gendarmerie, probably to be recruited from the Albanians. The scheme provides for the formation of municipal police for the towns, to be drawn from the most trustworthy native elements.

M. de Lesseps, writing to the London *Times*, says, regarding a proposed second Suez Canal, that his company possesses for ninety-nine years the exclusive privilege of maritime communication between the Gulf of Pelusium and the Bay of Suez. The *Times* says it entertains grave doubts of the validity of this claim.

Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador, has communicated to Lord Granville, the British Foreign Secretary, a note from the Porte thanking Great Britain for reëstablishing order in Egypt, and expressing hope that the bonds of friendship subsisting between Turkey and England may be drawn still closer. Lord Granville has replied, expressing satisfaction with these sentiments.

The Right Hon. Henry Fawcett, Postmaster-General of Great Britain, speaking at Hackney a few days ago, said: "England has no selfish object. Her chief concern is to secure to the Egyptians the best government and the greatest amount of liberty possible. The abuse connected with the late Control will be avoided in future. The Egyptians will not have to submit to the injustice of an unduly large part of their revenues being appropriated by foreign officials."

Mr. Gladstone, replying to an address presented to him on Monday, referred to the question of procedure in the House of Commons. He said the House could never meet the tremendous calls upon its energies unless it could shake off all timidity and fear of cant phrases, and set itself resolutely to the task of bringing procedure into harmony with the calls upon it. Referring to Egyptian affairs, Mr. Gladstone said he thanked God for the success of the British in Egypt; he thanked the army there and its skilful General. The war had proved that the army was composed of men as brave as their forefathers ever were. The war had been carried out from love of peace and on principles of peace. In concluding, Mr. Gladstone said he trusted that Egypt would again be prosperous and happy.

In Dublin, Judge Lawson on Saturday ordered the release of Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, on the payment of a fine of £500. Mr. Gray's bail was remitted. The Judge, while defending his act in imprisoning Mr. Gray on legal grounds, said he felt that justice had now been vindicated, a better state of things being observable. Another farmer has been murdered in Ireland.

Archbishop Croke writes to the *Freeman's Journal* that he is authorized to state that Mr. Dillon will not press his resignation of his seat in Parliament just now, but will continue to represent Tipperary until his constituency has had ample time to select his successor, in the event of the continuance of his illness. It is stated that, in order to show his accord with Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon will attend the conference of the Parnell men at Dublin on October 18.

The Dublin police now believe that the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under-Secretary Burke numbered ten, and that they are still in Ireland, but that unless the aid of an informer can be secured, the crime cannot be brought home to the guilty persons. The weapons used in the commission of the murders were found some weeks ago.

There is a report that the Czar of Russia has been secretly crowned, in order that if he should be killed at the public coronation there might be no difficulty in proclaiming the Tzesarevitch Alexander the lawful successor.

The Russian officers at Kilia, near the mouth of the Danube, are taking soundings, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the International Commission, and the Russian Government has arranged that Russians shall perform police duty instead of the employees of the Commission. In consequence of these infringements, a meeting of the Commission has been summoned.

M. Condouriotis, the Greek Minister at Constantinople, has told Said Pasha, the Turkish Prime Minister, that Greece will not renounce an inch of the territory ceded to her by the Porte.

Serious anti-Jewish riots have occurred at Pressburg and Blumenthal, Hungary. Houses of Jews were mobbed, and the district was put under martial law. Six hundred Jewish families have left Pressburg. Herr Tisza, the Hungarian Prime Minister, has addressed a letter to the municipal councils, in which he expresses his conviction that every Council feels indignant at the anti-Jewish excesses in Pressburg. He says a renewal of the outrages must be prevented. Immediate action must be taken against the aggressors.

There is a hot quarrel in Paris between the two factions of the Bonapartists. The Jeromists declare that the recent duel between M. Dichard, editor of the *Petit Caporal*, and M. de Massas, editor of the *Combat*, in which the latter was killed, was virtually an assassination. The Republicans are delighted at these dissensions among their opponents.

A treaty has been signed by the Mexican Secretary of Foreign Affairs and the Guatemalan Minister to Mexico, definitely establishing the boundary lines between the two countries.

The Chilian Government has completed all arrangements for selling the Peruvian nitrate deposits at auction.

Three members of the Salvation Army who recently arrived at Calcutta have been arrested, in order to prevent a riot which was imminent.

There is a terrible epidemic of smallpox at Cape Town.

The Japanese Envoy has had an audience with the King of Corea, and full agreement has been accorded to Japan's wishes. The chief Corean rebel has been carried to China.

MR. FOLGER'S ACCEPTANCE.

JUDGE FOLGER'S letter of acceptance is not a cheerful or inspiring document, nor could it well be, under existing circumstances. A man who feels himself obliged to make an elaborate apology to the people for being a candidate, and who virtually asks them for a suspension of judgment as to the conscientiousness of his conduct in accepting a nomination, cannot be expected to be quite free from a certain depression of spirits when speaking to the public. The first part of Judge Folger's letter is really an appeal for sympathy, or commiseration rather, for an aged gentleman who finds himself in a very disagreeable situation from which he is not able to escape. This appeal would be more touching and effective had not Mr. Folger, when repelling the imputation of any personal connection with fraudulent practices, passed over that important subject rather lightly, satisfying himself, and trying to satisfy the public, with the remark that "on the face" of the "methods of the Convention" everything was "fair, honest, and aboveboard." Mr. Folger knows very well that the worst of those "methods" became known only after the adjournment of the Convention, and that the "fairness" of the "face" of the proceedings was no criterion at all of its true character. He would, therefore, have gained more, for himself at least, by a straightforward avowal and vigorous condemnation of all that has happened, than by utterances which almost look like a timid attempt at palliation.

The fact that Mr. Folger, as he tells us, did not really desire to be a candidate, but was rather pushed into it against his liking, would under ordinary circumstances be calculated to strengthen him in popular sympathy. But in his case it only reveals the real trouble of the situation. Mr. Folger is a man of good repute, whom nobody thinks capable of resorting to or approving of dishonest methods to advance his political fortunes. When he says that he did not desire to be a candidate, we are bound to believe him. How, then, did his nomination come about? It was pushed by the Administration, and put through the Convention by such politicians as the notorious John F. Smyth, Steve French, Mike Cregan, Clint Wheeler, and their gang. With politicians of that class a man like Mr. Folger would not naturally be a favorite candidate. They would not spontaneously take him up merely to promote the cause of good government. That is not in their line at all. But when that class of politicians compass the nomination of a man who really does not like the part he is playing, and when all sorts of dishonorable practices, including forgery, are resorted to for that purpose, it is evident that there is some other power behind the whole scheme, of which these persons are the instruments, and that, although a man like Mr. Folger may not be willing to do all their behests, still his election would preserve the prestige of that power and keep it in healthy condition for further conquests and triumphs. Mr. Folger, the unwilling candidate, the candidate pushed forward by others, is, under such circumstances, a more unsympathetic sight than Mr. Folger heartily desiring power for the purpose of carrying out his views of the public good would be. It is the men, the circumstances, and the influences surrounding him that make his election unacceptable to a large element in the Republican party, and the confession of his personal feelings with regard to his candidacy is, therefore, rather calculated to strengthen than to weaken their objections to him.

What he says about the different points of the platform is in great part by way of definition and interpretation. His remarks about municipal self-government are strong and to the point; also those on the matter of primary elections. Civil-service reform is treated in that vaguely sympathetic way to which political platforms have of late years accustomed us. When he speaks of "some revision of rules already adopted to render them less scholastic and more practical," he only shows that he has listened mainly to the opponents of those methods. Had he taken the trouble to investigate those rules himself, he would have found that they are already eminently practical and not "scholastic" at all. About the question of "free canals" he only repeats the recommendation of the platform that people should think about it. And as to the "anti-monopoly" question, he simply promises to do all he can, if elected, to give the Railroad Commission a fair trial, without expressing any further opinion upon a subject which certainly deserved more attention. It is not surprising, after what has happened, that Mr. Folger should not have been able to give us an address a little less perfunctory in tone.

Together with Mr. Folger's letter of acceptance, covering several newspaper columns, appears Mr. Hepburn's letter of declination, occupying only a few lines. Mr. Hepburn simply says that as, "owing to the unfortunate circumstances that have come to light since the adjournment of the Convention, a very large portion of the Republicans of the State are not disposed to accept its conclusions as an authoritative utterance of the party," he does not think it proper to accept the nomination offered to him. Mr. Hepburn being a man who has some elements of popularity about him, his withdrawal of course seriously weakens the ticket. Mr. Folger will probably in the course of time come to the conclusion that, had he written Mr. Hepburn's seven lines instead of his own three columns, it would have been better for himself and probably for his party, too. As he stands now, he is "in the hands of his friends." But it is those very "friends" in whose hands many thousands of Republicans do not want to place the State of New York and the future of the Republican party.

MR. HENRY WARD BEECHER ON THE REPUBLICAN NOMINATIONS.

MR. HENRY WARD BEECHER delivered a discourse on Sunday, on the Saratoga nominations, which was full of the excellent sort of wisdom which makes expediency the handmaid of virtue. He proposes to vote for all of the Republican ticket except the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, and we presume means in these two cases to vote for the opposing candidates. He will do this, he says, first in order to rebuke the manner in which the nominations were made (and he happily ascribes these nominations to the union of "revenge and avarice"), and secondly, in order to present a protest, that cannot be misunderstood, against Federal interference in State politics, against the use of money in elections, and against open disregard of personal character in the conduct of party organizations—an insinuation which Mr. Beecher openly levelled at Mr. John F. Smyth and Mr. Steve French. In fact, the sermon—for we suppose, being delivered in a church on a Sunday evening, it was a sermon—was full from beginning to end of the soundest of sound doctrine. It was a little lesson on the application of morals to politics, by which every voter who reads it at this crisis cannot but profit.

Those who remember Mr. Beecher's defence of the operations of the Machine in this State three years ago, when Mr. Cornell was up for election as the instrument of the Machine, which he called "perhaps not the best thing you can imagine, but the best thing that in the present state of human nature you can have," and when he ridiculed the Young Scratchers (who were doing then the work the Brooklyn Young Republicans have since taken up), and denounced bolting as the product of conceited indolence, will probably profit most by his remarks last night. In fact, we recommend all those who wish to profit thoroughly by these remarks to read also the speech delivered at the Brooklyn Academy of Music on the 8th of October, 1879. They will thus see the effect of increased experience and increased knowledge of his subject on an able man in a prominent public position, who is not prevented from avowing a change of opinion through fear of the charge of inconsistency.

The Machine in 1879 was precisely the same Machine which has nominated Judge Folger. It was in the hands of the same men exactly—not one of them has died, repented, or retired into private life. They had then precisely the same designs and standards they have now. They were then, however, trying to carry out their plans under cover of General Grant's name. They were eagerly seeking to get him back into the Presidency, both for the sake of his prestige and for the sake of the patronage he would place at their disposal, and the resolution with which he would support them against public criticism. They were putting Mr. Cornell into the Governorship of this State in the belief that he would continue to be the faithful partner he had previously been; and the Young Scratchers opposed him, and, but for Kelly, would have defeated him, in this same belief. For a while his course seemed to justify it, for he actually began by nominating Smyth, then fresh from impeachment, for a second term in the office of Superintendent of Insurance. The hostility of the Machine to him now is due to the fact that it believes itself betrayed by him. He refused to stay pliable, and they have had, therefore, to "slaughter" him, not only through revenge, as Mr. Beecher says, but in the interest of discipline. The Greek brigands always kill a prisoner who does not pay his ransom, even though they are perfectly satisfied that it is impossible for him to

pay it, because they cannot afford to let it go forth that an unransomed man has left their hands unscathed. It would ruin the business. In like manner the Machine cannot permit one of its own nominees to take up with impunity what it calls "Sunday-school methods," and begin to prate to it about honesty, or conscience, or the public interest, when it wants a bill passed or a henchman nominated. It would break up the Machine.

Mr. Beecher did not see all this in 1879. His observation of Machines was then limited or fitful, like that of most men who have passed their lives in sentimental politics. He did not think of the tendency to abuse of all unrestrained power. He thought that this New York Machine, though perhaps not a very perfect thing, would not grow any worse, and that it had better be let alone. He forgot, minister though he be, that everything human is only prevented from growing worse by constant effort and vigilance, and that Machines are no exception to the rule. Our Machine was not warned by its narrow escape in 1879, because it found that it could still get the support of men like Mr. Beecher, and was assailed by nobody but a handful of young and obscure men. So it took courage, and went on in its old ways, and became more and more audacious and unscrupulous and indifferent both to private and public morality, until, like Tweed, it provoked the "rising" we are now witnessing, and which Mr. Beecher, greatly to his credit, is stimulating.

We trust the lessons of the occasion will not be lost on him and all others who, three years ago, refused to give any countenance to revolt. One of these lessons is that the time to reform is when the abuse first shows itself, and that nothing is gained by waiting till it becomes unbearable. The price of liberty is not occasional vigilance, but constant vigilance. Another lesson is, that in politics there is no such thing as what is known in religion as "conversion." We believe there is no case on record in which a political knave really experienced for political purposes a change of heart. Bad politicians never grow good. They often affect goodness for a brief period, but it is only—like Josh Billings's mule, which behaved like a good mule for six months in order to throw the owner off his guard—for the purpose of diverting observation. There is, therefore, no use in praying for them, or watching them hopefully. If you are once satisfied that Steve, or Jake, or Barney, or Mike is engaged in tricky or dishonest games for the accomplishment of his objects, time spent in expecting him to turn out better than he promises, or to perceive that it is good policy to earn the praise of the righteous, is simply time wasted. We might as well wait for a weed to grow into a flower. A weed never grows into anything but a bigger and more noxious weed. The only thing to be done with him is to extirpate him.

THE CONDITION OF THE BAR.

THE account given by Mr. Rogers, the President of the State Bar Association, of the condition of the profession of which he is a member, is far from encouraging. He does indeed express the opinion that there are signs of improvement visible, but he does not mention many. The removal and punishment of the Ring judges in this city, and the increased severity of the tests for admission, are pretty nearly all, and against these is offset a formidable list of abuses, and a very depressing picture of the connection between the profession and politics.

Judgeships are, he says—and we know how true it is—distributed more and more every year as spoils. If you want to know who is likely to fill a vacancy on the bench, "you do wisely not to inquire of the lawyers who lead the bar," but of "the local political managers and 'the boys' who do the hard work of the caucuses and conventions." "If among these you find one specially active and facile, and can learn that he rejoices in the distinction of being an attorney and counsellor, so that when he votes in the convention he has, *prima facie*, the appearance of casting the vote of a lawyer, to him you may be confidently recommended as able to give an intelligent answer to your inquiry touching the personnel of the new judge." It is these active legal "boys," of whom there is a sprinkling in every convention, who dictate the judicial nominations, and it is inevitable that their work should be of a very poor order. They will not nominate distinguished lawyers as such; they nominate men who are not too far above their own legal level. Mr. Rogers says that if Marshall, Kent, or Story were to-day living in a Republican district, and was known as a Democrat, he could not be elected to the Supreme Court. Even if they were Republicans, we doubt whether they would be either nominated or elected, for they would belong to a class of lawyers between whom and the nominating body there is little or no connection. Moreover, the "boys" would feel the same sort of antipathy to them that they feel in the field of pure politics to "doctrinaires" and reformers. A lawyer of Judge Westbrook's standing would have a far better chance with them than any one of the three.

The only practical remedy that Mr. Rogers suggests for the evils by which the profession is afflicted, is that the association of which he is president should have authority to discipline and punish members of the bar throughout the State for misconduct in their professional relations. Perhaps the most immediate objection to this proposal is that the State Bar Association has hardly the standing which would make the plan of vesting it with such powers worth considering. Mr. Rogers himself makes a very pointed reply in expressing a doubt whether this body "has made itself felt very sensibly, either upon the profession or the State at large." It certainly has not, as a reformatory agency. Besides, a censorship much more elevated than such as is exercised by the bench itself is out of the question. Judges are naturally vested with the discipline of the bar, and it is the judges who are primarily responsible for any want of discipline that may exist. With a political system that produces such judges as we have, a body like the State Bar Association, which is a sort of professional club with no very severe tests of admission, is not likely to do the work any better.

At most such a remedy as that proposed by Mr. Rogers is a mere palliative. The disease, of which he gives a very accurate diagnosis, remains. Until judicial nominations can be taken out of the hands of the legal "boys" who run the machinery of the nominating conventions, the causes which produce the present low condition of the bar will still be in active operation. The bench must be elevated if the bar is to regain its old standing. Of course, judges must be appointed through some sort of political machinery, and the old system of appointment was better than the new, mainly because the machinery was better. Election means virtually appointment by the "Mikes" and "Toms" and "Bobs" who run conventions, with the advice and consent of the political lawyers described by Mr. Rogers, instead of appointment by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Senate. Now, however poor a Governor we may have, it is impossible that his nominations—for which it must be remembered he is responsible—should not be better than those which are the product of this system. History is, of course, full of instances of bad judicial nominations, but they have been made by Executives who were not responsible to anybody for their acts. The "Mikes," "Toms," and "Bobs" of our politics really are less responsible than any persons ever charged with the duty of selecting judges. The worst sort of a king can always be driven into exile, or even beheaded if he becomes too bad to endure; but we have not this crude means of redress against Mike and Tom. They are shielded from pursuit by the fact that they are only members of an indeterminate body who, by a pleasant fiction, represent the public at large or an entire political party.

A return to the method of appointment is for the present out of the question; but it ought to be kept in view that the existing system is at the root of all the evils which afflict the profession, and that all efforts for reform which stop short of affecting this will result in no permanent cure. Meantime, there is nothing that such bodies as Bar Associations can do to keep the bar pure and honorable half so effective as by seeing that no really bad judicial nomination is allowed to pass without exposure. They may not be able to have much voice in the selection of the candidates, but they can at least pronounce—and pronounce plainly—upon the unfitness of a candidate when once nominated. The Bar Association here has done some good work of this kind, and certainly the State Bar Association would be more likely to effect something in this way than by undertaking a general censorship of the bar throughout the State.

PIEROLA'S RETURN.

IT is some months now since the Administration abandoned its attempts to discover the de-facto Government of Peru; Mr. Trescot, who carried his researches as far as anybody could, having come home without any greater success than Artemus Ward had in his effort to find "monarchy" in Canada. Meanwhile the country has remained in the occupation of the Chilians, and little or no progress has been made toward a settlement of the terms of peace. The report now set afloat that they are about to resort to the aid of Pierola to set up some

sort of a government with which to treat, is not improbable in itself, and seems to be confirmed by the fact that he is on his way back from Europe. Pierola, it will be remembered, was, down to the time of the surrender of Lima, in full possession of the Government, so that his return to power would merely restore the state of affairs which existed before the invention of the Calderon Government.

The return of Pierola would of course be regarded in many quarters as a curse to Peru; but it is by no means certain that reëstablishment of his dictatorship is not the best thing that could happen to the country. It is perfectly obvious that Peru is now governed by Chili as a military conqueror, and that all the attempts at self-government have proved ridiculous failures. There are four or five patriots now contending for the position of President or Supreme Chief, and in the interior of the country a complete state of anarchy exists.

But the most important fact to be borne in mind, in considering the future of Peru, is the character of its civilization and its people. Mr. Blaine conducted his diplomacy with it much as if Peru was inhabited by a race of Yankees, accustomed to town meetings and constitutional government. The Peruvians are, however, as he ought to have known from information furnished by Mr. Christiancy, at a great remove from this. That minister, in a letter which will often bear quoting, written a year and a half ago, gave a vivid picture of Peru as he found it. It is in the main in a condition of barbarism. A mixture of Spanish, Indian, and negro blood has produced a half-caste population, there being in all Peru not over 200,000 pure whites. Labor is looked upon as a disgrace and degradation, and as only fit for a servile race. Three-fourths of the inhabitants were slaves down to 1856, and, though nominally emancipated, have hardly risen above the condition of slaves, and are still treated as such in many quarters. Wages are in many cases fixed by the authorities, and manual labor, where it is paid, commands no more than ten or twenty cents a day. To turn to the governing classes, "every man naturally looks only to what he deems his own immediate interest, or elevation to power, and, when placed in power, he seeks only to enrich himself by the opportunities which his office gives him to appropriate the public funds to his own use." In the case of claims against the Government, the way to get them allowed was "by giving a fair share" "to the President and Cabinet officers." In the conduct of the war precisely the results followed that might have been anticipated from such a state of society. The Peruvian soldiers were Indians or half-castes, driven into the ranks, and then marched up to Lima as "volunteers," while the officers (whites) were worthless, and, guided by what they deemed their "immediate interest," fled by scores when the fighting began to go against them, leaving their men to look out for themselves. This description, it should be said, was forwarded as a confidential communication to Mr. Blaine, and, as Mr. Christiancy had no ulterior object to serve, and warned the Department that if his letter was published he should go in fear of his life, it may be regarded as gospel truth.

Peru is rather worse off now than when Mr. Christiancy wrote this letter, and it is a mere dream to suppose that in such a country self-government, as we understand it, is possible. The question really is whether any government at all except through absorption in Chili is possible, and Chili can have no desire to annex Peru as a whole, because she would have to assume her enormous liabilities. But, at all events, to treat for peace and to secure the terms of it, some man is needed who is supported, not by the imaginary "character and intelligence" of Peru, for which Mr. Blaine ordered search to be made, but who is backed by money and bayonets. Pierola will have both, and he will, if once installed in power, have the motive of self-interest to maintain any government that is set on foot. But he in all probability represents foreign creditors of Peru, and has been repeatedly charged with being in the pay of the Dreyfus house. And thus we are brought once more face to face with the fact that the political question in Peru is primarily a question of a division of its assets among its creditors. Pierola is probably put in as a sort of receiver.

NEW DATA ON THE GULF STREAM.

THAT "there's a tide in the affairs of men" has long been recognized by other than hydrographers. How completely the elucidation of many terrestrial problems is dependent upon a tide of concurrent events which must be taken at the full is seldom realized, even in the midst of success. Undaunted resolution, daring courage, brilliant invention—all have repeatedly failed in their object, which later, though by no bolder or wiser endeavor, has been attained, as it were, on the fulling tide. In no department is this truer than in Hydrography, especially in relation to its wider problems—the oceanic circulation, the conformation of the sea-bed, and the distribution of life and sediments by the one upon the other. Thus, it is certain that Sir John Ross, in 1818 must have had protected thermometers essentially similar to those now in use, in principle if not in form; but, on the revival of deep-sea hydrography caused by the introduction of telegraph cables, such thermometers were found to be a necessity, and were independently reinvented. In 1850 Lieut. Walsh, of the U. S. Navy, introduced and used wire for sounding in the Atlantic sea-bed. The detaching apparatus of Brooke was yet to be invented, the necessity of steam in navigating and working hydrographic expeditions was not yet realized, and so it was reserved for Sir William Thomson, twenty-two years later, to bring wire again into notice. This, with Thomson's new and ingenious application to sounding-reels for determining the contact of the weight with the bottom of the old principle of the brake, together with the employment of seagoing steamships for hydrographic service; the invention of the Miller and Negretti thermometers; the improvement of the Brooke sounding apparatus, and the commercial demand for cable surveys, formed the flood-tide on the utilization of which our present success in deep-sea exploration depended. Instead of exhibiting Sir William Thomson's originally impracticable machine to occasional visitors as the curious failure of an eminent man of science (as is said to have been done on a more pretentious expedition), Captain Belknap and the officers of the *Tuscarora* set their American inventiveness at work perfecting appliances and correcting defects, with what success the world knows. Since the voyage of the *Tuscarora*, hydrographic science has profited largely by new inventions of Thomson, Siemens, Sigsbee, Agassiz, and others, and hydrographic work, in a strict sense, has been prosecuted in American seas as never before.

Naturally, the first attention in these investigations was given to the study of the Gulf Stream and the region whence it is derived. Since the time of Franklin, this subject has had special attractions for American science, from its important bearing on our commerce and climate. The United States Coast Survey, almost from the time of its organization, has devoted much of its means and time to the investigation of the characteristics of this current. The work has enlisted the sympathies of successive Superintendents to an unusual degree, and has been faithfully carried out by officers of the United States Navy, acting under the direction of the Survey, in accordance with existing laws. Much has been published in official reports, much still remains in bulky manuscript, but all that was done previous to the application of the improved methods above mentioned is of less importance than the results of the work of the last five years. In fact, the investigations carried on by Commander J. R. Bartlett, under the direction of the Survey, during the last two years, have overturned entirely many old theories still to be found in all text-books, and rendered necessary an entire remodelling of our notion of the Gulf Stream itself.

The question of the origin of ocean currents, properly so called, appears to be definitively settled in favor of the reaction of the atmospheric upon the oceanic circulation—that is to say, they are caused by the winds, and modified by the differences of rotational diameter of the earth between the equator and the poles, which, as shown by Ferrel, tend to deflect to the right any moving body in the northern hemisphere, and to the left any such in the southern hemisphere. In speaking of ocean currents, it is to be understood that reference is made to bodies or streams of water having a motion in a given direction sufficiently rapid and constant to be taken into account as a regular factor in navigation. Were the general diffusion, due to differences of specific gravity, of warmer water northward and colder water southward included (as they often are) in the definition of a current, the case would be confused without any corresponding gain. The differences of opinion as to whether the Gulf Stream reaches Norway are chiefly due to such confusion of terms. As here understood, the Gulf Stream does not reach Norway, nor extend even as far as Great Britain, and the necessity for a clear definition will presently appear.

The Gulf Stream has been known in the past as a "river in the ocean," starting from the Caribbean Sea, making the circuit of the Gulf of Mexico, issuing with enormous rapidity and high temperature from the Straits of Florida, and continuing to about latitude 45° N., with banks and a bottom stratum of cold water everywhere "providentially" interposed, like a cushion, between it and the earth's crust. Without mentioning sundry vagaries of Maury which have been widely copied, it has been described as composed of warm and cold longitudinal bands, alternating with one another, and as running over, if not in, a great trough or depression of the sea-bed, extending from the Straits of Florida along the Atlantic coast of the United States as far as Hatteras, or to an undetermined distance. Many of the discrepancies between these views and the latest investigations have been the subject of recent comment in scientific circles, but naturally have not yet obtained a very wide general circulation. In contrasting the erroneous ideas deduced from

imperfect methods of work and faulty results in the past, with the achievements of Sigsbee in the Gulf and Bartlett in the Caribbean Sea and Gulf Stream, it must not be taken for granted that the labors of the earlier workers were any less energetic or conscientious than more recent attempts. On the contrary, in small, ill-fitted vessels, sometimes without steam-power, with small crews, and with experience all to gain, the first investigators dared the tempests which breed in the steaming current, the yellow fever which lurked in the ports where they were obliged to recruit, and difficulties of less important kinds in great variety. The differences of value in results are simply due to the differences of method now rendered possible by the combined use of several recently-constructed tools for the purpose.

In brief, the following is the general conception of the Gulf Stream as at present understood, subject, of course, to modification in minor details hereafter: The north equatorial current of the Atlantic striking against South America is deflected northward, and as much of it as can passes between Grenada and the north shore of South America along the Spanish main. Much more of it, however, is deflected by the islands in a more northerly direction between Barbadoes and the Grenadines. A part of the water which thus enters the Caribbean emerges again between Guadeloupe and Hayti, with a higher temperature than it had before. A large portion of equatorial water proceeds westward between the Bahama banks and Hayti, and enters the western Caribbean through the Windward Passage. Another portion continues on along the northern shores of Cuba to the Straits of Florida. The temperature at the Windward Passage is several degrees higher than it is when the equatorial water reaches the Windward Islands, from Trinidad and Barbadoes to Guadeloupe. This is because it has been passing over a series of shoals and banks, and has been thoroughly warmed by the sun. It is to be borne in mind that the bottom water (at 2,000 fathoms) in the enclosed basins of the Caribbean and Gulf is no colder than the water of the outside Atlantic at a level with the rim (700 fathoms) of these basins (*i. e.*, 39.5° Fah.), while at 2,000 fathoms outside, the Atlantic waters are two and a half degrees colder. This suggests a speculation as to whether if the enclosed water had once been any colder it could have become warmed to its present temperature, which seems improbable, and leads to the inference that the rim of these basins has perhaps existed ever since the general temperature of the colder Atlantic water was much higher than now. As has been pointed out by Superintendent Hilgard, the current entering the Gulf of Mexico from the Caribbean does not make the circuit of the Gulf as formerly supposed, and has no necessary connection with other currents around the Gulf. On the contrary, it passes to the northward and eastward in the same general trend as the Yucatan plateau, and issues from the Straits of Florida with such reinforcements as it may receive from between Cuba and the Bahama Banks, as above mentioned.

The temperature of the Gulf Stream, now individualized and defined, in the early part of its course according to most careful observations by Bartlett, rarely exceeds 83° in June and July, except under a hot sun in very calm weather. The temperatures of the stream at corresponding depths are the same as those found between the Windward Passage and the Gulf of Mexico. The width of the Straits of Florida between Jupiter Inlet and Memory Rock on Little Bahama Bank is forty-eight miles, the greatest depth 439 fathoms; the area of the cross-section about 430,000,000 square feet, and at three knots (the average velocity) the delivery here would be about 436,000,000,000,000 tons per diem. This is evidently much less than the amount called for by the volume of warm water which spreads over the greater part of the Atlantic Ocean, from Cuba to Norway, and which by certain philosophers is ascribed to the outpour from the Gulf.

The width of the stream varies from fifty to nearly one hundred miles, the velocity and temperature of the axis being greater than that of the lateral parts. Its average rate may be two and a half miles an hour, in many places is less, and in some reaches five miles an hour. A delineation of the stream in tints corresponding to its varying surface-velocities, shows that broad-off Tybee Light and Okacroke the velocity of the whole stream over a considerable area is diminished, and in each case a little later (off Charleston and Hatteras) is suddenly increased. The inference from this would be that in these localities the current receives a temporary check of some kind, overcoming which it starts with renewed vigor. At Hatteras this check is due to the Labrador current, which is met and overrun, but the observations do not show any water of Labrador temperature off Charleston.

Instead of running over a trough, the stream passes over a tolerably even plateau, or area of very gentle slope eastward, which extends off the coast from the Bahamas to Hatteras, narrowing northward. The "trough" was due to the rapid current running away with the slack of the sounding line when in its grasp, and consequently registering too great a depth—an error common to all soundings with ropes in a current, not excepting those of the *Challenger*.

Instead of having a cushion of other water to glide over, Bartlett found the bottom of hard coral rock in the path of the stream, at 400 fathoms, swept as clean of slime, ooze, or living things as the bed of a mountain torrent. Instead of bounding "cold walls" and intercalated "cold bands," the water inshore appears to be a mere overflow of Gulf-Stream water, and the temperature from the stream landward or seaward is but little cooler than the stream itself, which is known chiefly by its motion. Indeed, a two mile per hour southwesterly current of nearly equal warmth was observed east of the Gulf Stream off Charleston on several occasions. The "cold bands" appear to have been due to rain-squalls or other causes producing accidental inequalities of temperature, which disappear a few feet below the surface.

The Gulf Stream, in passing over the continental plateau, has its inner edge near but not rigorously continuous with the line of 100 fathoms in depth, and extends to about the curve of 500 fathoms. The edge of the continental plateau drops suddenly to about 2,000 fathoms, and makes its nearest approach to the coast at Cape Hatteras. The cold Labrador current runs outside of and along this bank, and, when the Gulf Stream pours over it, causes a tumult in the waters. Whether the entire Labrador current underruns the Gulf Stream, and follows the 2,000-fathom curve to the equator, or whether a portion of it passes over the continental plateau inside, rising in temperature, but retaining its motion and causing the tumult off Charleston and the southwest current outside the Gulf Stream (after passing under it), are questions which thorough serial temperature observations will be required to determine. It is at least not improbable that some of the cooler water may creep southward as the Gulf Stream itself is swayed off and on the coast by more or less opposing gales. But Commander Bartlett appears to have disproved, among many other old notions, the idea that the arctic current, as such, underruns the Gulf Stream to the Gulf itself, or even to the Straits of Florida.

THE TOMB OF HARVEY.

BIRMINGHAM, Sept. 1, 1882.

IT was my good fortune to go down into Essex not long since, with a party made up by several Fellows of the Society of Antiquarians; so that some things came in my way not often seen by strangers. Our headquarters were at Saffron-Walden, an old borough town, as yet little modernized. As we alighted at the Rose and Crown, on Saturday morning, the sheep were bleating in the market place close by. It sounds absurd to say, "By permission of the Empress Maud," but it is the actual fact that the weekly market is still held under a grant from her to Geoffrey de Mandeville, the Earl of Essex. The main object of the expedition was a visit to Audley End, one of the finest of the old Jacobean mansions left in England. Lord Braybrooke had most courteously thrown it open to us, so that we saw it with a leisure and a completeness seldom enjoyed in a "show house." To tell the story of the place is almost to tell the history of England from the days of the De Bohuns and the first great Howards to the time when, under the generous direction of the last Lord Braybrooke, Pepys's 'Diary' was deciphered and given to the world. To an American nothing of the treasures the house contains is more interesting than the portraits of the Cornwallis family which the present occupants now represent. A marble bust of *our* Lord Cornwallis stands at one end of the state drawing-room, and a magnificent portrait of him in his robes as Governor-General of India hangs at the other, while a copy of the monument in St. Paul's stands on one side of the chapel.

Yet it is, after all, not so much the grand things that give the stranger the keenest pleasure of his journey—those he expects; but it is in the little bits of history and association which start up unexpectedly everywhere. By the wayside (it was the road to Newmarket) stands a broad, light-yellow stone house, with a golden crown over the door. Nell Gwynne lived there. In the fine brick mansion at the head of a long, sloping park still lives a godson of Pitt, an old man of eighty. His father was Pitt's private secretary. Here is the house where Dick Turpin was born. Opposite is the old bull-ring—when we saw it, happily filled by a quiet group listening to open-air preaching. After tea, the hostess takes us to see a veritable old-fashioned bowling-green, in which her children play. Next morning we go to the spot where, just below a beautiful garden, a Saxon burial-ground was opened a few years ago. One hundred and seventy men, women, and children were found, each in the little bed hollowed out of the chalk. In church, on Sunday morning (Saint Mary's, by the way, is called the grandest of the Henry VII. churches in England), close by us was the monument to the Chancellor Audley, and in the vault under our feet, with Audleys and Howards, lie the remains of the Countess of Essex, of the ill-fated Sir Thomas Overbury story. All this is within a radius of five miles. Does it seem a crowded catalogue? It is nothing to the reality: that piles itself up till, at the end of a few weeks, one is ready to ask, not, What is there to see next? but, Is there any corner of England which has nothing to see in it?

On Sunday afternoon we drove out across the country to a spot rarely visited in this generation, even by Englishmen—the last resting-place of the great William Harvey. To a New Englander, Essex County is the land of his forefathers. It is now a quiet land, broad and flat, and scantly wooded—a land of malt-houses and of barley, of Quaker thrift and wealth. Nine miles east of Saffron-Walden is the little village of Hempstead. The cottages crowd the southern

slope of a low hill, and beyond stands the church looking out to the west and north—or rather, one should say, so much as is left of the church; for last February the tower fell, carrying with it the larger part of the roof of the nave. The walls were known to be cracked, but no serious fears were entertained till, one Saturday evening, Mrs. Ford, the old woman in charge of the church, came in to tell the curate that the cracks about the tower had opened wider. He went out with her to look at them, and both of them went up to the belfry, and Mrs. Ford, as was her wont on Saturday evening, wound up the clock. Returning to his study, the curate wrote to the rector that, owing to the unsafe condition of the walls, he had given orders that the bells should not be rung for service the next morning. Hardly had he finished the letter when a rumbling crash was heard, and the servants rushed in to say that the tower had fallen. It is a very humble parish, and no attempt at rebuilding has been made further than to board in the two upper bays of the nave which remain. The mass of stone lies nearly as it fell—much crushed and crumbled; but the fall was so slow and so even that the chime of bells, which the county history of fifty years ago described as "five very musical bells," came down unhurt, and they stand a melancholy row by the churchyard wall. The little congregation was just coming out as we arrived. The church is almost bare within, but over the pulpit is the Harvey crest—a helmet and an outstretched hand above it. The Harvey Chapel is on the north side of the chancel: it is perhaps 18 x 24, but looks smaller than it really is, being crowded by monuments of the heavy classic style. There are Harveys of all ages, from the old Eliab of 1698 (in his day a much greater man to the common world than the doctor), and the Sir Eliab of Nelson's time, Admiral of the Blue, K. C. B., and the member for Essex, to "two daughters, Mary and Philadelphia, who died infants, and lie by their father." To their memory are inscribed two medallions in white marble by Roubillac.

The monument to the great physician is not in the chapel, but at the corner of the north aisle. The white marble bust of himself stands in a deep niche of dark stone. The head and face are more massive than in the common portraits, but it is the opinion of experts who have examined it, among them Woolner himself, that it was copied from casts taken after death. Beneath it is a long Latin inscription, recounting his discoveries in science and his benefactions to the College of Physicians in London: "*Orbi Salutem, Sibi immortalitatem Consequutus. . . . Professor Assiduus et Felicissimus*," and this conclusion:

Tandem
Post triumphales
Contemplando, Sanando, inueniendo
Sudores,
Varias domi forisq. Statuas Quum totum circuit
Microcosmum Medicinæ Doctor ac Medicorum,
Imporles obdormiuit.
III° Idvij. Anno Salutis C.IDIDCLVII. Ætatis
LXXX°.
Annorum et Famæ Satur.

A far greater interest attaches to the monument from the fact that all the contemporary memorials in London perished in the great fire—the *illustrem bibliothecam*, which, in the words of this very inscription, he *Construxit, Dotauit et Ditauit suo Patrimonio.* Under it there was "a fair large parlor," also his gift, in which the college should hold its convocations. Aubrey describes the statue erected by his colleagues, "in his Doctorall robes at the Physitian's Colledge." *Viro, Monumentis suis immortali*, was written under it.

Beneath the Harvey Chapel is the vault, which is entered from the outside by steep, narrow brick steps under a trap-door. There is a pretty large window, now iron-barred, but one of our party well remembered that forty years ago it was all unprotected, and any two resolute men could easily have walked off with the body of Harvey. An elderly woman in decent mourning, the same Mrs. Ford who wound up the clock on that memorable evening, unlocked and lifted the door for us. Below we found the place dry and clean—a simple cellar, with stone walls and brick floor. It was a curious spectacle, as in the dim light we made out the forms of the coffins. As I said, it is a simple room, with no arrangements for enclosing the coffins. They have simply been left there, as in any quiet, vacant room. There are fifty-four of them, all Harveys or their wives. The oldest of them are of that ghastly shape which takes the outline of the human body, and the head is stamped with a grim likeness of the human face. The later ones have wooden cases outside of the lead (the sides of several had dropped off), and were once covered with cloth, and handsomely decorated with steel or silver. The Admiral's coffin is in one corner by itself. Those of several children are piled upon the large ones, four and five in a row, the very small ones being probably those of the infants already mentioned. The last coffin was placed here about thirty years ago, and contains the body of a young man of nineteen, who died somewhere in the tropics. Its size is enormous, there being five coffins, one within the other. The body of the great Harvey lies upon the floor close under the window. It faces the east, as it is noticeable they all do, and Mrs. Ford said it had never been moved in the sixty-five years that she remembered it, which goes to prove that from the first his fame was so specially recognized that no other coffin was placed upon it. It is of that semi-human shape as his friend Aubrey wrote: "He is lapt in lead, and on his *brest* in great letters—*Dr. William Harvey.* I was at his funeral, and helped to carry him into the vault." In the deep shadow the inscription was invisible, but by lighting a succession of matches we made out: "1656. William Harvey. Deceased June 3rd, aged 80 years." The lower part of the coffin had shrunk and fallen in upon itself, with a crack at the bottom of the hollow, which showed it was full of water, left from the winter no doubt, for the vault was dry enough on the warm July day.

The last of the Harveys is now a childish maiden lady of ninety, and the future of this strange resting-place of one of the greatest of Englishmen has become an important question. The College of Physicians has considered many plans—none more than that of removing the body of Harvey to Westminster Abbey and placing it beside his great compeer, Hunter; but, taking into consideration the traditions of the selection of this place at the time of his death (a committee of the College attended the body when conveyed hither), and the long time it has lain here, they have at last concluded to enclose it in a costly sarcophagus and place it, with suitable surroundings, in the old Harvey chapel above. So much is a definite plan already in course of execution. (This vault will then be put in order and permanently closed.) There is a further expectation that the whole church may be rebuilt and restored, as a memorial to Harvey.

Coming out again into the sunshine, we were invited to visit a fine old farm-house in the neighborhood. Walking thither over the stiles and across the fields, we passed the site of the old manor house, once the home of the Harveys. Nothing is left but the grass-grown moat and the "immemorial" elms, but the place still keeps the name of Winslow Hall. It was owned once in that name, and still earlier by the Cottons. At the farm-house we found one of those fascinating old English gardens, with box hedges breast-high and turfed alleys, all in a tangle of vines and flowers, with the York and Lancaster roses perfuming the air, all so sweet and soft and still. Afternoon tea was spread under a giant elm, and little children ran laughing about. The names were Muriel and Kathleen, but they spoke only Hindustani.

As an appendix to my story, I may add one or two anecdotes of Harvey found while looking for something else among books at the British Museum which, though not rare, are at least infrequent. Hobbes said of him: "The only man, perhaps, that ever lived to see his own doctrine established in his own lifetime." The following has a different sound from what it had two hundred years ago: "He was wont to say that man was nothing but a great, mischievous baboon." Above his autograph in the album of a young man, he wrote: "Dii laboribus omnia vendunt. —GUL. HARVEUS." In 1643 he was summoned to a consultation about the alarming illness of Prince Maurice. Prince Rupert gives this account of his advice: "Concluding the disease to be venomous, they doe resolve to give very little physick, only a regular diett and cordyall antidotes." Prince Maurice recovered. M.

ON THE EVE OF TEL-EL-KEBIR.

PARIS, Sept. 13, 1882.

THE events in Egypt are watched all over Europe not only by those who wish to form their opinion of the state of the English Army, but also by those who feel that the real nucleus of the Eastern Question has for the moment been transported from Constantinople to the Isthmus of Suez. The silence of Europe is full of meaning. Nobody speaks yet: all the Powers keep their sentiments to themselves. England has no avowed enemies, but the number is large of those who envy her great naval preponderance, her wealth; who are irritated at her constant good fortune, at her pride, at her ill-concealed contempt of what is not herself. She has with her all those who believe that, with all her defects, she still represents the highest interests of civilization and the greatest traditions of civil and religious liberty. Between her open partisans and her foes is the great mass of men who feel only instinctively what Le Rochefoucauld so cynically said: "There is always something pleasant in the misfortunes of a friend."

In a few weeks, perhaps in a few days, all these hidden feelings will either come to the surface or sink under the weight of what are called accomplished facts. The feelings of Germany, of Austria, of Italy, and of Russia are all a little different from each other. Germany is now such a colossal Empire that she aspires, and not unjustly, to become a maritime power. She has few ports, but she may hope at some distant time to bring Holland within the circle of her influence, and to be united to her by a sort of Zollverein. The Germans individually do not much like England; they respect and admire her, but their press shows conclusively that with those sentiments are mingled some others which savor more of antipathy than of sympathy. In England there is not much love felt for the Germans: recall the sayings of Lord Palmerston about Prince Albert. The English aristocracy is always inclined to consider the Court as too German. The Duke of Connaught, who married a daughter of Prince Frederick Charles, is considered too German in the Army. In short, the friendship between the two nations resembles more a *mariage de raison* than a *mariage d'inclination.* But the ties of the German and English Courts are so close that it seems almost an impossibility that there should be any serious

and dangerous misunderstanding between the two countries, whatever may be the personal sentiments of influential politicians. A daughter of Queen Victoria will some day wear the Imperial Crown of Germany ; and there is in this simple fact an eloquence which defeats all the arguments of discontented diplomats.

Austria feels a great interest in the Eastern Question. Prince Bismarck has consoled her for the loss of her position in Germany ; he has taken her on to the mountain and shown her the provinces of the peninsula of the Balkans, and, far away, the shores of the Ægean Sea. The ports of the Mediterranean have a new life since the commerce of the world has returned to its old channels and abandoned the Cape of Good Hope. Austria must be very anxious for the complete independence and neutrality of the Isthmus of Suez, as she imports now directly, and sends all over Germany, many goods which used to go by the Atlantic to Bremen and Hamburg. Italy is prompted by the same feelings. She will in a few years become a great maritime power; she has a number of fine ports which are now connected with Port Said by lines of steamers. Besides her commercial interests, Italy has to defend her political situation. She never feels big enough ; her ambition has been so gratified that it has become insatiable ; she has always a dim consciousness that she is only looked upon as a second-rate power, and she pretends to be a first-rate power. The pride of old Rome fills her ; she still looks upon all *forestieri* as mere barbarians. She was, in the time of the Renaissance, the cradle of our modern civilization ; she took the world out of the night of the Middle Ages and of the barbarism of the tribes which had conquered Europe. She is so proud and so sensitive that she could hardly bear the presence of French troops on the site of ancient Carthage. She is looking eagerly toward the East, seeking for something to devour. She was tempted at one time to join England in her expedition ; but she is prudent, and she thought it better for her interests to remain tied to the policy of the great Continental Empires. She regrets at times having taken this passive attitude ; she is afraid that England will be so successful that nobody will quarrel with her ; she asks herself if she would not have done better to go boldly forward, as she did at the time of the Crimean War, when she sent the small Piedmontese army before Sebastopol.

Is it necessary to speak of Russia? Russia is now so completely resigned as to have hardly any thoughts at all. She can do nothing ; she feels helpless ; she can only vaguely say that when the war is over there must be a European settlement, and then she will make her intentions known. She feebly threatens to do something when the hour comes ; but she cannot even say what she would like to do. The Nihilist agitation seems to have completely crippled Russia ; her sovereign has but one task before him, which is to live. Somebody asked Sieyès : "What did you do during the Terror?" "J'ai vécu," was his answer. It is difficult enough to live when you are surrounded by maniacs and irrational beings. Russia can form no plans; she can only modestly place herself behind the two German Empires, and offer to be their reserve in some great Continental war. She has looked on the mosques of Constantinople, and turned her back on them ; she can now only hope to have her share of Turkey if there is a new partition like the partition of Poland. The hands of England, in face of all these elements, are really free ; she must show what she can do ; she has never been so completely before the eyes of the world.

Correspondence.

A QUEER MISTAKE OF HUBBELL'S.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : During the summer vacations of the university with which I have for some time been connected, I sometimes assist my father, the postmaster of the village where my home is. Sometimes I take the place of a clerk absent on vacation ; sometimes I do writing. In no summer have I so occupied myself during more than three weeks, and seldom more than three hours in any day. Of course, I have been sworn in, and my name has been returned as a clerk, I suppose ; but I do not receive a cent of pay, and the pay-roll shows that I do not.

I have, therefore, been much interested by a circular received yesterday, at the bottom of which is a facsimile of the rather illiterate signature of some person called D. B. Henderson, while in the upper left-hand corner are printed the names of fifteen persons, who, as I learn from letters before their names, are honorable gentlemen. Over them is the name of one Hubbell, to whom that epithet is not applied.

Now, I had received a similar circular before. This previous one expressed it as the unanimous opinion of all these gentlemen that I would "esteem it both a privilege and a pleasure to make to their fund a contribution, which, it was hoped, would not be less than $——." They were right. I esteemed it a privilege and a pleasure to contribute just that amount, being two per cent. of my salary, mentioned above. So I made no reply. But this, I learn from the second circular, "is noted with surprise," and an excuse is kindly suggested. It states, further, that we have "a conflict before us, this fall, of great moment to the Republic." This fact I note with surprise. I am sure I had not known it before, though much interested in national affairs. So the circular requests "two per cent. of your annual compensation." Now, it isn't that the sum is so great, but I fear that it is all a mistake, and that the circular doesn't mean me ; for it does not seem to demand money except from "those most directly benefited by success" (which I evidently am not), nor in case I "think our grand old party ought not to succeed," on which I am at least doubtful. So, until I learn that my interpretation is a wrong one, I shall cling to the spoils of office. I am going to keep the circulars, for I hope to live to see the time when they are regarded as curiosities.—I remain,

A Pampered Placeman.

October 1, 1882.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF CABINETS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Can you afford room for this echo of your interesting discussion with Mr. Bradford? In that social function to which, as a whole, we give the name of "government," there are really two elements between which we must distinguish if we are to avoid confusion. One of these is the *administration* of the law as it already exists at the given time, and the other is the *changing* of the law so as to improve it in some particular, whether of principle or of detail. Now, it seems to be almost exclusively with reference to their attitude as to proposed changes of the law—the "reforming" department of the governing function—that modern "responsible" cabinets ("governments," as they are called) are created or unmade. That is to say, they are judged only or chiefly in their legislative character, though with that character they in fact combine that of the chief administrative officers. In this country "administrative" responsibility is directly to the people as electors, instead of, as in Europe, indirectly to the people, through their representatives in the legislature. Whether our institutions (and our use of them) do all that might be desired toward making the direct responsibility a real and efficient one, is a question of fact upon which opinions differ. But it is certain that, however this may be, the question is at any rate entirely distinct from that whether our system is better or worse than its European rival.

To this latter question the answer would seem to depend on our decision between the plan of letting the people's control be exercised exclusively through their election of an assembly (such as the House of Commons) which is to be responsible for both legislation and administration, and the plan of letting the people itself make the distinction between legislature and executive, and directly elect the incumbents of both departments, each department being of course "responsible" directly to the people (not one to the other) for its own performance of its own function—and for that only. It is claimed by some that the former is the preferable plan, on the ground that the electors of small local constituencies are more likely to be able to choose wisely a representative of the district through whom they may best exert all their governmental influence, than they are to be able to participate wisely in directly choosing from out the whole nation, and afterward watching and criticising, the specific varieties of officials needed in the actual work of government. In a word, the theory is that the average citizen, inasmuch as he cannot be a specialist in government, had better confine himself to selecting from among his neighbors some one whom he can rely upon to be his political attorney-in-fact, just as for other purposes he "puts himself in the hands" of his solicitor, his physician, or his man of business.

In England it is only through the House of Commons that the electors govern. Accordingly, as the House need not be dissolved save once in seven years, it is legally, though of course not practically, possible that government should be carried on for years in direct contravention of even the unanimous will of the electorate, as distinguished from the existing "House."

We have heard much, and are likely to hear more, of the growing instability of cabinets, owing to the division of legislatures into more and smaller parties, no single one (or stable group) of which can give a cabinet that majority without which the system assumes that a cabinet cannot be allowed to exist. The serious practical inconvenience thus resulting may perhaps lead to a criticism of this last-named assumption, far more searching and severe than any degree of theoretical absurdity would by itself have ever been likely to draw upon it.

If reform (or, as we have termed it, legislation) were the only function of these "governments," then, indeed, one could understand that they should be allowed to hold office only so long as they had a majority party behind them ; for, obviously, any given reform or change in the existing law ought not to be carried out before it has commended itself to at least a majority. But, as we have seen, these cabinets are, not only also, but in point of fact chiefly, administrators. Now, in administration, properly speaking, there should be no question of partisanship at all, but only of integrity and capacity. Except when there is, in fact, a "majority" united in support of some proposed reform, it is not only senseless, but demoralizing and inconvenient, to insist on considering leadership of a successful party (a term having then no legitimate meaning) as the sole and essential ground

for taking or retaining office. That basis for the tenure of office fails utterly (as we see it failing now) whenever, and in proportion as, the legislature happens not to be enduringly bisected by any one issue (surely the normal and desirable state of things, and that which is more and more likely to be the actual one, as fundamental questions are settled, one after another). The fact is, that a cabinet which is responsible to the legislature is nothing else than the executive committee of that body. Why not frankly recognize this fact, and make *election by the legislature* the source or ground of membership of the cabinet? Unlike the other, this basis of official tenure would be available in either contingency. If at the given time a majority were united on some given policy, then an election by the legislature would put (or retain) in the cabinet men who, to their fitness for the position in its administrative aspect, added the further qualification of favoring the policy of the majority. If, on the other hand, there happened to be no division into majority or minority on any specific policy, a stable and competent cabinet could still be counted on for administrative purposes; for, under such circumstances—office depending, not on membership of the leading group of any one party, but on the given individual's own personal command of enough votes to elect—the places would be secured by the most influential members of the assembly, and each would retain his (presumably) until—either through a majority's coming to insist on some policy to which he would not assent, or through his losing the support of some of his personal following (a sort of support which is far more stable than is the ascendancy of parties, where party is not simply a name for a "side" in the game for the spoils)—he, the cabinet officer in question, should be ousted by the election, to succeed him, of a rival who had come to control the majority of votes. Instead of the whole government retiring simply because of their not being (what, indeed, nobody else is, either, any more than they) the "leaders of a majority party," each individual officer would remain until some other person should, as candidate for his place, have managed to obtain against him a majority of all the votes.

To base governments on the balancing of parties is, in the words of Goldwin Smith, to give them a "foundation which must inevitably be weakened by every advance of the public intelligence, and which the attainment of truth on the great political questions will bring utterly to the ground."

"But [under the elective system] the legislature and the executive would be set free each of them to perform its proper functions. The legislature would no longer be hampered by the fear of overturning the executive; the executive would be stable, and would discharge the duties of administration and police steadily and without fear about its own existence. No longer would half, or more than half, the public men of the country be employed in propagating discontent, or a moiety of the nation be in a state of moral insurrection against the government which ought to be the object of its united loyalty and support. It is true that the criticism of an organized opposition would be withdrawn; but that criticism is always passionate and unjust—it is, in fact, not criticism, but attack; and the fullest opportunity of *fair* criticism in an open legislature would remain. . . . There would be no majority to vote black white under a false sense of honor, for the purpose of shielding a criminal of its own party. . . . Ministers [could be chosen] with reference to their departmental aptitudes, in place of the pitchforking system which the necessity of finding places for all the leaders at present entails. . . . The state would not be deprived, as it is now, of the services of a first-rate administrator—say, of finance or of foreign affairs—because he happened to be in the minority on some legislative question."

CHARLES FREDERIC ADAMS.

70 WILLIAM STREET, NEW YORK, Sept. 23, 1882.

Notes.

MRS. MARTHA J. LAMB is preparing a 'New York Biography,' which will be a sort of sequel to her 'History of New York City,' and comparable to it in bulk. It will be fully illustrated, and published by A. S. Barnes & Co.

A. Williams & Co., Boston, announce 'Towhead: the Story of a Girl,' by Miss McLean, author of 'Cape Cod Folks'; 'Holiday Idlessee; and Other Poems,' by James H. West; a new and enlarged edition of 'The Poems of Alonzo Lewis'; 'Poems,' by Annie L. Angier; 'A Study of Maria Edgeworth,' by Mrs. Joseph P. Oliver; and 'Emerson: an Estimate of his Character and Genius,' by A. Bronson Alcott.

A new edition of Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney's 'Mother Goose for Grown Folks,' enlarged and illustrated by Augustus Hoppin, will be shortly published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'American Hero-Myths: a Study in the Native Religions of the Western Continent,' by Daniel G. Brinton, M.D., is announced by H. C. Watts & Co., Philadelphia.

International copyright is clearly foreshadowed in the invasion of England by *Harper's* and the *Century*, and now by the simultaneous publication of a new *Longman's Magazine* on both sides of the water, though edited in London. It will cover the usual field of our magazines, except that religious topics will be absolutely eschewed. Its contributors will be both English and American. More interesting still, its price will be but twenty-five cents, a challenge to its higher-priced American rivals. It will not, however, be illustrated, so far as appears from the prospectus. The International News Company is the agent for *Longman's Magazine*, and will bring out the first number on November 1.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have brought out a supplement to their 'Best Reading,' by Lynds E. Jones. It consists mainly of classified lists of the most important works published during the past five years, with critical indications affixed. Lists like Biography, Fiction, Juvenile, etc., possess an obvious interest and utility.

A flood of publications concerning shorthand is just now worth remarking. We do not mention all of them when we cite Mr. and Mrs. D. L. Scott-Browne's 'Text-Book of Phonography' (New York); 'The Modern Stenographer,' by George H. Thornton (D. Appleton & Co.); 'Eclectic Shorthand,' by J. George Cross (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.); 'Eclectic Manual of Phonography,' by Elias Longley (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), and the same author's 'American Phonographic Dictionary,' a most laborious production, for the several words are accompanied by their actual phonographic outlines, instead of (as in Munson's pioneer dictionary) by a conventional literal representation. Using either book, the learner has a great encouragement to proceed, for he can constantly check his outlines.

Harper & Brothers have published, in their two-column edition of the Franklin Square Library, Norris's 'Heaps of Money,' already reviewed by us in connection with the "Leisure-Hour Series."

The great Index-Catalogue of the library of the Surgeon-General's Office now has a third volume in print—Cholecyanin—Dzondi. According to Surgeon Billings's prefatory letter to the Surgeon-General, "this volume includes 9,043 author-titles, representing 10,076 volumes and 7,386 pamphlets. It also includes 8,572 subject-titles of separate books and pamphlets, and 28,846 titles of articles in periodicals." *Cremation* has two pages assigned it; *Diphtheria*, twenty-nine; *Dysentery*, thirty; *Cholera* (Asiatic), one hundred and forty-eight. A department of Medical Directories and Registers (a French one as early as 1802) has considerable personal value and interest, but yields, however, in this respect, to the remarkable collections of portraits, medical and scientific, of which the solid lists fill twenty-one pages, and enumerate some 3,000 prints of all kinds. Few works that issue from the Government Printing-Office redound more highly to the credit of American science, scholarship, and patience.

Out of a request to enumerate historical novels illustrating successive periods of English history has grown Prof. William F. Allen's 'Reader's Guide,' just published by Ginn, Heath & Co. No scholar in the country is more competent to do what is done here. In four parallel columns are set down (*a*) the genealogical tables of English rulers; (*b*) "good historical reading, whether histories, biographies, or essays"; (*c*) novels, poems, and dramas relating to each period; (*d*) "the same class of works illustrating contemporary history." Class *b* is not a mere list, but is expressly discriminated according to the bias or ability of the respective authors. Some blank spaces are utilized for Spanish and French genealogies; and on pp. 20, 21, the descendants of Edward III. are displayed with special reference to Shakspere's historical plays. This handy pamphlet merits implicit confidence, and cannot fail to be widely acceptable.

With somewhat less than its usual punctuality, we believe, appears the Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Cincinnati, in August, 1881. This was the Society's thirtieth meeting, but the papers read, though presenting the usual variety, do not possess any special distinction.

Prompter, because of much smaller size, is the Proceedings of the American Philological Association at Cambridge in July, 1882, its fourteenth annual session. We have already noticed the circular adopted by the Association with a view to suppressing the abuse connected with the bestowal of the degree of Ph. D. Among the papers here reprinted we signalize for its popular interest Prof. March's on the locutions "first two" and "two first."

The lay reader of the current number of the *American Journal of Philology* (Vol. iii., No. 10) will be apt to turn first from the table of contents to Mr. H. E. Shepherd's brief account of "Thomas Jefferson as a Philologist," in which character the father of the Democratic party held views concerning the relation of Anglo-Saxon to English that gave much pleasure to Mr. Freeman on his recent visit to this country.

The four leading articles in the October number of the *Magazine of American History* relate to William Penn and the bi-centenary of the founding of Pennsylvania. An engraving of a supposed portrait of Penn, by Kneller, serves as a frontispiece. Mr. George Bancroft contributes the proceedings of a Hartford convention of 1780 in aid of the Government, with the credentials of the several commissioners (from New York and the New England States).

A biographical sketch of the late Col. James Florant Meline, a frequent contributor to the *Nation*, among other periodicals, during the years 1869-73, and author of 'Mary Queen of Scots and her Latest Historian,' will be found in the *Catholic World* for October. Colonel Meline was of Swedish-French descent.

An exceptionally interesting paper for the *China Review* (Trübner) appears in its issue for May and June, volume x., No. 6. Mr. G. Jamieson abstracts some "Cases in Chinese Criminal Law" from a native work called 'A General Review of [Decided] Criminal Cases,' and which "is regarded as supplementary to the

Code," although it bears little resemblance to the collections of Leading Cases in English law. "Here, all is detail; we get no general principles." One of the cases cited by Mr. Jamieson recalls the "marriage with a deceased wife's sister" controversy, and the decision seems no more rational. It is thus designated: "Marriage with a Woman who has been Betrothed to one's Brother illegal and void." In the given circumstances, betrothal (the man having disappeared) would not have been a bar to marriage with a stranger.

The conclusion of Paul Lacroix's story of his literary relations with Balzac overshadows all else in the September number of *Le Livre*. It is a curious revelation of character on both sides. The two men quarrelled, became reconciled, and then fell away from each other. "I have known many charming talkers in France," says Lacroix, "but none that approached Balzac." For Dutacq's posthumous edition of the 'Contes Drôlatiques,' Lacroix (with Madame de Balzac's leave) corrected conscientiously the "fautes grossières et souvent impardonnables" which betrayed Balzac's insufficient knowledge of the French language of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This he did "sans en parler à personne." An etched portrait of Madame de Balzac is *the* illustration of the current number. A sister of hers married Jules Lacroix, the writer's brother.

The leading etching in the *Portfolio* for September (J. W. Bouton) is by Stephen Parrish, one of our foremost American artists in this branch. It is characteristic, though not one of his best performances. The editor has some appreciative words for Mr. Parrish's genius. Mr. Hamerton continues his interesting papers on Autun, where he has been summering, giving sketches of the Lapidary Museum and of the Paris and Besançon gates.

The fifth annual black-and-white exhibition of the Salmagundi Sketch Club will be opened at the National Academy of Design on December 2, and close on December 22. Notices of intending exhibitors must be sent by November 21 to Mr. Frank M Gregory, Corresponding Secretary, 19 University Place.

The Art Students' League of this city, just reopened for its eighth school year, has removed to No. 38 West Fourteenth Street.

'Croquis Américains,' by Bret Harte, translated by M. Louis Despreaux, has recently been published in Paris by Calmann Lévy. This is the fifth or sixth volume of Mr. Harte's works now accessible in France.

The sixth volume of M. Guillaume Guizot's translation of Macaulay, containing part of the Essays, has just appeared in Paris.

We lately mentioned the foundation by Edmond de Goncourt of a *naturaliste* Academy. The *Vie Moderne*, perhaps by way of preparation for it, rallies the present Academy on having arrived in forty years only at the article *coupole* of its famous dictionary, and goes into a little statistical calculation, by which it appears that at the present rate of progress the dictionary may be completed about 2181, and that, supposing the academicians to have no other work, each has spent so far on every syllable as much time as Littré took for six pages of his work.

A new edition of Henschel's Du Cange's 'Glossarium Mediæ et Infimæ Latinitatis,' edited by Léopold Favre, will be published by C. Reinwald, Paris, with M. Didot's permission. It will make ten quarto volumes, of 600 pages each, and will be five years in making its appearance. Mr. Christern has received the prospectus.

The Royal Library of Belgium keeps account of the books "refused," or not given out on application. This happens either when they are already "out" (which is particularly apt to be the case with Jules Verne's writings, Larousse's Dictionary, etc.), or when the pupils of the Athenæum naughtily ask for "ponies" of the classics, or for novels. In the latter case, the rule is that they shall not be delivered unless for use in a literary exercise (*étude littéraire*), of which the applicant must state the object. This is a hint for trustees of our public libraries.

With part 45 of the "chromo edition" of Brehm's 'Thierleben' (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) the division of 'Birds' comes to an end, and is accompanied by a very full and useful index of names, as well as by title-page and table of contents for vol. i. This volume consists of nearly 700 pages. Vol. ii., 'Mammals,' opens with part 46, and the monkey tribe furnishes the first illustrations. Some of the woodcuts in this series are marvels of engraving.

Nos. 1 and 2 of the *Bolletino* of the African Society of Italy at Naples lie before us. They contain the constitution and proceedings of the Club, fragments of travellers' experiences, and considerable news concerning the Dark Continent.

A map of Egypt from Ismaïlia to Tanta, and southward to Cairo, comes to us from Justus Perthes (New York: Westermann). The scale is large—about four miles to the inch—and the names of places abundant. A side map shows the full course of the Suez Canal, and there is a plan of Cairo on ten times the scale of the main map. The area thus delineated will certainly be the focus of interest in the new development of Egyptian affairs.

—We have to call attention to a very gross case of "journalism" on the part of the Cincinnati *Gazette*. Answering Mr. Gamaliel Bradford, who advocates the appearance of members of the Cabinet in Congress, in order to secure greater power and responsibility for the Executive, the *Nation* said (Sept. 11):

"We must remind Mr. Bradford that the expiration of a Congressional term by legal limitation cannot possibly be made to mean in the popular eye an appeal to the people by the Executive as a dissolution does. To attract popular attention, and put popular judgment in motion on a particular point, the President has to say or do something to indicate that he desires a popular decision between himself and his opponents, either about his policy generally or some part of it. To suppose that the people would pronounce this decision at the ordinary biennial election, is to suppose that they pay that close and constant attention to the work of government on the absence of which Mr. Bradford's demand for increased Executive responsibility is based. A dissolution in France or England calls them to the polls because it is a veritable appeal to the voters, the answer to which will decide who shall administer the Government. The ordinary Congressional election would decide nothing unmistakably. It might be a condemnation of Presidential junketing, of Congressional corruption, or of half-a-dozen things besides, and every newspaper would be able to put a different interpretation on the result; so that the President would be no wiser after it than before."

The *Gazette* (Sept. 30) rendered this as follows:

"The *Nation* thinks that if the President could dissolve Congress, when he comes to an issue with it, and order a new election on that issue, as the Government may do in England, it would be a tremendous power to reform Congress. Your dilettante reformer generally thinks that anything English is learned statesmanship, and he prescribes it with as little knowledge of its nature and applicability as a wild Indian has of the mariner's sextant. In England the Government may appeal to the country by dissolving Parliament, but if the verdict goes contrary the Government must go. This is a pretty heavy restraint on the Government. But in this amateur application of Parliamentary government to our system, the President is to stand against the verdict of the country. One would suppose that biennial elections of Congress made a frequent appeal to the country; but the *Nation* says that is no appeal at all, but it must be taken on a specific bill. This is a specimen of 'them literary fellers.'"

It is hardly possible that any one intelligent enough to write in a newspaper can have blundered in this way. The author of the above has, therefore, almost certainly concocted it knowingly, and "with naked intent to deceive," as Horace Greeley used to say; and if the editor be the good man he is said to be, we feel sure he will not permit such a thing to occur again.

—The founder of the *Courrier des États-Unis*, M. Gaillardet, who died August 14, in Paris, was not so much known to the Parisians on account of the journal by which he made his fortune as from his authorship of "La Tour de Nesle," an historical play (*lucus a non lucendo*) which fifty years ago had a great success at the Théâtre de la Porte-Saint-Martin, and within ten years had been played 480 times; a prodigious success for those days. Gaillardet took his plot from 'L'Écolier de Cluny,' a sensational novel by Roger de Beauvoir, just published, in which Marguerite of Burgundy, Queen of Navarre, entices the passers-by into her tower, and when she is tired of them as lovers completes the resemblance to a siren by drowning them in the Seine. The director of the theatre was not satisfied with the play as offered by the inexperienced playwright, and gave it first to Janin and then to Dumas. After the latter's manipulation it was put upon the boards with the success above-mentioned. But Gaillardet was displeased that his name was not printed on the posters in as large type as that of "mon collaborateur." They went to law about it, and Dumas, whose capacity for getting fame and money out of other men's work fills seventy-eight pages of Quérard's 'Supercheries Littéraires,' was obliged for once to do justice to his fellow-worker. But as he had sworn that Gaillardet's name should not appear with his, the play appeared after this as "par Gaillardet et ***." The affair made a great noise, but, as in many another case of literary parentage decided by legal investigation, the public remained undecided. Some things were, however, plain. There had been a preliminary romance by a successful author, there had been a play more or less good by Gaillardet, not previously a successful author; this play had been retouched by Janin, who had added at least three scenes (two hundred and thirty words); for so much Dumas acknowledged. It had been further retouched by Dumas—how much no one, not even he perhaps, knew exactly. Yet acute critics maintained that sufficient traces appeared of the great romancer's hand to enable them to distinguish a large part of his work, as one distinguishes the Elohist from the Jehovist in the Book of Genesis. The first scene, they said, is undoubtedly by him, for it is taken from Goethe's 'Goetz von Berlichingen,' and M. Gaillardet probably does not possess that extensive knowledge of the foreign drama of which M. Dumas has given repeated and convincing proof. He must, too, be credited with the scene in the prison, in which *Marguerite* listens to and little by little unties *Buridan*, for that is taken from Lope de Vega's 'Amor y Honra'; his, too, is the scene in which *Buridan* says to *Marguerite* that *Philip d'Aulnay* has written that she is his murderer with his blood on Buridan's tablets, for that is taken bodily from Schiller's 'Robbers.' So many proofs, if they did not show the public how much of their enjoyment they owed to Dumas, at least appear to have persuaded him that he need no longer conceal his name under the modest three stars, and the play is now published in his works. Gaillardet, who for a time would not speak to him, became reconciled in 1860; and the great public, who dislike the

trouble of learning many names, and had much rather connect all that interests them with one famous name, whether it be founding a nation or saying good sayings, victories in war or success in literature—the public still thinks Dumas the author of "La Tour de Nesle," as it imagines him the author of 'Monte Cristo,' 'Les trois Mousquetaires' and its continuations, 'Sultanetta' and the rest, and even of 'Les Deux Diane,' which he confessed he had never even read.

—Some time ago the *Atlantic* gave us in its "Contributors' Club" a number of accounts by its writers of their making, or failing to make, a living by literature. This may have suggested to Signor Ferdinando Martini, editor of the *Domenica Letteraria*, the idea of asking his collaborators to relate their early experience in the literary career. The book so formed is called 'Il Primo Passo: Note Autobiografiche' (Roma, 1882). Among the names of the contributors we notice few that are known to the American public—D'Ancona, Bartoli, Mantegazza; but then we fear that the American public is not very familiar with the modern Italian writers.

—M. Zola has complained of the "train-train bourgeois et évangélique" of English novel writing. M. Arvède Barine, in examining a couple of late English novels (Murray's 'Joseph's Coat' and Gibbon's 'Heart's Problem,' of which latter, by the way, he gives a very favorable account) to see if Zola was justified in his sarcasm, remarks on one advantage which the English romancer has over his French rival, which we think has not been pointed out before. The English legislation is such that secret unions are possible. Hence the scandalous or criminal consequences which in France can accompany only illegal ties are the results of a legal act, and the romancer is "moral" though he write of secret rendezvous, concealing children, elopements, and the like.

—A number of French, English, and American journals have given an account of the discovery, at the Château Chanteraine, of a manuscript on the margin of which were notes written by the Dauphin during his captivity at the Temple. *Polybiblion*, with a laudable desire for details, made inquiries at Mans, where the manuscript was said to have been deposited in the Museum. It turned out not only that no such manuscript had been found, but that the story is an old one which recurs periodically, like the discovery of the sea-serpent. It is time for some one to investigate the connection of these intermittent stories with the sun spot period.

—A revival of astronomical activity at the Dearborn Observatory is the most noteworthy feature of the recent report of the Board of Directors to the Chicago Astronomical Society. The chief instrument of the Observatory is the equatorial refractor, of eighteen and one-half inches aperture, built by the Clarks about twenty years ago, and which for ten years was the largest refracting telescope in the world. With this instrument Professor Hough, the Director of the Observatory, has specially studied the great comet of 1881, the planet Jupiter, the satellites of Uranus, and, with Mr. Burnham, has observed difficult double stars. A compilation of all his double star observations made during the past three years is in progress by Mr. Burnham. One appendix to the report of Director Hough contains an historical review of the Chicago Astronomical Society, and another the observations of Jupiter made chiefly for determining the rotation period of the planet. The photoprints accompanying the report exhibit the exterior of the Observatory, and the interior of the great dome; and twelve views of Jupiter drawn at irregular intervals from September, 1879, to March, 1882. Two of these are especially interesting as showing, the one the transit of a satellite, and the other the transit of a satellite's shadow, across the great red spot which has been visible on the disk of the planet a number of years.

—The Deutsche Gesellig-wissenschaftliche Verein, of this city, has printed (in German) a lecture delivered before its members this winter by Mr. T. Bleecker Miller, of the New York bar, on English and Roman law considered as the product of Indo-Germanic nations. The author shows with great clearness that the English "common law" is a system with principles and a development of its own, and that the similarities between it and Roman law are not the result of imitation, but of the common origin and nature of the two nations. His conclusion is that Mr. Field's Code, which he describes as being a bad imitation of the Civil Code, and as faulty in construction and entirely wanting in all national elements, ought not to be adopted. Further study of the nature and history of our existing law must, according to him, precede any attempt at a general codification. This last assertion may be readily conceded, but only on the condition which Mr. Miller, and with him many other opponents of codification, seem to be too apt to overlook, that the study be carried on in a critical spirit, and not with a view to discover "the sublime simplicity and completeness of the common law." The tendency in the last fifty years has been to emancipate ourselves from the tyranny of the common law. In many particulars the change has been complete, as, for instance, in the greater part of our real-estate law. This reform has not been effected by slow and gradual development, but by direct legislation, as revolutionary as any codification could have been. In other points the progress is still going on, and it is here that a knowledge of the nature and origin of the doctrines will be most useful to us, as helping us to decide what to reject and what to retain. The old common law has not the completeness which its advocates claim for it, and it is senseless to speak of applying its principles to the manifold interests which have to be protected in our age, such as railroads, insurance companies, and innumerable other organizations. Society is radically changed, and the law has to be changed with it.

MOZLEY'S REMINISCENCES.—I.

Reminiscences, chiefly of Oriel College and the Oxford Movement. By the Rev. T. Mozley, M.A., formerly Fellow of Oriel, etc. 2 vols. London: Longmans; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MR. MOZLEY'S 'Reminiscences' do not possess the kind of interest which readers might expect from the title and from the known facts of the author's life. There is, therefore, a danger lest the true value and importance of a very singular book should be overlooked. If any one expects from the author an account or history of the Oxford Movement, he will be utterly disappointed. The Rector of Plumtree might, indeed, seem to have been created by fate for the historian of the theological reaction inaugurated by Newman and Pusey. He was, at Oxford, an early pupil of Newman; he was a Fellow of Oriel at the moment when Oriel was the centre of the intellectual life of the University; he was the follower, the helper, the friend of Newman when the celebrated Tracts were exciting all the religious world of England either with admiration or with indignation; he became connected with Newman by a close family tie; he edited the *British Critic* when that now forgotten paper was the organ of militant Tractarianism. To Mr. Mozley every celebrated man connected with the earlier history of Puseyism was well known, either as a friend, an opponent, or at any rate an acquaintance. Hampden, Blanco White, Robert and Henry Wilberforce, Hurrell and Anthony Froude, Golightly, Charles Marriott, Dean Hook, Ward—every man, in short, whose name the public connects with the movement headed by the author of the 'Apologia,' and a host more of persons, such as Anthony Buller, Blencowe, Rickards, who, if they influenced their generation, never gained anything like public recognition, were intimate with the writer of the 'Reminiscences.' He shared their hopes and fears; he labored with them in the promotion of Tractarianism; he went as far with his companions on the way to Rome as any one who did not ultimately renounce his allegiance to the Church of England. He has remained to the last in full sympathy with the cause for which he fought and (as any one can see who reads his book) for which he has suffered. He looks back with nothing but admiration on the heroes of his youth:

> "Now for a long time," he writes, "I have seen with more and more sadness that a period which in my memory is as a golden age has been vanishing from common mortal ken like a dream. The characters themselves, even to those of a less relation and a humbler degree, have to me an unearthly radiance, and I grieve to think that they should be forgotten: *carent quia vate sacro*. To do them justice would require much more history and much more biography than will be found in these volumes, which are but planks saved from a great wreck of time."

Nor were the literary talents needed by an historian of the Oxford Movement wanting to Mr. Mozley. His two volumes, oddly enough, rather conceal than display to the reader their writer's reputation as a man of letters. Twenty years ago the former Curate of Moreton-Pinckney and Rector of Cholderton was known to the world rather in a lay than in an ecclesiastical character. The solid, silent, reserved gentleman, whose appearance suggested sound common sense and interest in the affairs of the world, rather than participation in any kind of ecclesiastical or religious cause, was acknowledged to be a leading writer in the *Times;* and the *Times*, it should be remembered, held at that period a preëminence among English journals which it has for years ceased to possess. Yet Mr. Mozley, in spite of his knowledge, his sympathies, and his gifts, has not narrated, or tried to narrate, the history of the Oxford Movement. It can hardly be said that he has made known any new facts which will be in themselves useful to any future student who undertakes to trace the course of religious opinion in England during the nineteenth century. A "legend" has been described by some old writer as a tale which is not worth reading; and an inquirer in search of mere facts will be inclined, after reading Mr. Mozley's pages, to define "reminiscences" as "things not worth remembering" nor, in fact, "remembered." For Mr. Justice Stephen, Mr. Herbert Spencer, and others, have shown that Mr. Mozley has done himself no injustice when he reminds us that "reminiscences are very suspicious matter," and when he again and again (as we must in fairness to him remember) calls attention to the uncertainty of his own recollections. His book is neither a history nor, properly speaking, a contribution to history. To a student anxious to collect or verify facts it will have little or no value. But, for all this, it is, as we have said, a book which has an importance, a value, an interest, and even a pathos of its own which no careful critic ought to overlook.

The 'Reminiscences' are in fact a fragment of autobiography. If the word "confessions" had

not an ill sound, we should call them "Mr. Mozley's Confessions." As it is, we had rather term them self-revelations. The writer went through, in common with hundreds of his generation, a strange series of religious and moral experiences. A clergyman of the Church of England, he approached the very line which divides the highest of high Anglicans from the Church of Rome; and having gone so far, he in fact went no further. The true, if to a certain extent the unconscious, aim of the 'Reminiscences' is to explain to himself, perhaps as much as to others, the real history of a career which has the tragic element of every career that ends in something like failure. Looked at in this point of view, the very literary defects of the book become merits. The ceaseless digressions, the prominence given to petty details, the little personal anecdotes about the writer's own life—such, for example, as the history of his early admiration for the *Country Spectator*, and the very innocent piece of equivocation by which he led the Provost of Oriel to believe that young Mr. Mozley's style had been formed by reading the *Spectator* of Addison—the stories about men such as Frank Edgeworth, whose lives have no connection with the ostensible scheme of the book—all the petty details, in short, which are historically worthless become biographically of untold value. We learn from them that Mr. Mozley possesses the essential quality of an autobiographer. He broods over his own past feelings; he recalls every detail which is fixed in his memory by connection with sentiment. Hence we get from him a far truer picture of his own experiences than can be derived from autobiographies composed with the literary skill, say, of Newman or of Mill. The 'Apologia' of the one and the 'Autobiography' of the other are as narratives or compositions incomparably superior to the 'Reminiscences' of the former Fellow of Oriel, but they are, we suspect, far less true pictures of the "experiences" of the writers. Literary art inevitably conceals an author's true personality, and, moreover, both Newman and Mill, though differing in almost every other respect, agree at least in this, that each of them looks upon his own life as a course of complete moral and intellectual development. In neither case can you (from the writer's own point of view) speak of failure. Each stage in his life is, whether under the guidance of Providence or of reason, the appropriate preparation for its successor. The Cardinal, like the philosopher, feels, and makes his readers feel, that from beginning to end his life was a consistent whole. Neither of them was a man to indulge in the folly of triumph, but neither of them reveals the hesitations and uncertainties through which they must each at times have gone, or betrays any consciousness of having, after every effort, missed the mark of life.

With Mr. Mozley, as with most of us, it is otherwise. His tone from beginning to end is that of a person who feels that he has failed to hit upon or to keep to the path which he ought consistently to have followed. He was involved early in life in a great and, in his judgment, noble ecclesiastical movement. With the theories, the aspirations, the efforts of his Tractarian friends he completely sympathized, as we presume he still sympathizes. He believed, as he certainly still believes, in the preëminent virtues, nobility, and honesty of Newman.

"Young people," he writes, "are said to be physiognomists and judges of character. They know a true man. During the whole period of my personal acquaintance and communication with Newman, I never had any thought than that he was more thoroughly in earnest and more entirely convinced of the truth of what he was saying than any other man I had come across yet. This conviction, I have to say, was to a certain extent unconscious on my part, for I cannot remember ever to have entertained the question whether Newman did really believe everything he professed to believe. There never occurred anything to suggest the contrary."

While still combating for the cause of which he was a partisan, while still under the full weight of Newman's influence, Mr. Mozley, in common with scores of other clergymen, came at last face to face with the question whether he was not bound to go over to Rome. He was on the point of turning Roman Catholic; a word of encouragement from Newman would have decided the question. Newman pointed out to his follower that in his case delay was a duty. Characteristically enough, the teacher put the duty partly on the ground that Mozley had not finished rebuilding the church at Cholderton which he had undertaken, at great loss and labor to himself, to restore. The disciple obeyed his teacher, and the two years' delay decided the course of Mr. Mozley's life. He remained a clergyman of the Church of England. The matter for explanation is, Why he went so far toward Rome and no further? Two causes for hesitation in leaving the Anglican communion, which suggest themselves, may be at once dismissed. It must be as clear to any one who reads Mr. Mozley's 'Reminiscences' as any fact about another man can be, that the Rector of Cholderton was influenced in his course by no sordid or pecuniary motives. It is equally clear that Mr. Mozley was not kept from Rome by any strong speculative objections to the dogmas of Roman Catholicism. Mariolatry, the worship of the saints, transubstantiation, all the doctrines which not only zealous Protestants but many High Churchmen feel it hard to swallow, present, we gather, no special difficulty to Mr. Mozley. The course of argument by which he justifies his own beliefs or half-beliefs is difficult to follow. The one thing which is clear is, that he could easily have overcome any theoretical difficulties in the way of reconciliation with Rome. Yet with Rome he has never been reconciled. Mr. Mozley's leader and friend after friend passed over from Anglicanism to Romanism, but he himself did not follow. What was the explanation? The answer is best given in his own words:

"But why did I go so far, and why did I not go further? Why enter upon arguments, and not accept their conclusions? Why advance to stand still, and in doing so commit myself to a final retreat? The reasons of this lame and impotent conclusion lay within myself, wide apart from the great controversy in which I was but an intruder. I was never really serious, in a sober, business-like fashion I had neither the power nor the will to enter into any great argument with the resolution to accept the legitimate conclusion. Even when I was sacrificing my days, my strength, my means, my prospects, my peace and quiet, all I had, to the cause, it was an earthly contest, not a spiritual one. It occupied me; it excited me; it gratified my vanity; it soothed my self-complacency; it identified me with what I honestly believed to be a very grand crusade; it offered me the hopes of contributing to great achievements. But good as the cause might be, and considerable as my part might be in it, I was never the better man for it, and, not being the better, I never was the wiser. *In fact, it was to me, all or most of it, an outside affair.*"

The words we have underlined contain a solution which is clearly true, as far as it goes, of the puzzle presented by Mr. Mozley's conduct. The religious movement was to him "an outside affair." We may, perhaps, go a step further, and say that while education, position, and the force of circumstances had made him a clergyman, and while he had a sincere interest in clerical matters, he was not by nature well fitted for a clerical career. As an active combatant in an ecclesiastical crusade, he was in a false position. If error he made, the mistake lay in accepting a leading position in a movement which did not interest the whole of his nature. The extreme and melancholy candor with which he confesses or reveals his own real or supposed errors would of itself disarm hostile criticism. But the truth is, that a critic can be fairer to Mr. Mozley than he is to himself. His virtues were at least as much the cause of the apparent failure of his life as were his deficiencies. Had he seceded to Rome, his career would have presented an appearance of moral consistency, but he would not really have been true to himself. With a secular turn of mind, he had also a fund of common sense which was lacking to some of his associates. Like most Englishmen, he tested the reasonableness, and therefore the rightness, of conduct by its obvious results. A logician might prove that, granting premises which Mr. Mozley probably still holds to be true, the Rector of Cholderton ought to have followed or to have preceded Newman to Rome; but we may feel pretty sure that Mr. Mozley's judgment, which is but another name for conscience, made him rightly unwilling to act upon premises which led, however logically, to a practical conclusion opposed to his common sense. "It is difficult," it has been said, "to keep Englishmen up to the dogmatic level." In other words, Englishmen are prone to verify theories by practical results. If Mr. Mozley could not keep himself up to the "dogmatic level," he followed the dictates of common sense. Of the enthusiasts who assumed the cross and then turned back from the crusades, hundreds were, we may believe, influenced neither by fear nor by self-interest, but by the silent and only half-conscious conviction that to perform the duties of parents, of husbands, and of citizens at home was better than to satisfy religious emotion by the sight of Palestine. Of such men, their thoughts and their struggles, the world hears far too little. It is no small gain to have the confession of a modern crusader who turned back from the war without reaching his Jerusalem.

RECENT NOVELS.

My Watch Below; or, Yarns Spun when Off Duty. By W. Clark Russell. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Multum in Parvo. A series of good stories, with no waste of words. By Charles Reade. Illustrated. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A Tight Squeeze; or, the Adventures of a Gentleman who, on a wager of ten thousand dollars, undertook to go from New York to New Orleans in three weeks without money, as a professional tramp. By "Staats." Boston: Lee & Shepard.

Look Before You Leap. A Novel. By Mrs. Alexander. Henry Holt & Co. [Leisure Hour Series, No. 139.]

Le Million. Roman Parisien. Par Jules Claretie. Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.

Count Sylvius. From the German of Georg Horn. By M. J. Safford. G. W. Harlan.

The Bridal March, and other Stories. By Björnstjerne Bjornson. Translated from the Norse, by Rasmus B. Anderson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Vice-Versâ; or, A Lesson to Fathers. By F. Anstey. D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

MR. RUSSELL'S latest nautical venture consists of a collection of short tales of the sea, relating to almost every sort of ship and voyage. The stories are too loaded down with description, though the description is very good; but no one can look through the volume without finding something to his taste. For those who like

tales of acute suffering, endurance, and bravery, we can recommend the "Wreck of the *Indian Chief*," while, at the opposite extreme, nothing could be better than the "Flying Dutchman," a yarn spun by one of the crew of the *Sallie G.*, an American bark, which not only sighted the phantom ship, as many other vessels have done, but was actually boarded by her commander, and boarded her in return. The conversation which takes place among the crew on sighting her is perfect in its way:

"I saw the mate working away at the brig's starn with a spyglass, and then he turns to the captain, who had come on deck, and says, 'Captain,' says he, 'I can't see no name.' 'Here, give me hold,' says the captain, and he took the glass and looked himself, and then says, 'No; there's no name. But I'll tell 'ee what, Mr. Anderson, there's *bin* a name there, but the water's washed the letterin' away.' 'Well,' says the mate, 'I reckon she must be a diving job. They've fished her up out o' deep water, and ye may take her to be a showman's speculation, sir.' The cook was standing near the pumps looking at her, and he says to me, who was anigh him, 'Bill,' he says, 'd'ye notice her deck-house is green?' 'Yes,' says I, 'I see that, cook,' I says. 'That means, Bill,' says he, in a slow way, and looking strange, 'that she's a Dutchman.' 'She ought to be,' says I. 'I don't know that we ought to be glad that we met her, Bill,' says the cook; 'I'd as lief be shipmates with a Fin as keep that wessel company.' 'Why, what ails ye, cook?' says I; 'what's the matter with the brig?' 'Look at her,' says he, shaking his head and speaking hollow like. I thought he wasn't worth while paying attention to. The cook, sir, was a man as believed in ghosts, and was a werry ignorant person. He couldn't read nor write, but he was extraordinary positive."

The beauty of this story is that it is absolutely impossible to tell at the end whether the sailor himself believes any part of it, or whether he simply regards the spinning of such yarns as the proper tribute to be paid to superstition, or whether he is really an agnostic humorist, who regards the invention of such a yarn merely as a joke. Superstition must die out on sea as it has on land, and possibly the present generation of tars are beginning to take the same views of legends like that of the Flying Dutchman as are taken by landsmen.

If Herbert Spencer's law of economy in style were the only one to be attended to, Charles Reade would be one of the greatest masters of style in English fiction. He has always prided himself on not wasting words, and in his 'Multum in Parvo' he advertises the fact in the title. The stories which he tells in it are three in number, but the first, the "History of an Acre," is not so much a story as an article designed to show up the wickedness of attempting to "improve" Albert Terrace, Knightsbridge, in London, and the manner in which the dastardly attempts that have been made have been foiled by the author and others. "The Knightsbridge Mystery" is a short murder story, and "Singleheart and Doubleface" a tale of true love, blackguardism, desertion, and bigamy. Sarah Mansell, the heroine, is married to a man who first takes to drink, then wastes, and finally steals her money, and in the end robs her of the savings of several years, in order to carry them off to another woman with whom he has made a pretended marriage in New York. Sarah is true to the wretch through everything till she discovers the existence of the second wife, when she suddenly turns to stone, gets back the money, and sails for England, waving the notes, which he supposes to have been stolen from him, from the deck of an Atlantic steamer. This plot illustrates one of Mr. Reade's peculiarities, his belief that the key to woman's character is always sex. His women are all very much alike because they are generally guided by those qualities of mind and heart which all women possess in common. They are capable of much fidelity, they are unintellectual, they have a strong instinct of maternity, they can endure cruelty, lies, abandonment, and imposition and outrage of all kinds from a man they love; but the passion of jealousy once roused, they are changed, and all their affection is turned into coldness, into bitterness and hate. His women are not at all given to subtleties, or analysis, or introspection. Their business is to love, and round this all their traits revolve. It is very much the same at bottom with his men, though as his men are less interesting than his women, less attention has been paid by critics to this. But all his men are masculine types rather than individuals. They behave, either as villains or good men, wonderfully naturally. Yet we do not often remember their individual traits. We can hardly form a picture in our mind of any of his heroes or heroines. This may be partly owing to the rapidity of style to which we have referred, and which never seems to leave him time for any of those details which make us really familiar, at least for the time, with the characters of many less powerful writers of fiction. We rush at lightning speed through his books, and feel often as if he not merely liked to economize words, but hated the waste of time occupied in telling the story, and would if he could resort to algebraic symbols and formulas. His fondness for the dramatic form is closely connected with this. He sees a scene before him, which he has not the patience to describe, but must bring out as fast as possible with theatrical verbal *coups*. Notwithstanding this blemish, 'Multum in Parvo' shows that he retains his power as a story-teller, and many a reader of "Single Heart and Doubleface" will find an added pleasure in the memories it calls up of the fascination produced by 'Never too Late to Mend' and 'Christie Johnstone.'

The author of 'A Tight Squeeze' appears to have made a study of tramp life in the United States, and his story, if it does not throw much new light on this subject, furnishes sufficient entertainment. It abounds in tramp slang, a dialect which most readers will find new to them; and the adventures of Mr. Benjamin Cleveland on his way from New York to New Orleans involve, besides a full account of the difficulties and dangers of tramp life, a story of love and romance which, if improbable, is wild and exciting. As a novel, the book is, however, hardly good enough to merit notice. Its value consists in its picture of the class in which Mr. Cleveland temporarily enrolled himself. The tramp was hardly known in the United States till the close of the war; in fact, the word itself was not included in our vocabulary. Within the past fifteen or sixteen years the type has become common over most of the United States, and in some parts of the country the species has become a social pest, and has been legislated against as such. If "Staats's" account of the matter is true, though he does not suggest this explanation himself, the tramp has become common in the United States because the temper of the people offers him opportunities for an easy existence such as he could hardly find anywhere else in the world. A taste for liquor is mentioned as being in most cases what leads to tramp life; but that is clearly not what enables the tramp to get along so well, after he has acquired it. His real capital is the easy-going good-nature and benevolence of the people which insures him a night's rest and a meal, sometimes money and clothes, no matter how degraded he may be. He never starves, and he has many opportunities for getting a comfortable night's shelter, and even on many railroads no very serious efforts are made to prevent his stealing rides. In Pittsburg, if "Staats" is to be believed, the benevolent have provided a "Home" where any tramp may get a comfortable housing and meals, and this place is said to have a nightly attendance of from 250 to 400 all the year round. This is undoubtedly an extreme case, but if such an institution exists in any city, it of course affords a premium on vagabondage. The objection to punishing tramping as a crime is that it leads to the punishment of honest men who are merely temporarily out of work; but to compulsory labor there can hardly be any objection. A man really in search of work will not object to such a punishment, and the true tramp will receive a treatment which will do him more good than anything in the world. "Staats's" idea seems to be that tramping will never cease till the liquor trade is put down. Like all Prohibitionists, he looks forward to the suppression of the liquor trade as sure to lead to the cessation of crime, vagabondage, and all forms of misery throughout the world. But, as we have said, the desire for liquor is only a symptom of the disease; and, besides this, we cannot afford to wait for the prohibitory millennium. We have the tramp with us already, and we must take his liking for liquor as an unfortunate concomitant of his condition, over which we have little or no check, and proceed to impose on him those restraints of incarceration and labor which, for the time being, at any rate, bring his tramping to an end.

Mrs. Alexander seldom writes a dull novel, and she has the art of making use of the improbable in such a way as to make it seem natural, and yet not lose its interest. Her tenderness of heart will not permit her to bring her characters to bad ends, and 'Look Before You Leap' is far from being a tragedy. Yet there is suffering enough in it to bring a tear to the eye of a sympathetic reader; in fact, the description of poor Marie Delvigne's distress and misery when, on her wedding-day, her husband falsely accuses her of imposing upon him and leaves her, is heartrending. The women are good throughout, and the men are far from bad, though as a woman Mrs. Alexander understands, and is able to describe, better the operations of the feminine than the masculine mind and heart. But the ingenuity with which the improbable incidents of the tale are worked together is really its most remarkable feature. That Marie should be able to hide herself away in London, notwithstanding the active search that is going on for her, is probable enough, but what shall we say of her actually falling in with, and being protected and sheltered by, her own husband's half-brother, without either discovering who the other is? And yet, owing to the fact of the quarrel between Neville and Watson, all this seems natural enough in reading it.

There can no longer be any doubt that a change has come over the French, and that they are showing a far greater interest in literature. Not long ago 10,000 was considered an enormous sale for a novel. Now, one novel of M. Zola's has sold nearly 120,000, and another has sold nearly 100,000 in two or three years. M. Claretie's 'M. le Ministre' has sold 50,000, and M. Halévy's 'Abbé Constantin' 30,000 in barely a year; and now 'Le Million' comes across the water to us, and though in reality it is "just ready," it is already in its tenth edition. Nor are these greatly-increased sales caused by any scandal or any meretricious attempt to enforce attention — except in M. Zola's case, of course. 'M. le Ministre' has but little "Frenchiness," and the 'Abbé Constantin' none at all, nor have any of Mme. Gréville's pleasant novels, which average a sale of 10,000 each. Indeed, there are many encouraging symptoms of a clearing of the moral atmosphere in French fiction, and of these perhaps the success of 'Le Million' is one of the plainest. Like 'M. le Ministre,' it is a novel of modern life in Paris,

and it is constructed on the same lines as its predecessors, although the subject is less striking and less strong. It has the usual brilliant sketches of certain aspects of modern Paris, but the story itself is purely domestic, and its interest lies chiefly in the study of two or three feminine characters. There is a curious similarity in the machinery of the plot in 'Le Million' with that used in Mr. Norris's 'Heaps of Money.' But in both the English story and the French the interest of the plot is secondary to the development and transformation of the heroine's character under the sudden accession of wealth.

Georg Horn's 'Count Sylvius' was well worth the trouble of translation, although it does not contain anything very novel in its plot or very subtle in its analysis of character. It does not belong to the realistic school, inasmuch as all the good characters are persistently good and clever, and all the bad persistently bad, while at the end the former are rewarded by prosperity and a triple marriage, and the latter either killed or routed. But as these results are not brought about in the manner of an operatic finale, but as a legitimate outcome of the narrative, the reader is kept in pleasant suspense till the end. Good use is made of the three familiar types of a Jesuitical intriguer, a count who has gambled away his fortune, and, having turned lawyer, displays remarkable acuteness of intellect, and an aged naturalist, whose laborious researches among old monastic manuscripts provide him with a hint which leads to the discovery of vast treasures among the ruins of a monastery. One of the heroines is a young girl of aristocratic descent, who is thrown on her own resources, struggles bravely against the temptations which surround her, and ends as heiress to the discovered treasures. The other is a proud, wayward society belle, whose inordinate vanity induces her to make secret use of the juices of a poisonous plant to improve her complexion. The discovery of this plant in her room leads to her implication in a trial for an attempt at poisoning, from which she is rescued by the astuteness of the Count. Although the description of this trial is the most exciting thing in the book, it does not subject the author to the suspicion of being a professional detective. The oddest thing about this work is an occasional naïveté in the style and the dialogue, which gives rise to the conjecture that they were written by another hand—probably the author's wife or his amanuensis; almost equally odd is the confession of one of the girls that she would never wish to marry a so-called handsome man, because such a man is "more unendurable than a woman who smokes cigars." The translation is good.

Nine stories of peasant life in Norway, of which "The Bridal March" is the first and longest, make up the volume bearing this title. In them Björnson does for Norway what Auerbach did for the Black Forest or Daudet for Elsass. Half pastoral, half idyl, they have the true poetic charm, and one finds in them the whole range of experience of a still primitive people. The sketch of the horse Blakken, "the greatest wonder of the diocese"—"Bear Blakken" they called him for his prowess in defending the mare and her foal—and the little story of "A Dangerous Wooing" are in a sort parallel passages. Leif, who dies in his attempt to reach the eagle's nest, is in spirit the elder brother of Thorvald, the priest's son, who carries off with him the whole school to meet the victorious bear-hunter and his booty.

"'Let us go,' said he, as he pulled open the door, so excited that he could scarcely speak.

"'But the schoolmaster?' asked some of the children.

"'The deuce take the schoolmaster! The bear! The bear!' cried Thorvald, and could say no more.

"'Hurrah!' shouted all, both girls and boys, and up from their seats, and out through the door, they sprang, and off they ran over field and wood to Boën, as though there was no such thing as a schoolmaster in the whole world."

They are strange men, strong as giants, bold to recklessness, but withal of an obedient fidelity that silently accepts authority. A widow is left with six little sons. The eldest two promise, over the father's corpse, to take care of the others—a promise they consider fulfilled only when the youngest brother is confirmed. Then they marry and go away. Later the mother decides that two shall stay with her, and two shall have half the farm to themselves. "But of the couple that left home, one must marry—for they would need help about the house and the cattle; and the mother named the girl whom she would like to have for a daughter-in-law." But which son shall marry?

"Finally they agreed with the mother that the girl should be allowed to decide the matter. And up at the summer stable one evening the mother asked her if she would be willing to come to the plains as a wife, and the girl proved to be quite willing. Well, then, which of the boys would she like to marry? for she could have whichever one she pleased. . . . So the next to the eldest married the girl, and the eldest moved with him into the new home."

Still later the mother's health began to fail, and there must be more help at the farm. The youngest brother goes to engage permanently a girl who had sometimes worked for them.

"Now the youngest must for some time have had a secret liking for this girl, for when he came to speak to her he did it in such a singular manner that she thought he was asking her to marry him, and she said, 'Yes.' The youth was frightened, and going at once to his brothers told them what a mistake had been made. They all four became very grave, and none of them dared utter the first word."

But the mother grows suddenly ill, so, "The youngest proposed that as long as the mother lay in bed no change must be made, and this was agreed to; for the girl must have no more to care for than the mother. Thus it remained." It lasted for sixteen years; "the sons met every evening for devotions, at her bedside," and one day this was for the last time. "And when the body was laid to rest, and the six sons had filled the grave, the whole procession repaired to the church, for there the youngest son was to be married; the brothers would have it so, because this funeral and wedding really belonged together." The other extreme is vividly and beautifully sketched in the second half of "The Bridal March," "when the wonder and rapture of love burst upon Mildred and Hans in a moment, in a single look."

As to the translation, though there are passages which might be improved, Professor Anderson has performed the very difficult task before him with much skill. An original so low in tone, so simple in drawing, is ten times harder to reproduce adequately than a more highly colored picture. On the one side is the danger of exaggeration, on the other the constant tendency of simplicity to fall into flatness.

'Vice-Versâ' is the most successful extravaganza which has appeared in English for many years. This is not, perhaps, saying much; for extravaganza-writing, though often attempted, generally fails in English, from a certain clumsiness of imagination which is apt to produce mere grotesque exaggeration in the place of genuine humor. Mr. Trollope, in his 'Fixed Period,' and the author of the 'Revolt of Man' have tried their hands at satirical extravaganza, and have succeeded in producing only extravagant satire. 'Vice-Versâ' recalls, in a way, some of About's best stories—'The Nose of a Notary' and 'The Man with the Broken Ear'—but it is thoroughly English in conception and in execution. By the accidental aid of an Eastern talisman, a father and his son exchange bodies, without any change of mind or character being effected. Paul Bultitude, the father, a sober, practical, money-getting merchant of advanced years, a stern parent who has no sympathies with youth or its follies, becomes, in outward appearance, the counterpart of his son Dick, a high-spirited, good-humored, and irresponsible boy of fourteen, who is just on the point of being sent back to school. Dick, seeing that the opportunity is too good to be lost, invokes the powers of magic to produce a corresponding metamorphosis in himself, and, *presto!* he becomes an exact copy of his late father, whom, in the most unfilial manner, he packs off to school in his stead. The father, of course, cannot resist; but at school he has a considerably worse time of it than Dick ever had, as his character bears no resemblance to Dick's, and at once attracts the very unfavorable attention of his school-fellows. They, of course, think him to be Dick, and cannot understand the change which has come over his whole character. Instead of being bold and courageous, as he had been at the last term, he is practically non-resistant, and shows no fight, no matter how hard pressed, except on one occasion, when, exasperated beyond endurance, he hits one of his persecutors a foul blow—this, however, making his case worse than it was before. He takes no interest in the sports in which Dick was most proficient, neglects and outrages the feelings of the little girl to whom he had been attentive, and, more horrible than all the rest, turns out to be a sneak and tell-tale. His conversation is not that of a boy at all, and, altogether, the popular Dick Bultitude is converted into a monster, to be alternately persecuted and shunned by his former friends and companions. Meanwhile the real Dick is playing his father's part quite as badly, but with much more satisfaction to himself. He proceeds to lead the life which, as a boy, he regarded as the natural privilege of advanced years—that is, to do exactly what he pleases, to fill his house with a society congenial to his tastes, to attend to his father's business by simply taking what money out of it he needs for his somewhat lavish mode of life, to make love to his cook, and, in fact, to scandalize his friends and neighbors in a variety of ways which have a serious effect upon his reputation as a business man. How the knot is untied and Paul and Dick restored to their respective bodies, we shall leave the reader to find out for himself. In the end, no mischief has been done, but Paul has been taught a lesson as to the proper treatment of children by their fathers.

The stern and unsympathetic father is so rare a character in American life that Mr. Anstey's "lesson" will be rather wasted upon parents on this side of the Atlantic; but the picture of Paul Bultitude at school is of universal interest, and explains completely the success of the book. The contrast between the boy way of looking at life and the mature way, as illustrated by the false Dick's adventures at Dr. Grimstone's school, is as good as it could possibly be; and Mr. Anstey has managed, by means of his thorough comprehension of boy character, to give a wonderful effect of naturalness to an apparently impossible situation. He has a great gift of humor, and his boy dialogues are wonderful. The school (a private one) is evidently taken from life, but so true is it to the universal traits of all private schools that Americans will find themselves quite at home in it. The book is too long; after the first surprise and amusement that the situation at the school produces, the reader becomes accustomed to it, and the effect

fades out. But the first third or half of the story is extremely amusing, and it is difficult to imagine any one who has ever been a boy and gone to a boarding-school finding it anything but extremely diverting.

Selected Odes of Pindar. With Notes and an Introduction, by Thomas D. Seymour, Professor of the Greek Language and Literature in Yale College. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. i.–252.

Professor Seymour has found and filled a gap in the list of college text-books. Of all the great Greek writers, Pindar is the least read. We have before us the catalogues of several colleges of established reputation in whose "courses of study" the name of the poet does not appear. The mention of two of the many reasons for this fact will be sufficient for our present purpose. In the first place, Pindar is what college-boys call "awful hard." An undergraduate may have completed his Greek course with credit to himself and satisfaction to his professor, and yet, lay before him a copy of Pindar containing the text only, and he will almost certainly stick fast in the first two lines of the first ode. A good commentary and a great deal of it are required. In the second place, we have hitherto had no edition of Pindar, edited in English, which was suitable for a college text-book. Editions with suitable notes of the whole of Pindar's works are too bulky and too costly. A fitting selection, accompanied by the proper apparatus, did not exist. The limited demand and the want of a good edition have tended to prolong each other. Publishers did not like to invest their capital in a text-book for which apparently only a small sale could be expected; professors hesitated to introduce the study of any part of the works of an author of whom no suitable text-book could be procured. Professor Seymour has brought to bear the learning, ability, and good taste requisite to prepare, and Messrs. Ginn, Heath & Co. have had the courage to publish, the needed book.

We have no space for minute criticism, but will endeavor to give a general account of the work and make a few suggestions which would, perhaps, improve the second edition which we hope will be required. The introduction gives an account of the life and works of Pindar, of the manuscripts and editions of his works, and of the great national festivals and games in honor of victories at which the odes were composed. We know of no account which is at once so full, so interesting, and so useful. The reader finishes that portion which treats of almost the only institutions of Greece to which the epithet "national" could be properly applied, with the impression produced by the perusal of an interesting book—not of a chapter in a dry treatise on archæology. Yet he will seldom find so much learning within so small a space. We would, with some hesitation, suggest whether it would not be well to add after the introduction one—perhaps two—of the five Greek biographies of Pindar which have come down to us, and of which Professor Seymour gives us some account—the first as a very favorable specimen of the versification of a Greek grammarian, and the fourth as a specimen of the Greek written eighteen centuries after Pindar's time. After the introduction is a chronological table of such political and literary events as it is most desirable for the beginner in Pindaric studies to know. Then comes the Greek text, occupying seventy-three pages. Fifteen odes are selected—exactly one-third of the whole number extant. The remaining six pages contain the more important fragments of odes which have for the most part perished. With two unimportant exceptions, the text is that of Theodor Bergk's fourth edition (Leipzig, 1878).

The selection includes the fourth Pythian, by far the longest of all the Pindaric odes. We think it would have been well to include the fifth Pythian. The two were written to celebrate the same event, but the fifth is almost certainly the genuine triumphal ode written at the request of the victor Arcesilaus, King of Cyrene. The fourth was a piece of job-work written at the request of a third party for the furtherance of a political object. Whatever may be thought of the propriety of including the fifth Pythian, we are decidedly of opinion that room should have been found or made for the tenth Pythian. That ode, judged solely upon its merits, may not be more entitled to a place than any one of those selected, but it has an historical and literary interest apart from its merits. It is the earliest of the extant works of Pindar. It was written when he was only twenty years old, in honor of the victory in the long foot-race for boys, won by Hippocles, one of the powerful Thessalian family, the Aleuadæ. Notwithstanding some remarks in the introduction of Professor Seymour, we think there is strong evidence, for which we have here no room, tending to show that it was with this ode that Pindar commenced his career as a professional poet and musician; for it must never be forgotten that these odes were intended not to be read merely, but to be "performed." The author wrote the verses, and composed the music and arranged the evolutions of the dance by which they were accompanied. That before the composition of this ode Pindar had already given evidence of his ability is highly probable, but we strongly incline to the opinion that had he been a modern composer this ode is the one which he would have selected to mark as his "Opus 1." At any rate, it is the earliest of his works of which we know anything. It is the composition of a boy in honor of the victory of a boy. As such, it will attract the attention of boys, and deserves a place in a selection made for their use.

Professor Seymour's commentary, which follows the text, gives abundant evidence of minute and thorough scholarship. There is a special introduction to each ode explaining the occasion of its composition, followed by notes on words and passages. We notice one important point in the construction of the notes. Whenever a passage is cited from another author, or from works of Pindar not included in this volume, the passage is given with sufficient fulness for all the purposes of its citation. It is too often the fault of text-books, especially of English text-books, that the student, when he encounters a difficulty, finds a note upon it giving him the interesting information that in some other book, which most probably he has no means of consulting, he will find something which may help him. We called attention to this fault in a recent note on Mr. Jerram's edition of the "Helena" of Euripides. But even to others than college students it is a comfort to be able to read a book without being obliged to have a whole classical library at hand, or, if you have one, being obliged to consult it every five minutes in order to derive any pleasure or profit from the book itself. A chapter on the dialect of Pindar, one on the metres, and three very good indexes, complete the work. The schemes of the metres are constructed according to the principles of Dr. J. H. H. Schmidt, which within the last few years have worked such a revolution in the theory of metrical composition.

To students and professors who may desire to include in their college course some portion of the works of Pindar, this edition offers advantages possessed by no other. Those who may intend to make the works of Pindar a special object of study can do no better than to begin with a careful perusal of this edition, as being at once the shortest and best general introduction and guide to more extensive researches.

Memoir of Daniel Macmillan. By Thomas Hughes. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

Daniel Macmillan, one of the founders of the publishing house that bears his name, was no ordinary man. Without a university training, he had yet acquired an extensive knowledge of books and general literature, and he looked upon himself as called upon to share in the great work of the advancement of the world in knowledge and goodness. The selling and publishing of books was only a means to a very high end.

"Bless your heart," he writes to a friend while still a shopman at £80 a year, "you never surely thought you were merely working for bread! Don't you know that you are cultivating good taste among the natives of Glasgow; helping to unfold a love of the beautiful among those who are slaves to the useful, or what they call the useful? I look on you as a great teacher or prophet, doing work just of the kind that God has appointed you to do. We booksellers, if we are faithful to our task, are trying to destroy, and are helping to destroy, all kinds of confusion, and are aiding our great Taskmaster to reduce the world into order, and beauty, and harmony. Bread we must have, and gain it by the sweat of our brow, or of our brain, and that is noble, because God-appointed. Yet that is not all. As truly as God is, we are his ministers, and help to minister to the well-being of the spirits of men. At the same time it is our duty to manage our affairs wisely, keep our minds easy, and not trade beyond our means" (pp. 115, 116).

All his life he was a profoundly religious man, and strove to realize in action the theory of life he had embraced. "Of all men I have known personally," says his biographer, "he was the one who lived most constantly and consciously eye to eye with death"; for the disease of which he died struck him before he was twenty, and he was never a really sound man from that day. His early training, too, had deepened his religious feeling, so that from his earliest years his mind was filled with awful thoughts of life and death. Though poor, he belonged to a race of Scottish peasants of whom Carlyle's father may be taken as the type. Than his father, he writes, "a braver, a more upright man never left this world," while his mother was "the most perfect lady in all Scotland," there being "nobody like her in the whole world." Withal, however, there was in him a perfect sincerity and veracity, and a corresponding hatred of mere sentimentalism and "the great deal of humbug about religious people," whom he wished "to be manly, and frank, and open, and to give up using slang phrases." For, not the least interesting feature of the narrative is its exhibition of the process by which the spirit of the age laid hold of Daniel Macmillan, and the old clothes of his Scottish Calvinism were laid aside in favor of the enlarged ideas of which he himself, as well as his friend Maurice, was a distinguished advocate.

The author has styled his volume a "Memoir." It is in reality a well-written biography, interesting—it might perhaps have been still more so—for many side-lights which it throws upon contemporary life. In an interview with Archdeacon Hare, reported in one of his most characteristic letters, Macmillan writes that, speaking of Wordsworth, "Hare says that notwithstanding his greatness he really and heartily admires very few poets. Milton and Spenser, these he loves and appreciates; scarcely any other. Hare doubts his hearty admiration of Shakspere." And again, subsequently: "He was wrapt up in his own view of things, which hindered him from understanding and even seeing what was

not included in his own world." The following is a graphic sketch of Carlyle as a lecturer in London, drawn by Daniel, who was present once:

"He lectures without notes of any kind, having thrown aside even the piece of paper, like a visiting card, which he used to bring with him. He is very far from being a fluent speaker. Sometimes he rises into eloquence and gets applauded; sometimes he comes to a dead stand for want of a word, quietly looking in the face of his audience till he finds the word; sometimes he leaves his sentences in a quite unfinished state, and passes on to something else. He rarely moves his hands from the sides of his desk. When he does it is to rub his two forefingers along his forehead, just above his eyebrows. This seems to be of great use, enabling him to get on much better—at least I suppose so, because he always said his best things after one or two of these rubs.

"His whole appearance and manner is exceedingly simple. I never saw any one so completely free from anything like pretension. His accent and pronunciation is very broad Scotch; much more so, I think, than Dr. Chalmers's. His dress is plain and simple enough, but no way remarkable.

"It was a great treat to get a sight of such an audience. I never saw so many fine faces—true aristocrats, according to my Radical notion of an aristocrat. There must be great satisfaction to a thinker uttering his thoughts to such listeners. The number, as near as one could guess, was about three hundred. From the lecture-room door to Portman Square was quite lined with carriages. This shows that very many of his hearers belong to the 'influential classes'" (pp. 92, 93).

Architecture: Classic and Early Christian. By T. Roger Smith, F.R.I.B.A., and John Slater, R.A., F.R.I.B.A. London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

THIS little handbook, addressed, not to students, but to the general public, contains, within its compass of 250 pages, a well-arranged and compendious description of the architecture of Greece, Rome, and of the Early Christians, with brief statements of some primitive Asiatic forms. It answers, for the most part in a satisfactory and intelligent manner, the questions which the reader of general history is constantly asking respecting the development, characteristics, and significance of the greater architectural styles. In supplying this information, the writers have, with good judgment, proposed to confine themselves to the statement of well-ascertained facts and accepted theories, avoiding all open questions and all temptations for brilliant writing. The historical sequence is traced in successive brief chapters, embracing in due order the architecture of Egypt, Babylon, Assyria, Persia, Greece, the Etruscans, and of Rome, followed by their Byzantine, Romanesque, and Mohammedan derivatives, preparatory to the treatment of Gothic and Renaissance architecture, which occupies a separate volume. The only interruption to this natural sequence is a short chapter on Hindu, Chinese, and Japanese architecture, which is somewhat grotesquely interjected between those on Persia and Greece, having no discovered relations with either.

The method pursued in each chapter is to present the historical statement of the style; to describe the progress of its development from previous forms; to define its general characteristics in outline, with illustrations by a very few examples of the more monumental and better-known types; and to close with an analysis of the plan, walls, roofs, openings, columns, ornaments, and architectural character. The comparison of these successive analyses, assisted by the numerous woodcuts, which, though for the most part such as have become conventionalized by long service in similar treatises, are well chosen and clearly executed, cannot fail to justify to the unprofessional reader this system of exposition. But though the plan of the book very properly, as we have said, excludes the discussion of disputed points, and recognizes only established facts, it is to be regretted that, in respect to the all-important hypæthral question, the authors have presented only the theories of Bötticher and Fergusson, without noting that contrary views are held by other writers equally versed in archæological knowledge, such as Prof. Reber and J. T. Clarke. We note also that, in treating of the early Christian basilicas, the interesting question of their orientation is not touched upon, nor the change of the apse from its position at the west end, as in the early basilicas, to the east end, as in the later and mediæval churches. Upon page 219 a woodcut of carving from the Golden Door of Jerusalem is given in illustration of the influence of Byzantine art upon the sculpture of Syria. It is curious that an authority so learned as M. de Saulcy uses this same example in illustration of his ingenious and poetical theory that the art of Byzantium found some of its most characteristic inspirations upon the soil of Judea itself—the birthplace of Christianity. It would not be difficult to quote other statements either of doubtful or not-unquestioned authority, but on the whole this little work presents the essential facts of the case with better scholarship and in better form than any treatise of similar scope with which we are acquainted. As such, we commend it heartily to the general reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anstey, F. Vice-Versâ; or, A Lesson to Fathers. D. Appleton & Co.
Barr, Amelia E. The Young People of Shakespeare's Dramas. D. Appleton & Co.
Björnson, B. Captain Mansana, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Bryant, W. C. Three Great Poems: Thanatopsis, The Flood of Years, Among the Trees. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.
Charles Dickens Birthday Book. Thomas Whittaker. $1 25.
Clark, A. B. L. L. L.; or, Fifty Law Lessons. D. Appleton & Co.
Dion, H. Science Without God. Thomas Whittaker. $1 25.
Dime Series of Question-Books. U. S. History and Civil Government; Physiology; Theory and Practice; Literature; A Tractate on Education; The New Education. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 10 cents each.
Eggleston, G. C. The Wreck of the *Red-Bird*. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Grove, G. Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Parts 15, 16. Schoberlechner to Sketches. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.
Jones, L. E. The Best Reading: a Classified Record of Current Literature. Second Series. 1876 to 1882. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Keay, J. S. Spoiling the Egyptians: a Tale of Shame. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 40 cents.
Lazarus, Emma. Songs of a Semite. New York: *American Hebrew*.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 12, 1882.

The Week.

MR. CLEVELAND, in accepting the Democratic nomination for the Governorship in this State, had the great advantage of not being obliged to apologize for anything. There was in his case no need for an appeal to popular pity on account of his having become a candidate for a high office in a way he was ashamed of. He was at liberty to tell the people without circumlocution what views he entertained upon questions of public interest, and what sort of a Governor he expected to be if elected. This he has done in fewer words than his competitor, Mr. Folger, found himself under the necessity of using. Mr. Cleveland's letter of acceptance cannot be called a brilliant or artistic production. There are no figures of speech and no rhetorical exaggerations in it. Its tone is simple, sober, and direct, with the exception of the paragraph on "free canals," in which Mr. Cleveland, like both party platforms and like Mr. Folger, believing that the people are thinking deeply upon it, abstains from expressing any opinion of his own. He lays stress on the necessity of surrounding the primary election "by such safeguards as will secure the absolutely free and uncontrolled action" of the real public opinion of political parties, and the position he takes on this point is so well supported by argument that he may be expected to give every well-considered legislative measure serving that end an energetic and intelligent support. What he says about the reform of the civil service might have been more specific, but he declares against the levying of assessments for partisan purposes in two sentences which could scarcely be more emphatic. The most striking peculiarity of Mr. Cleveland's letter is, however, that no reader unacquainted with the party standing of its author would, from the principles expressed, the measures advocated, and the language employed in it, be able to form the slightest opinion as to whether it was the letter of a Democratic, or a Republican, or an Independent, non-partisan candidate.

The platform adopted by the Democratic Convention of Connecticut is probably the longest and heaviest production of the kind produced by any party within the memory of this generation. It looks as if the authors of it thought their rank and file to be sadly in need of elementary instruction about the nature of our Government. But in the cumbrous mass of generalities and time-honored platitudes, and among a number of vague recommendations (of which that of a revenue tariff with incidental protection may serve as a sample), we find one paragraph which deals a fair and sturdy blow at a new trick of equivocation which has recently become popular with party managers. The Connecticut Democrats declare that, as "the adoption of an amendment to the State Constitution is a most important exercise of the sovereign power vested in the people," and as "the exercise of that power has been wisely guarded by requiring such amendment to be first approved by the House of Representatives; to be then published with the laws, and submitted to the people; to be then approved by two-thirds of each branch of the General Assembly, and then, and then only, to be submitted to the people for rejection or adoption," therefore no member of the Legislature should vote to submit to the people a constitutional amendment of which he does not approve. In other words, a constitutional amendment is to be put through several stages of careful consideration and discussion, and the vote of a legislator in favor of submitting it to the people should be looked upon as equivalent to a vote recommending to the people the adoption of that amendment. When, therefore, a political party contents itself with the declaration that the subject-matter of a constitutional amendment has passed beyond the cognizance of parties, and that they have nothing to recommend *pro* or *con*, but simply to request the people to think deeply about it, that party is guilty of a cowardly evasion of its responsibilities.

Mr. Dickson, the foreman of the late Star-route jury, like so many people who have had experience of investigations, has a prejudice against them, particularly when they affect his own conduct. He has written a letter strongly objecting to any investigation under the direction of the Attorney-General of the charges of bribery in the Star-route cases, on the ground that they have been made against persons connected with the Department of justice, at the head of which the Attorney-General is. He wants to have the investigation taken out of "interested hands." It should be made, he thinks, under "the direction of the court before whom the case was tried." It seems reasonable that the court should investigate the matter, but then Mr. Dickson is overscrupulous in objecting to the Attorney-General making any inquiry at all. A moment's reflection will convince him that it is his duty to inquire into the doings of his subordinates, as, if they are engaged in bribing juries, they ought to be dismissed. Mr. Brewster may be a terribly wicked and corrupt man, and he may be plotting the ruin of the innocent Dickson, but this is not proved yet, and until it is he must be allowed to investigate the conduct of his own subordinates. What Mr. Dickson is really entitled to is two investigations, one by the Attorney-General and the other by the court.

The Boston *Herald* makes the curious mistake of supposing the *Evening Post* to be responsible for the nicknames or pet names of the local Republican statesmen here, of which it gave a list the other day—"Clint," "Steve," "Jake," "Barney, "Bob," and the like. It had no more to do with originating or applying these names than the *Herald* itself. They are the names by which these politicians are known both to each other and the public, and, more than this, every one who has ever seen one of the owners recognizes the appropriateness of the names at a glance. Nor is there one of the "boys" to whom there would not be a perceptible absurdity in giving the title of "Mr." They would themselves be restive and awkward under it, and if the editor of the *Herald* were to see them, he would himself think it funny. Mr. Bernard Biglin and Mr. Michael Cregan, for instance, are terms which convey no definite idea of a person to any one in New York; but when we say "Barney Biglin" or "Mike Cregan," a vivid picture of a certain kind of man comes before everybody's mind's eye. We, however, despair of giving the *Herald* an adequate conception of the little circle by anything we can say. The best way to appreciate the appropriateness of the members' names is to come on here and see them engaged in a "conference" in the Fifth Avenue Hotel bar-room, when they are giving each other news of a "turning in the tide" or of "the growth of a better feeling within the last three days." The impression they produce on bystanders, we are bound to add, is not always advantageous to the Republican ticket. We have heard of two Republicans who, seeing them at Saratoga for the first time, were panic-stricken, and are going to vote for Cleveland.

The attempt of General Curtis to upset the anti-assessment statute, under which he was convicted nine months ago, by habeas-corpus proceedings at Washington, is chiefly interesting from the fact that it will afford the Supreme Court an opportunity to give its views not only as to the constitutionality, but as to the policy and intent, of the act. Such persistent efforts are made by politicians to confuse the public mind on the subject of "voluntary contributions," and the assumed importance of every employee of the Government being left perfectly "free to help the party" by contributing to campaign funds, that an occasional judicial reminder of the fact that the whole system is illegal, and an analysis of the reasons which have led to its being declared so, is by no means out of place. The three judges who decided the Curtis case below went into this at some length, referred to the assessment abuse as a matter of public notoriety, and interpreted the statute under which General Curtis was indicted as being plainly designed to break it up. The published synopsis of the Government brief looks as if the Attorney-General, whose interest in civil-service reform has never been very keen, meant to confine the discussion in the case to very technical limits. The language of the statute, it will be remembered, is:

"That all executive officers or employees of the United States not appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate, are prohibited from requesting, giving to or receiving from any other officer or employee of the Government any money or property, or other thing of value, for political purposes; and such officer or employee who shall offend against the provisions of this section shall be at once discharged from the service of the United States, and he shall also be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be fined in a sum not exceeding $500."

Now, the argument of the Government brief is that this simply prohibits officers of the Government from engaging in a certain voluntary public employment outside their regular duties. The Constitution must have authorized Congress to secure by legislation the devotion by Government employees of all their time and attention to their public duties, and that is what this legislation is intended to do. Any one who receives money for political purposes becomes a trustee for some public purpose. "It seems that the Legislature might prohibit an officer of the United States from becoming a guardian, or executor, or private trustee; and, if it be competent for it to pass upon the propriety of such additional employment, that it may also prescribe the penalty to follow disobedience, so it be not excessive; and may go further and punish other persons who cooperate in procuring such disobedience, especially where, as in the present instance, such person also is an employee of the Government. All such details are matters of a discretion reposed by the Constitution in a coördinate department." This argument, it will be seen, proceeds upon the theory that the anti-assessment statute is similar in origin and scope to the statutes prohibiting Federal employees from engaging in business which may interfere with their duties, the most familiar of which is that which renders it illegal for the Secretary of the Treasury to be engaged in trade or commerce. Very likely this view of the statute will be sufficient to dispose of the case; but as a matter of fact every one knows that the statute grew out of and was intended to correct an evil very different from that of inattention to duty, and it will certainly be open to the Supreme Court to refuse to narrow its consideration of the matter to the limits proposed by the Attorney-General, and to give its view of the real meaning of the law in such a way that we shall have no more balderdash about "voluntary" contributions. The court of last resort can at least go as far as the court below, which said plainly that the system of assessments on salaries was meant to be made criminal because it tended to debauch the public service, and to introduce a corrupting influence among employees, by the payment of what must be regarded as blackmail on one side, or a bribe on the other. This is the real objection to the system, and it is to be hoped that the Supreme Court will plainly say so.

The story of the conspiracy against Mr. Irish, the Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, is a still clearer and more indisputable illustration of the dangerous effect the spoils system of the civil service has upon mentally or morally unsettled natures, than the assassination of Garfield was. In the Guiteau case the element of inordinate vanity, the greed of notoriety, inflaming the imagination of the baffled office-seeker, played a great part. But in this case, if the despatches from Washington tell the truth, we see a combination of villains who simply want to bring about the disgrace and removal of a good officer for the purpose of opening a chance for themselves; and to this end they steal a quantity of private letters with which they expect to poison the President's mind against that officer, and make a plot to purloin bonds and plates from the Government office in order to demonstrate to the President that the officer whose removal they want to accomplish is careless and untrustworthy, and that it would be unsafe to keep him in his place. It is evident that, if appointments were made strictly on the ground of the ascertained fitness of the candidates for the duties to be performed, and upon no other consideration, the persons engaged in this conspiracy would have had no reason to think that the removal of Colonel Irish would be followed by the appointment of their man, who had the powerful recommendation of Senator Cameron, backed by the Republican Representatives from Pennsylvania, and that one of the conspirators would be his assistant. The spoils system has the effect of creating the impression that it requires only some removals to give every rascal a chance.

The full text of Frank James's letter appealing to Governor Crittenden for a restoration to citizenship furnishes some very extraordinary reading. As he is said to have retained counsel at a very early stage of the proceedings, it may fairly be inferred that the document is not entirely original. It bears a curious resemblance to the documents which politicians often publish, professing a readiness to meet "charges" made against them. He begins by declaring that "time has demonstrated that however carefully I may follow the path of good citizenship, and however successful I may be in gaining the confidence and respect of those who associate with me daily and know my every act, the work of heaping infamy on the name which my children are to bear goes steadily on and on as it began so many years ago." The work of defamation has reached the point at which, whenever a crime is committed in the West, it is laid to him. A politician, under such circumstances, generally declines to go into details, asks for a "suspension of judgment," and professes an entire willingness to meet his accusers at the "proper time." Frank goes one step beyond this by suggesting that instead of an investigation he should receive a full pardon without any—a way out of his difficulties which would commend itself to many of our most notorious statesmen. The curious part of the matter is that Frank's letter has won him a widespread sympathy in all classes of society, and a leading judge is quoted as saying, "If I were Governor, I would pardon him right away."

The Rev. J. P. Newman preached a sermon on Sunday on "The Moral Responsibility of Citizens—Let New York be Delivered," but we are bound to say he fell short, as Stalwart clergymen so often do, of making it quite clear how the deliverance is to be effected. He described the men who "rule this city" as "these uncouth creatures, these men who need to be washed first before they are handled, these men who can scarcely sign their names to the pay-roll, who make their mark; these men who have still the brogue upon their lips and the brogans on their feet, still waving the shillelah, forced by circumstances to be the rulers over this beautiful city of New York," and inquired how these creatures would compare with Samuel, who is recorded as having said, "Show me where I have taken what is not mine, and I will restore it." The comparison would probably be greatly to the advantage of Samuel, but then it does not help us to deliver New York. Voting seems to be considered by Dr. Newman the only sure cure for the evils with which we are afflicted; but we are not aware that the citizen is inclined to neglect this duty. If going to the polls were all that was needed, New York ought to be one of the best-governed cities in the world. Besides "voting," Dr. Newman would have us "elevate" and "purify" the caucus, but he does not tell us how, probably because the caucus is made up not of the "uncouth creatures," but of friends of his own. Experience shows that this cannot be done by voting, and therefore Dr. Newman's exhortation to citizens "to be unified on one thing—the redemption of the city"—is, in the present crisis, of rather small value.

It is a notorious but lamentable fact, which, however, has nothing in it discreditable to religion, that nearly all the worst characters in finance and politics are the earnest supporters of some ecclesiastical body, giving both time and money to its interests, and faithfully attending its worship. Even Jay Gould is said to be a liberal upholder of a Presbyterian church up the Hudson, and we dare say has got to the point of making the minister believe that he is becoming concerned about his spiritual interests. Nearly all the great defaulters, forgers, and embezzlers, too, of the last twenty years have been active church-members or goers. These unhappy truths ought, it seems to us, to impose caution on clergymen about vouching for or eulogizing members of their flocks when accused of some financial or political immorality. As a general rule, ministers know nothing of the doings of their hearers, when down in Wall Street, or among "the boys" at the ward meetings, and cannot, therefore, answer for them at all in what the religious newspapers call their "secular department." For these reasons we hold it to be highly injudicious for the Rev. J. W. B. Wood, "a former pastor" of Mr. Steve French, to vouch for him as "upright, honest, straightforward, incapable of aught save what becomes a gentleman and a good citizen." We think it would be imprudent for Steve's present pastor to do so; for a former pastor to attempt it is positive rashness.

There is very great perturbation among members of the Land League, owing to the conduct of Mr. Ford, the editor of the *Irish World*, and the main instrumentality in raising the money, in declaring the subscription list closed in his paper, and the Land League defunct. The news appears to have created a sensation in Ireland, too, as well it may, for most of the ways and means comes from this side. However, there is no doubt that whether Mr. Ford be right in pronouncing the Land League dead or not, if he means that the time for it to die has arrived, he is not far wrong. It has accomplished, or something has accomplished, the objects for which it contended, and indif-

ference of the home Irish to its doings increases with every extension of the operation of the Land Act. Mr. Parnell evidently appears at a loss for a cause at this moment, so that this would appear to be a good opportunity to give the poor contributors to the funds a year or two of financial rest. The clearing up of the accounts will probably be a painful process, in which many patriots will suffer, but this is the inevitable consequence of mixing up agitation for remedial legislation with preparations for a political revolution. The disposition of funds subscribed for such hybrid objects has to be kept secret, and where secrecy about money begins malversation sets in.

The money market during the week, from being "stringent" became "easy," and the rates for loans fell from 8 to 9 per cent. to 5 @6 per cent. The banks gained $2,559,250 in their reserve, principally because the Treasury disbursements were so large. When the rates for money were high, early in the week, the rates for foreign exchange declined rapidly to within about two cents to the pound sterling of the gold-importing point; but later the market for foreign exchange became stronger, and all thought of an early importation of gold was abandoned. At the Stock Exchange, weakness and depression were the features of the early part of the week, while later there was a recovery in the tone of the market as well as in prices. Railroad earnings continue large, and all the leading roads show an increase over last year.

There appears to be as yet no settled or dominating opinion in England as to what is to be the Egyptian settlement, owing probably to the fact that nearly all the politicians are taking their vacation. Lord Granville some time ago laid down the doctrine that the Liquidation Law could not be disturbed, being of an international character, but Mr. Chamberlain has recently said that hereafter the bondholders must take care of themselves, and Mr. Gladstone intimated a year ago plainly that it was his desire, and we presume his design, that the affairs of Egypt should be henceforth managed as far as possible by the Egyptians themselves. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, which perhaps represents the ultra-Liberal view of the matter better than any other paper, while acknowledging that the British Government could not help intervening to suppress the military revolt and restore order, says that it is its duty now to "return as soon as possible to the principle of non-intervention and leaving other countries to manage their own business"; and it asks whether matters cannot be so arranged as to leave the Egyptian creditors face to face with their debtors to make their own arrangements, even if it is necessary to have another Conference of the Powers and abrogate or modify the Liquidation Law. The fact is, that if the bondholders make any money — or rather are saved from loss — through the war, it will leave a great stain on Mr. Gladstone's Administration. A war in the interest of the bondholders would, every impartial person admits, have been a crime, and now, if they profit by it—that is, get out of the Egyptians more than they would have got without it—it will be useless to declare that it was undertaken either in the interest of order or for the protection of the Canal. There ought to be a new arrangement with the Khedive's Government, under which it should make a provision for the debt bearing some reasonable relation to the amount of cash received for the loans, and to the surplus of revenue available for debt-paying after the maintenance of a decent administration.

Mr. Forster's Coercion Act has just expired in Ireland, and it would be amusing, if it were not melancholy, to read the admissions of the English press of its total failure. Even the *Quarterly Review* declares that "it did no sort of good." Its passage, however, was fought for by the majority of the House of Commons and by the Ministry with the most intense bitterness, as an essential preliminary to the passage of the Land Act, and the opinions of the Irish members were treated as of absolutely no value in the matter, and the result was the disgraceful scenes of last winter on the floor of the House. It is now admitted that "most of the persons arrested under the Act were politicians, respectable shopkeepers, and farmers, who were actually the persons of the greatest influence in repressing crime." The Act, it must be remembered, was mainly the work of Mr. Forster, who administered it, and it never appeared that there was any better reason for supposing him to be an authority about Ireland than that when a young man, in 1847, he had visited the country as the agent of a relief association. The Arms Act, disarming everybody, was passed about the same time, and it is now admitted that that, too, has been a failure. The belief of the police is that the country contains plenty of arms of the best make, and it does not appear that any crime or outrage has been averted or delayed for one hour by the want of a good gun. The reason is obvious. Peaceable, well-disposed people gave up their arms, the criminal class kept them; concealment of them being the easiest thing in the world. The general result is that good Irishmen have now no weapons, and are much irritated, while bad Irishmen are as well armed as ever they were. The suspension of trial by jury in the present Repression Act was fought for in the same manner, by the English majority, with the same fierce tenacity. The opinion, even of the Irish members of the moderate school, that it was unnecessary and unwise, the opinion of the Irish judges that it would destroy popular respect for their office and popular confidence in their impartiality, was long and almost contemptuously disregarded. At the eleventh hour an alternative was inserted in the bill giving the Crown the right to special juries and a change of venue. This has been tried, and with perfect success. Conviction follows conviction without any more difficulty than in England, and, what is more remarkable, there is much less difficulty in getting testimony than there used to be. But it must not be supposed that there will be any lesson in these things for the House of Commons. If the question of restoring order in Ireland should come up again ten years hence, a Coercion Bill like Mr. Forster's would probably have just as good a chance of success as it had last year.

According to a Washington despatch, the Peruvian Minister has received a despatch from Ecuador advising him that Calderon, who has been for nearly a year a prisoner in Chili, has arrived at Arequipa, and is there "treating for peace," not with the Chilians, who are hundreds of miles away, but "with Dr. Logan, the newly arrived United States Minister." Mr. Elmore declared that "the news did not surprise him much, because he had been expecting something of this kind, in view of the solid union of the Peruvians under the provisional government of Calderon, of the loyal attitude of Bolivia as Peru's ally, and of the firm position occupied by the United States during the whole war as an impartial friend of all the belligerents." Arequipa is a town in the extreme southern portion of Peru, where Montero, Calderon's Vice-President, has established himself during the absence of the head of the Government. The news that Calderon is "treating for peace" with Dr. Logan does not cover the ground. All writers on international law are agreed that it requires at least two belligerents to make a treaty of peace, and hence when the "treating" begins it will have to be with the Chilians and not Dr. Logan. When Hurlbut was in Peru the idea undoubtedly prevailed in that country that peace could be made by him; but the attempt resulted in the recall of Hurlbut and the incarceration of Calderon in a Chilian "dungeon," from which he has no doubt come back a sadder and wiser man.

The latest news from Peru seems to confirm the story that Pierola is going to set up his Government again before long. Yglesias, who was formerly his Minister of War, has revolted against the Calderon-Montero Government, and is to convene a new Congress in Pierola's interest. Pierola himself has written a letter denying the story that he is to be used by Chili as a tool, and declares that he never, never will take the Presidency unless he is called to it by the suffrages of his countrymen. In other words, he professes to act on the well-known principle that "the office should seek the man, not the man the office." His enemies of course doubt his sincerity, because he has already once seized the Government by a *coup de main*, and they maintain that a man who will do this once will do it again. On the other hand, his friends point with pride to his disclaimer as an evidence of the steady progress made by Peru in the art of self-government. In order to guard against any public wrong of this kind, however, Montero, who is Calderon's Vice-President, is said to be preparing to set up for himself at Arequipa. In this news, which comes by cable, nothing is said of Calderon's escape or reported negotiations for peace with Dr. Logan. Meanwhile, the Government of the country in the more civilized parts of it remains in the hands of the Chilians.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 4, to TUESDAY, October 10, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ELECTIONS were held on Tuesday in Ohio and West Virginia for Congressmen and minor State officers In Ohio the Democrats elected their State ticket by a majority estimated from meagre returns at 15,000. They also claim to have been successful in fourteen of the twenty-one Congressional districts. A tolerably heavy vote was polled, and a great amount of "scratching" done. The Republicans attribute their defeat largely to the prominence of the liquor question in the campaign. In West Virginia the Republicans are reported to have made large gains, and elected one of the four members of Congress.

The Society of Independent Citizens of Cincinnati, which is composed of two delegates each from sixty-six different German organizations, met on Wednesday night and decided to support the Democratic State ticket at the coming election, but there was a tacit understanding that those who wished to, might vote for the Republican candidates for Congress and the Republican county ticket. The liquor question was the cause of this determination on the part of the Germans.

The election in Georgia on Wednesday resulted in a sweeping victory for A. H. Stephens, who was elected Governor by a majority of about 60,000. A heavy colored vote was thrown for Stephens. There is reported to have been little, if any, "bulldozing," and the absence of party feeling everywhere in the State is said to have been unparalleled since reconstruction. On Friday Mr. Stephens sent in his resignation of the office of Congressman from the Eighth District. It was accepted, and an election to fill the vacancy was ordered for November 7. It is understood that Mr. Gartrell, the defeated candidate for Governor of Georgia, will contest Mr. Stephens's election, not with the hope of getting in, but to show fraud and intimidation. Mr. Gartrell says he will summon many witnesses, including Senator Brown, and asserts that the charges made will be fully sustained.

Mr. B. Platt Carpenter, the Republican nominee for Lieutenant-Governor of New York, sent in his letter accepting the nomination on Friday.

On Wednesday the letter of Judge Charles Andrews accepting the nomination for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals was received by the Republican State Committee.

On Tuesday the New York Republican State Committee nominated Mr. Howard Carroll for Congressman-at-large, to fill the vacancy created by Mr. Hepburn's refusal to accept the nomination of the State Convention.

The letter of Grover Cleveland, Democratic nominee for Governor of New York State, was published on Tuesday. Mr. Cleveland heartily approves of the platform of the Democratic State Convention; desires primary elections to be "uncontaminated and fairly conducted"; condemns the interference of "officials of any degree, State or Federal, for the purpose of thwarting or controlling the popular wish"; approves of tenures of office in the civil service dependent upon "ability and merit"; denounces the levying of political assessments upon officeholders; opposes "interference by the Legislature with the government of municipalities"; thinks that the same authority which creates corporations should restrain them "when by combination or the exercise of unwarranted power they oppress the people"; and is of the opinion that "the expenditure of money to influence the action of the people at the polls or to secure legislation is calculated to excite the gravest concern."

The New York State Temperance Convention met in Syracuse on Wednesday, and pledged themselves to vote for no candidate for the Legislature who will not publicly pledge himself to vote for the submission to the people of an amendment to the State Constitution prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors.

The Executive Committee of the Civil-Service Reform Association met in New York on Wednesday, and resolved to hold weekly meetings during the State campaign, and to prevent, if possible, the assessment of officeholders by politicians. Printed circulars are to be issued to the candidates for State offices and for Congress, questioning them on the subject of assessments and competitive examinations for office.

Gen. B. F. Butler has written a letter accepting the Democratic nomination for Governor of Massachusetts. He says he is reluctant to accept the nomination, but that he has decided that it is his duty, "waiving all considerations of personal sacrifice," to do so. He discusses at length the leading issues before the people, and says that to test his own sincerity in the matter of civil-service reform he is anxious that the experiment of competitive examination should be tried in Massachusetts, and is willing that competitive examinations should be made of candidates for the highest offices. He is in favor of such a revision of the tariff that there would be no tax whatever upon the necessaries of life, and that the highest duties up to the point of possible collection would be laid upon luxuries. No taxes whatever, he says, should be laid upon American shipbuilding.

It is stated that General Butler is to be the counsel for the Navy-yard employees of the United States, who ask for extra pay on account of having done ten hours' work for an allowance lawfully intended for eight hours. It is said that the total amount of the claim is $1,500,000.

John L. Barstow was inaugurated Governor of Vermont on Thursday. In his inaugural address he stated that the debt of the State is $209,583. He recommends the appointment of a joint standing committee on phraseology to examine and correct the language of all bills presented to the Legislature. He also recommends the creation of the office of Attorney-General for the State. He favors the vesting of the powers of the State over railroad corporations in a board which, under proper restrictions, shall have full control of them.

The Connecticut State Democratic Convention met at Hartford on Wednesday, and nominated for Governor Thomas M. Waller; for Lieutenant-Governor, George G. Sumner; for Secretary of State, D. W. Northrop; for Treasurer, A. R. Goodrich; and for Controller, Thomas R. Sanford. The platform restates "Democratic principles as applicable to the conditions of to-day and the political issues of the immediate future." This "restatement" is lengthy, and contains the usual platitudes and generalities. The platform then goes on to call for "strict economy in the expenditure of public moneys, and the restriction of appropriations from the National Treasury to objects clearly of a national character"; a tariff for revenue only, with incidental protection; civil-service reform, and "legislation to secure a most careful selection of all public officers, both State and Federal, by providing an appointing power for each class of officers, with special reference to the duties to be performed"; legislation to secure a free ballot and a fair count. It approves the veto of the River and Harbor Bill; denounces "oppressive legislation on the liquor question," while approving of "wise legislation" on this question, and expressing the belief that it can "most safely be left to the individual conscience, free from the blindness of party prejudice"; denounces the squandering of public lands as gifts to great railroad corporations; and calls for "complete and vigorous protection" by the Federal Government of all our citizens—foreign-born as well as native—when travelling abroad.

In California the Republican, Democratic, Greenback, Prohibition, and Granger parties have all made nominations for the State offices.

Defiant talk was indulged in by the members of the Mormon Conference at Salt Lake City, which adjourned on Sunday. President Taylor said: "Any man or set of men who curtail or deprive us of our constitutional rights are tyrants and oppressors. We intend to lawfully contend for our rights inch by inch." The returns of the registration have been published, showing 34,000 names, four out of nine being of men, and three out of four Mormons.

Gen. Newton Curtis, who was convicted of a misdemeanor under the United States statute forbidding any officer of the Government to collect political assessments, will contest the constitutionality of the statute before the Supreme Court of the United States.

Two men—W. F. Salter and Wilmot H. Ward—were arrested in Washington on Saturday night for complicity in a conspiracy to bring discredit upon the present administration of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing of the Treasury Department by purloining dies, plates, and other material. The object of the conspiracy was to bring about the removal of Colonel Irish, the Chief of the Bureau, and thus secure offices in the Department for Salter and Wilmot.

Ex-District-Attorney Wells, to whom the Government has entrusted the investigation of the bribery charges in the Star-route cases, has begun work in the matter. It is understood that the Government has secured important evidence against at least one member of the jury. Foreman Dickson has filed a protest with District-Attorney Corkhill against the transfer of the investigation from the District Attorney's office to the care of special counsel.

A new and stringent order, rigidly fixing the rules of conduct during working hours, has been issued in the Treasury Department at Washington. Secretary Folger directed this step, as he is satisfied that the discipline of the Treasury Department has been so lax as seriously to impair the efficiency of the force.

Statistics for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, show a large increase in the money-order business of the Post-office Department. The increase in the amount received for domestic orders over the amount for 1881 was $8,324,449, and the increase in the amount received for foreign orders was $1,852,588. The annual report of the free-delivery service of the Post-office Department will also show a large increase over the business of last year. The aggregate number of pieces of postal matter handled by carriers during the year exceeds 1,143,158,000.

It is estimated at the Signal Office that at least $13,000,000 of property and many persons remained safely in harbor on account of the warnings given by the Signal Office before the cyclone of last month, and that the saving in this one storm pays the expenses of the Signal Service for at least ten years.

Commissioner Price has notified the Indians whose support is not provided for by treaty stipulations that they will be expected to labor for a livelihood.

More than $20,000 have been collected for the Garfield Memorial Hospital. The officers are selecting a site, and the foundations will soon be laid.

The Longfellow Memorial Association has issued a circular to the "Children of America," inviting ten-cent subscriptions toward the fulfilment of the plan of the Association for the erection of a memorial statue in front of the poet's residence.

The New York agency of the Irish Land League has been closed, and the balance on hand has been transmitted to the Treasurer in Paris. This is generally looked upon as winding up the Land League in America. But it is

announced from Chicago that this is not so, since there is another "powerful branch" of the League in Chicago and Boston, supported by eminent champions of the cause.

The Bostonian Society formally assumed the custody of the Old State House, in Boston, on Tuesday. The object of the society is to "promote the study of the history of Boston, and the preservation of its antiquities." Mr. Josiah Quincy, jr., delivered an address.

Arrangements have been completed for two lines of steamers to run between Boston, Antwerp, and Rio de Janeiro. They will be run by a French company established more than a year ago under subsidies from the Governments of Canada and Brazil for carrying their mails, but sailing under the French flag.

The steamship *Herder*, of the Hamburg-American Packet Line, with mails, passengers, and general cargo, from New York bound for Hamburg, ran ashore at the head of Long Beach, about three miles west of Cape Race, Newfoundland, on Monday morning, in a dense fog. All of the 261 passengers and crew were landed without an accident.

Despatches from Pensacola, Florida, show that the yellow-fever epidemic has not abated. Within three days ending Tuesday, 175 new cases and ten deaths have been reported. The total number of cases to date is 1,350, and of deaths 115. Great distress prevails in the community, especially among the negroes, and the demands upon the Board of Health are incessant and increasing. The Board has made a formal appeal to the country at large for aid.

Frank James, the brother of Jesse James, the outlaw, surrendered to Governor Crittenden at Jefferson City, Mo., on Thursday. Frank held a reception at the McCarthy House, in Jefferson City, on Thursday evening, and "many prominent citizens were there seeking to shake hands with him."

FOREIGN

It is said to be settled that the brigades of General Wood and General Alison will form the army of occupation in Egypt. The rest of the troops have commenced starting for home. On Wednesday General Wolseley issued a general order complimenting the troops on their endurance, courage, gallantry, and good behavior. The organization of the gendarmerie is progressing, several hundreds of men having been already enrolled in Alexandria. The Governors of the Provinces have been ordered to send to Alexandria all natives suspected of complicity in the June massacres.

General Wolseley, in his detailed despatches published Friday evening, took occasion to defend the present constitution of the Army. He says he never wishes to have command of better infantry. The corporation of London has decided to present an address of congratulation to General Wolseley, and the freedom of the city and a sword of honor to Admiral Seymour.

A despatch from Cairo says that Arabi Bey demands a trial by Englishmen, declaring that he surrendered to them and would have escaped had he known he was to be tried by Egyptians, from whom he expects no mercy. M. de Lesseps has telegraphed to the President of the court-martial at Cairo by which Arabi is to be tried, testifying that during the war Arabi exerted himself to maintain the neutrality of the Suez Canal, and that he protected the lives and interests of several Europeans in Egypt. It is said that no genuine documents connecting Arabi with the outrages committed in Alexandria have yet been discovered. It is believed that the English counsel sent by Sir Wilfrid Blunt to defend Arabi will be denied access to him, the Egyptian Government being of the opinion that legal assistance from such a quarter will be of no avail, since the pleadings will be heard in Arabic. Meanwhile Arabi is treated as a condemned convict by his jailers, which is considered in Cairo to be unnecessary harshness.

The special commission, under the Presidency of Ismail Pasha Eyub, which was appointed by the Khedive to prosecute all acts of rebellion committed by the military or civilians, held a sitting at Cairo on Monday, and interrogated M. Gaudel, late Prefect of Alexandria, who denied the charge made against him of having distributed bludgeons to the Arabs.

Of the two commissions to fix the amount of indemnity due to foreigners for losses during the late rebellion, the first will examine and decide in regard to all claims; the second, which will be appointed later, will decide regarding the means of raising funds, as the Egyptian Government insists that the revenues especially assigned shall remain untouched.

The important question in Egyptian affairs now is, What is to be the government there? Both the European residents and the natives regard a return to the system of joint control as the worst possible solution of the difficulties of the situation, and the report that joint control is likely to be abolished has produced an excellent effect. This report is based on the rumor that Sir Edward Malet, the British Consul-General, told the Khedive that the Joint Control would be abolished. A despatch from Cairo on Tuesday said that Sultan Pasha, President of the Chamber of Notables, looked upon Turkish intervention in Egypt as meaning anarchy; while, on the other hand, he maintained that the cost of the Joint Control was extravagant, and that £400,000 might be saved annually by the substitution of efficient native for foreign officers. He admitted that the mass of the population was unfit for representative government.

Lord Dufferin, in reply to the Porte's letter in relation to the withdrawal of the British troops from Egypt, says that a portion of the British force has already left Egypt, and that the remainder is to follow as soon as possible; but that as England has made great sacrifices to pacify the country, she must take measures to secure the permanency of the pacification, and the temporary presence of a certain number of troops will therefore be necessary.

A despatch from Vienna on Tuesday said that the breach between the Sultan and the Khedive was widening, and seemed likely to lead to open rupture. The Sultan is said to have forbidden recruiting for the Khedive's future body-guard.

While the annual caravan, which recently departed from Cairo with imposing ceremonies, was journeying to Suez, on the way to Mecca, the canopy over the sacred carpet was overturned and the sacred emblem exposed to view. The Dervishes in charge were greatly excited by the accident, and it is probable that the caravan will have to return to Cairo and perform the ceremony accompanying the departure over again.

Signor Depretis, Prime Minister of Italy, addressing his constituents at Stradella, said that the relations of Italy with France and England were excellent; that Italy had always remained faithful to the concert of Powers; and that the acceptance by Italy of the invitation to intervene in Egypt would not have been consistent with her international duties.

The man Overdank, who was recently arrested for planning the assassination of the Emperor of Austria, has been brought before a court-martial on the charge of desertion from the army and high treason.

At a meeting of the Irish Conference Committee in Dublin, it was decided to invite a much wider circle of representative men to the Conferencethan was at first contemplated.

Mr. Davitt, speaking at Wexford on Sunday, said that he was disappointed at the outcome of the Land League agitation. He said that the English Government had been furnished with a pretext for action by outrages committed by some of the Irish people. Pleading at Westminster, he said, was useless. The people should rely upon Irish determination at home to arraign landlordism before the civilized world as the cause of crime and disorder.

Mr. Dillon, in reply to a resolution of the Liverpool Land League requesting him to reconsider his intended resignation of his seat in Parliament, writes that he will give the matter his earnest attention, and says that nothing but ill-health could have caused him to quit politics.

The closing of the Land League fund has caused a great sensation in Dublin, many persons being anxious to know how the money was spent.

A man named Flanagan and his wife, who are suspected of having been connected with the murder of Lord Mountmorres at Clonbur, County Galway, on the 25th of September, 1880, have been arrested.

The weapons used by the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under-Secretary Burke have been found concealed in the rafters of a stable in the rear of a house in Dublin. The weapons found were four knives, nine inches long, with blades three-quarters of an inch wide. There were discolorations on them which, on chemical analysis, proved to have been made by human blood. It is hoped that the murderers will yet be captured. Meanwhile the authorities observe the strictest secrecy.

A despatch to the *Pall Mall Gazette* from Dublin says that, owing to the alarming increase of pauperism in the south of Ireland, the Dublin Union proposes to send 1,000 able-bodied men and women to Canada, at a cost of £7,000.

A conference of coal miners, representing nine counties of England, will meet at Manchester on Friday next to decide upon the time at which notices shall be given of a general stoppage of work. The North Staffordshire coal-mine owners have acceded to the demand of the miners for an advance of ten per cent. in wages. Twenty thousand men are affected by this decision.

A despatch from Berlin says that Herr von Puttkamer, Minister of the Interior, was present at an electoral meeting of Conservatives on Wednesday. This fact has excited comment, as Prussian Ministers have hitherto invariably held aloof from such meetings. The various sections of the Liberal party count with some confidence on gaining seventy seats from the Conservatives at the forthcoming elections.

The Spanish Minister of Marine has drafted a bill asking for a grant of 30,000,000 pesetas, to be devoted to purchasing two iron-clads to be constructed in England. The bill will be presented to the Cortes at the opening of the session. Señor Comacho, Minister of Finance, has informed the Council of Ministers that the expenditures for the first half of the present year balanced the revenue for that period, and that the receipts exceeded the expenditures in several of the provinces. The Council of Ministers has decided to refuse the offer of the Sultan of Morocco of a strip of territory around Ceuta in return for the cession by Spain of the island of Santa Cruz de la Mar, on the Atlantic coast of Morocco.

Marshal Serrano finds difficulty in carrying out his plan of the formation of a new party, owing to differences which have arisen between the Democrats and the Liberals. The latter desire the Constitution of 1876 modified by the introduction of the principles of the Constitution of 1869, but the Democrats, though willing to form a new party, are unwilling to support the proposal for the re-establishment of the Constitution of 1869.

A despatch from Manila on Monday said that the fatal cases of cholera in that town now average from thirty to forty daily, and the deaths from the disease in the vicinity of the town average twelve daily.

GENERAL BUTLER'S ACCEPTANCE.

GENERAL BUTLER'S letter of acceptance of the Democratic nomination in Massachusetts, which has at last appeared, is in many respects the most cheering political document which we have seen for a long time. As every one knows, the General had somehow managed to incur the reputation of persistent office-seeking, and, indeed, was freely accused of having left the Republican party in Massachusetts because they would not nominate him for the Governorship. He has accordingly been accused of "laying pipe" during the past year for the Democratic nomination. It is pleasant at this time of great political demoralization to hear from himself that this was all a mistake; that he had not thought of being a candidate at all, owing to business and professional engagements; and that it is only after "conference with friends and clients" that he has consented to make the necessary sacrifice and take the nomination.

It has been whispered about, too, for some years, not only that the General had no conscience himself, but thought that nobody else had, and that he changed his party whenever there was anything to be gained by it. We are happy to be able to state that this, too, is an error. He says that he does change parties occasionally, but he never "changes the principles on which he acts"; and though he "discards errors" now and then, he does so only under the direction of a "riper judgment and an instructed conscience." It is of course open to cynical cavillers to find fault with him here for not describing the principles on which he acts, and to insinuate that the principle known among plain people as "the care of No. 1" has been the great guide of his chequered career. But this odious insinuation is, we think, effectually met by his subsequent statement about his conscience. He says in substance that whenever he does anything novel it is under the control of an instructed conscience. This shows two things: first, that he has a conscience, and, secondly, that he cultivates it. This we call moral growth. Many would call it spiritual growth, but we do not care to exaggerate, or to draw any picture of the General's character which any one will call highly colored. The mere fact that he has a conscience which he trains is enough for us, and it ought to cheer some of the ministers who preached on Sunday on the degradation of politics.

There is one thing more in the letter which even the most hardened will, we think, not be able to read without a slight moistening of the eyes. Many are impatient about the slow progress of the civil-service reform movement, and discouraged by the indifference to it of the politicians, from the President down. Now, it has long been popularly believed that General Butler used to be one of the most contemptuous of its foes, and that, in fact, when his conscience was in the early stages of its growth, he used to speak of the reform as humbug of a certain extremely unfortunate character. He has exploded this delusion in a few well-chosen words, to which no paraphrase or summary would do justice:

"The public mind is exercised, if not enlightened, upon the subject of the tenure of office and mode of selection of persons for public employment and trusts.

"Integrity, capability, and efficiency in the incumbent have always seemed to me to insure to the occupant the best tenure of office. This in a public life of more than a score of years, wherein I had influence more or less potential and sometimes controlling, has always been my guide. So that I can assert that I have never asked an officer so qualified to give way to any appointee of my recommendation. Indeed, upon the desirability of this tenure I can hardly believe there is not a substantial agreement in the minds of all good men."

As to competitive examinations, too, as a mode of selecting candidates, he not only approves of them, but he advocates their application to candidates for all offices whatever, including the Governorship of Massachusetts. "To attest my own sincerity in this regard," he says, "I am quite willing that competitive examination should be made of candidates for the highest office." In other words, he offers to compete with Mr. Bishop on a set of questions calculated to test their comparative fitness for the duties of the Governorship. No civil-service reformer, be it remembered, has ever dared to ask for anything like this. In fact, they all timidly protest that they would not apply their system to the offices now elective at all. But here is a candidate for one of the highest elective offices in the country who goes further than any of them, and offers himself as the first subject of the test. He does not, like other politicians, say he is in favor of the reform, but thinks it is surrounded with great difficulties; or say that he is in favor of it, but is not sure about "this particular measure." He says, in substance, that this particular measure has only one fault in his eyes, and that is that it does not go far enough. And yet this is the man whom our press has been denouncing for about thirty years as a national disgrace. What a commentary this is on the perspicacity of our editors. And what a lesson it teaches regarding the danger of judging men by externals. Even the personal appearance of this excellent person has been treated as an indication of a depraved nature.

One great source of anxiety to the Bostonians will be removed by this letter. One of their chief reasons for dreading Butler's election was the scandal they thought would be caused by the spectacle of his going out to Harvard College on Commencement Day to receive his LL.D., followed by a roaring mob of vicious and illiterate followers. Many old Bostonians have felt as if this scene, if they ever beheld it, would kill them. They will now feel easier, for they see that, if elected, his appearance at the old University will be simply the triumph of a cultured conscience over the temptations and trials of American life, and of the application to public affairs by an elderly lawyer and soldier of the loftiest principles of private morality. If he has a large following of "the boys," too, it will certainly be a hushed and deeply-moved crowd, for these rude natures are not insensible to the influence of openly-avowed spiritual regeneration.

MEDITATION IN POLITICS.

THE planks adopted by the two parties in this State with regard to the canal question do not seem to have attracted the attention they deserve. This cannot come either from the nature of the subject or the disposition of it made by the two parties, because the subject is one of great importance, and the treatment it has received is novel. There is nothing in New York politics which in the past, from the time of DeWitt Clinton to that of John Kelly, has caused more discussion and excitement than the canals. The canals have made and unmade Governors of the State; have convulsed the Legislature with investigations of charges of fraud and corruption; have even affected the election of judges of the Court of Appeals. Owing to the competition between them and the "trunk lines" to the West, vigilance about the canals is frequently spoken of by good Anti-Monopolists as a part of the Price of Liberty. It is only a few years ago that, in order to preserve these highways of the people more effectually, they were "taken out of politics" by means of constitutional amendments devised by Mr. Tilden; and hardly had they been taken out when Mr. Silas B. Dutcher felt it necessary to put them in again. In fact, the canals, ever since they were dug, have been one of the centres of politics in this State, and never probably in their history has the canal question assumed a more momentous shape than this year, when the question to be submitted to popular vote is whether the canals shall be free.

On this subject both parties have adopted resolutions, evidently prepared by some of the ablest minds in the two conventions, with great care and deliberation. The Republicans declare that "we urge the people of the State, without reference to party, to examine with intelligent care the constitutional amendments submitted to them, and to give full expression at the polls to their judgment and wishes thereon." Considering the fundamental differences which exist between the two parties on other subjects, and which have heretofore existed as to the canals, it is wonderful how closely what the Democrats say resembles this: "We approve the submission to the vote of the people of the constitutional amendment in favor of free canals, and we have full confidence that they will dispose of it in such manner as to promote all the great interests of the State—agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial." There is really, it will be seen, no practical difference between these planks. The real question is whether the voter ought to vote for free canals or not, and on this point what the two planks urge upon the voter is to meditate thoughtfully upon the question before voting.

It must strike the most casual and unreflecting voter that there is something new about a recommendation of this sort coming to him simultaneously from two great historical parties. Hitherto it has been the custom for party platforms to recommend action one way or the other. To tell him that he should proceed to meditate on what action he ought to take, seems to mark a new phase in platforms, and one which promises to prove of great interest in future.

The value of meditation as a preparation for the discharge of duty has always been recognized in the religious world, but the application of religious methods to politics is a novelty. Some thinkers have maintained that

there is a close connection between morals and politics, but even this idea has never gained a strong foothold in New York, and the notion that religion and politics are in any way connected has been distinctly repudiated, in at least one party, by the undisguised hostility so currently expressed to the introduction of "Sunday-school methods."

Whatever the real explanation may be, the value of meditation to party managers cannot be doubted. The great trouble with them ever since the close of the war has been to find some method of dealing in a safe manner with questions in which the public is interested but in which they are not. Hitherto they have only tried two ways, neither of which has proved a success. One may be called the alternative method, which involves the construction of a plank, on any question about which the public is divided, in such a way that it will appear to commit the party to whatever shade of opinion the voter favors. This method has been often adopted in dealing with the questions of prohibition and protection, and great skill has been attained in its use. We find, for instance, a very fine specimen of the alternative plank in one of the Ohio platforms this year: "Resolved, That we favor a tariff levied to meet actual needs, and so adjusted in its details, with a view to equality in the public burdens, as to encourage productive industries and afford labor just compensation without creating monopolies."

The other method, which might be called the bluffing method, and which has been frequently applied to civil-service reform, not only in platforms, but even in letters of acceptance and inaugural addresses, consists in the construction of a plank professing that the managers themselves take the deepest interest in the very idea of reform they are believed to oppose, and insisting that it ought to be dealt with vigorously and without delay. A civil-service plank constructed on this plan has often appeared to take the wind out of the reformers' sails completely, for it makes the agitation for reform, when the leaders of the party are so earnestly in favor of it, and determined to carry it through, look ridiculous. Why should any one in New York, for instance, go about saying that the Machine is opposed to civil-service reform, when it has just declared, exactly as Mr. Curtis or Mr. Eaton might, that "we pledge President Arthur our earnest support in favor of every effort for the enforcement of civil-service reform"?—especially when President Arthur's language on the subject is as follows: "The rules which should be applied to the management of the public service may properly conform in the main to such as regulate the conduct of successful private business. Original appointments should be based on ascertained fitness. The tenure of office should be stable. Positions of responsibility should, so far as practicable, be filled by the promotion of worthy and efficient officers." Is not this what Mr. Curtis wants?

But the trouble is that neither the alternative nor the bluffing method seems to be a complete success, for notwithstanding their long use, large bodies of voters show an increasing disposition to regard them as fraudulent devices to gull the voter. It is obvious that this objection cannot be raised against planks calling upon the voter to meditate upon subjects as to which disagreeable and dangerous differences of opinion exist. Meditation can be applied without fear, not only to the canals, but to protection, prohibition, civil-service reform, and every other current question. To call upon any one to meditate upon these topics cannot be considered fraudulent or deceptive, because it is the duty of the good man to meditate before acting; and if both parties call for meditation, neither can possibly lose votes, so far as the question meditated upon is concerned. No Republican will be made less likely to vote for Folger, no Democrat less likely to vote for Cleveland, by meditating on free canals. It is important, however, that both parties should call for meditation simultaneously, for if one does, and the other calls for action, great confusion might be introduced. As the managers of both parties, however, would much rather have the voter meditate on the subjects we have mentioned than dispose of them in any other way, an arrangement or "deal" for mutual convenience might, we should think, be made, by which the method of dealing with the question of free canals should be applied universally to all political questions as they now exist, or may hereafter arise.

"SPOILING THE EGYPTIANS."

A PAMPHLET on Egyptian affairs, entitled "Spoiling the Egyptians," by Mr. Keay, has produced a good deal of impression in England, having already run through four editions, and it has been reprinted in this country. It purports to be a narrative of the circumstances which led to the deposition of the late Khedive Ismaïl and the rebellion of Arabi and the Army, extracted almost textually from the official correspondence in the British Blue Books presented to Parliament. As told by the author, it is perhaps the most disgraceful tale of modern politics. It may be summed up by saying that it is the story of enormous usurious loans contracted by the Khedive with English and French bankers, and spent part in costly public improvements, and part in riotous living; of cruel pressure by these bondholders for payment of their coupons, backed up by diplomatic threats, and resulting in frightful oppression of the people, in the personal intimidation, humiliation, and final deposition of the Khedive because he could not comply with their demands, and in the continuance of the tyranny and extortion under his son, the bondholders' puppet, until the Army, expressing the popular despair, rose in insurrection.

The pamphlet is very ingeniously constructed, because, as we have said, nearly every assertion in it seems to rest on a quotation from official papers. We have, however, been inclined to distrust it from the first ourselves, owing to the finish and completeness of the charges. The villany of the bondholders and the Government was too clearly made out. It seemed incredible that they should have been so barefaced in their operations, should have taken so little pains to conceal or put a good face on them, and that any Christian government in our day, much less one making such professions as Mr. Gladstone's, should lend the aid of the public force to the consummation of such a series of crimes and atrocities. The whole story reminded us a little of some of our "campaign charges" in the Presidential canvass, and particularly of that one in which the Republican candidate has a one-armed soldier driven from his door by an insolent lacquey, who, after having asked him for his card on a silver salver, reports that his master is "sick of soldiers." It seemed astounding, for instance, that a man who stands as high, both in public and private life, as Mr. Goschen, should have gone to Egypt as the agent of the bondholders, one of whom he was himself, and, while intimidating the Khedive to the best of his ability, should have procured, as Mr. Keay says he did, the deportation of an estimable man, Ismaïl Sadyk Pasha, who stood in his way, to the White Nile, or, in other words, to certain and speedy death.

In the last *Contemporary Review* there appears an article from Mr. Sheldon Amos, the well-known Professor of Jurisprudence, who has resided in Egypt, and has contributed many letters to our own columns on the condition of that country, which confirms these suspicions. He accuses the author of the pamphlet, Mr. Keay, both of practising a deception on the public in professing to have before him in the Blue Books a connected narrative of the course of events in Egypt, when he must have known it was very disjointed and imperfect; and of having grossly garbled the documents from which he actually quoted. Both charges seem to be proved. The whole of the diplomatic correspondence is never produced by the Government in England until the transaction to which it relates has been completed. The gaps in that relating to Egypt are unusually large, owing to the partnership with France, and the delicacy of the situation in which the interference in Egypt placed both England and France toward the other Powers. There is consequently a large body of facts which had a powerful influence on the conduct of the British Government of which there is no mention in the Blue Books at all.

But this is not all. Mr. Amos shows that Mr. Keay has either wilfully or through carelessness failed to quote letters which tell against his theory, or which put a different face on the transactions he describes, and this on some most important points. One of these is the evasion of taxation by foreigners resident in Egypt, which he distinctly charges the British Government with having connived at or encouraged, quoting only one sentence of a despatch of Colonel Stanley to Lord Tenterden, and omitting all mention of a most important one from Lord Derby to Mr. Adams, in which this evasion is emphatically condemned, and pronounced legally indefensible except as regards the capitation or poll tax. As to the case of Ismaïl Sadyk Pasha, whose judicial murder Mr. Goschen is accused of instigating, Mr. Amos quotes Mr. De Leon, the American Consul-General, who says Ismaïl Sadyk was banished because, after having for years played the part of a remorseless and ingenious tyrant

and torturer of the peasantry, a "cry went up to earth and heaven against his oppression," and at last, "seeing in the financial scheme proposed by Messrs. Cave, Goschen, and Joubert the end of his power and his illicit gains, he fought desperately against them, and rendered his own removal necessary to the Khedive, through the revelations he made and threatened to make, whether true or false, equally embarrassing to his master's credit."

Mr. Amos, however, throws more of the responsibility for the financial troubles of Egypt on the folly and extravagance of Ismaïl than he apparently can be made to bear, if we are to trust the statement of the situation made in an article in the same number of the *Review* by Mr. Mulhall, the well-known statistician. According to Mr. Mulhall, although the Egyptian debt amounted in 1879 to $500,000,000, the three last Khedives have only received half this amount in cash, and Ismaïl only $210,000,000 of it. The various loans were issued at all the way from 90 down to 73. In the Oppenheim loan he gave bonds for $160,000,000, and only received $55,000,000 in cash and $45,000,000 in depreciated scrip. The most important question, however, as regards Ismaïl's blameworthiness, is, What became of what he did receive? The Anglo-French theory has all along been that he spent the most of it in "toys and lust and wine," palaces, and ironclads. With regard to this, however, Mr. Mulhall makes a very good showing for him, for he credits him with useful public works costing over $230,000,000, including railroads, canals, docks, harbors, and lighthouses, and charges him with only $5,000,000 for palaces and opera-houses. The conclusions he reaches are:

"1st. That the original cause of bankruptcy was the excessive charge for sinking fund, which should never have been more than 1 per cent.

"2d. That Ismaïl Pasha was not so black as Lord Salisbury thought, or as the bondholders painted him.

"3d. That the net product of nine loans since 1862 was only 50½ millions, and that the public works done by Ismaïl Pasha cost 46 millions.

"4th. That European contractors charged 80 per cent. profit, and European bankers sometimes 28 per cent. interest.

"5th. That the Liquidation Law of 1880 first put the finances on a sound footing, and that its effects have been just and beneficial."

MR. GLADSTONE'S PROSPECTS.

Mr. Gladstone has been making a speech, in which, besides expressing his gratification at the Egyptian success, he proclaims the absolute need of a change in the procedure, to enable the House of Commons to transact the business it is called on to do. His words on the subject now, it is hardly necessary to say, have a weight and significance which before the Egyptian success they would have been far from having, and still further from having before the surrender of the Lords on the Irish Arrears Bill. It is safe to say that immediately before the latter event his Ministry was considered doomed in the eyes of nine observers out of ten of both parties in England. The Tories were confident that a dissolution was impending, and equally confident that the election would either leave him in a minority or without a working majority. He was saved on this occasion partly by the timidity of some of the Peers, but in a greater degree by the necessities of the Irish landlords, with whom the Peers naturally felt considerable sympathy. The bill promised a large sum in cash to men who had received no rent for two or three years, and whose margin of rent, over and above liabilities, has really been swept away by the reductions which the Land Act Commissioners are making. On a very large proportion of Irish estates the life tenant has not much over twenty-five per cent. for himself after he has met the charges, and this twenty-five per cent. has been knocked off in the very cases in which it was of most importance, because the needy landlords were generally those exacting the highest rents. Consequently the arrears came as a sort of bonus in cash to a large body of men having the strongest claims, both social and political, on the consideration of the Tory party, and these claims furnished a convenient excuse, and probably one that enabled them to preserve their self-respect, to Lord Salisbury's followers for deserting him, without laying themselves open to the charge of simple cowardice.

Whatever the cause, however, the gain to Mr. Gladstone was great, because it accomplished in the eyes of the public the ruin of the only Conservative leader who has the dash which the traditions of the place somehow call for. It is almost a rule that the Tory chief in our time should be an audacious man. Since Sir Robert Peel's day he has always been audacious. Lord Derby was audacious; Beaconsfield was audacious; Lord Salisbury is audacious, and Sir Stafford Northcote is not, and therefore, *pro tanto*, disqualified for the leading position. Since the collapse on the Arrears Bill, however, Lord Salisbury has practically ceased to lead, for the Tory Peers, in refusing to follow him, confessed publicly that they did not trust his advice. This would have renewed Mr. Gladstone's lease of power even if the Egyptian success had not occurred. But the Egyptian success has really made him master of the situation. There has been a neatness about it which, for political purposes, it would be impossible to surpass. The victory of Tel-el-Kebir was very brilliant, and would have been a very good thing to meet Parliament with when it opens on the 20th of this month, but its Parliamentary usefulness would have been greatly diminished if the war had been protracted by Arabi's keeping the field, even with shattered forces, or by anything like fanatical insubordination on the part of the population, entailing great expense, and promising to make Egypt a troublesome conquest like Afghanistan. As things have gone, the situation could hardly be better, if Mr. Gladstone had had the power of arranging it all as a little *coup de théâtre* to restore his shattered prestige, and suppress the mutinous discontent of his followers. It is, indeed, very much what Beaconsfield thought the situation in Afghanistan was, after General Roberts had set up Yakub Khan in Cabul, and before Cavagnari had been murdered. Of course there is a possibility that the pacification of Egypt may still turn out a troublesome job, but it is quite certain that the troubles will not become serious before Parliament meets, and that they will not be military in their character, as those of Afghanistan were. The Egyptian is a foe of a very different temper from the fierce barbarians whom Lord Beaconsfield tried to turn into "strong and friendly" dependents of the British Crown.

It is fair to expect, therefore, that when Mr. Gladstone now asks for the *clôture*, he will get it. That Irish legislation is out of the way, all are agreed. Even Mr. Parnell is now only trying to find out what more he wants. He and his followers will not be able to formulate a fresh grievance before the coming session. The English Radicals are, therefore, well aware that nothing but the rules of procedure stand in the way of the English legislation with which Mr. Gladstone evidently means to crown his political career; and there are not many Liberal members who will venture to stand in the way of it by any squeamishness about the rights of minorities. Part of this legislation will, by setting up representative county government, drive the Tories from their last stronghold and intensify hatred of Gladstone, which has already assumed in some of the members of the party the character of a mania.

FROM MEXICO TO ACAPULCO.—I.

Having to make the journey from the city of Mexico to Acapulco, I considered it fortunate that my companion was to be a colonel. He was a veritable colonel. He had seen twenty years' service in the different wars of his country, beginning with that called of the Reform, against the Church and aristocratic party, including that called of the Second Independence, against Maximilian, and coming down to the resistance to Porfirio Diaz, to whose side, however, he had now become converted. He had just fought a duel with sabres (the Government having kindly set apart a vacant portion of a barracks for the prosecution of this ceremony without interruption), and slashed his opponent, a brother officer, so that the latter lay in a grievous state in hospital. Army duelling, it may be said, here, as in France, is winked at. The situation seems to be, that if a man fights he is reprimanded; if he does not fight, he is apt to be cashiered. And the Colonel had bullet-holes through various parts of his body, as I had occasion to see further on. He was now going to assume an important command in a disturbed section of the country, and would take, to reach it, the same steamer as myself. Not that he was the most amiable of travelling companions—at least, in the earliest stages of the way; on the contrary, he began by being much wrapped up, probably in thoughts of his mission, and indulged also in some examples of naïve selfishness. But it is a journey against which one is warned as being of a difficult and dangerous character. It is rarely travelled nowadays. There are perfectly authentic instances of Mexicans in good circumstances who, rather than encounter its inconveniences, though it be but 300 miles, have gone to Vera Cruz, sailed thence to New York, crossed the continent by railway, and taken the Pacific Mail steamer southward from San Francisco. This may have been done in the rainy season—from August to December—which is naturally the worst for travellers. The route is a mere trail, a footpath, full of the most eccentric variations, for horses and mules. No wheeled vehicle ever has passed, or could by any possibility pass, it. Three large rivers cross it, and over these there are no bridges. "Supposing they are swollen by the floods, as they may very well be," said informants, putting the case in that bold and alarming way in which inform-

ants about unusual things delight; "you may be tediously delayed on their banks so long as to miss your steamer." The steamer touches at Acapulco only once in two weeks. "Again," they said, "portions of the route lie in ravines and the dry beds of streams for days at a time; but when the waters occupy their natural bed themselves, what room remains for travellers?" It seemed to be implied that in the rainy season (and it was now the first days of August) the journey was not possible at all. If to all this were to be added some dangers to life and property—as the novice entering upon so wild a section would hardly be American, at any rate, if he did not suspect—it can easily be seen that one might feel more comfortable with a military man of standing as a part of the expedition. The journey, under favorable circumstances, consumes ten days on horseback or muleback, besides the day devoted to going down in the stage-coach to the small provincial city of Cuernavaca, where the trail really begins. This is time enough for study of character, if one chance to have a character worth the study, and for the obtaining of more or less confidential opinions, and there were many confidential opinions about the country which I still wished to obtain. I could think of numbers of others, therefore, whom I had less rather have as travelling companions than so dignified and intelligent a person as a colonel in the Mexican army.

A decision to go was precipitated, while dallying with the idea, by the sudden arrival of the rainy season in town itself. Down came the rain one afternoon while I was reading in the National Library, and in an hour the streets of the right-angled city were canals, with the rare cabs and some men on horseback wading hither and thither and giving friends a lift, serving as gondolas. One could exclaim, under these circumstances, with distracted Macbeth: "There is nor flying hence nor tarrying here." I hurried to the street called Parque del Conde, and closed with the arriero Vincente Lopez. I was to have a horse to ride and a mule to transport my trunk, each animal to cost $20 for the trip; all personal expenses besides to be defrayed along the way, which makes the 300 miles come higher, as will be seen, than so much railroad travel. Vincente Lopez came in due season to the hotel to collect the baggage, and be paid the full amount of his charge in advance. He was a plausible person, but there seemed to me objections to this last proceeding. I thought it equitable that one-half should be paid on the spot, and the remainder on the safe completion of the journey. Vincente Lopez admitted that it was equitable so far as other arrieros were concerned, but for a person of his peculiar probity, who was in the habit of watching over his clients with a tender solicitude which he meant in the present instance to increase, and who had never known what it was to have an annoyance or delay, he was deeply wounded. There were arguments in his favor. He said that the Colonel had paid in full, as was indeed the case. Whatever money was carried must be in the heavy silver coin of the country, sixteen dollars to a pound, since there are no bank notes and no possibility of cashing drafts along the way; and it would be a relief to be rid, so far as possible, of its weight and jingling in the pockets. Still, by the advice of the clerk of the Iturbide Hotel, a contract was drawn upon this general basis; and cruel as it was at the time to be thus formal with so good a man, the small sum reserved proved the means later on of partially checking serious aggressions against the safety of the expedition.

My Colonel was accompanied down to Cuernavaca in the *diligencia*—in which we were all extremely jolted, dusty, and uncomfortable together—by two generals. They had apparently come to give him parting directions upon his mission. One of them, a thick-set, black bearded man, with a husky voice, had a conspicuous scar upon his face. I must not branch off into too many side issues, but the history of it was this: While commanding in Yucatan, he had ordered to be shot, on some of the ordinary revolutionary pretexts, a member of the powerful family of Gutierrez Estrada, which had commercial houses at Paris, Mexico, and Merida—a family noted among other things for the beauty and intelligence of its women. A brother of the victim came over from Paris as an avenger, sought out the executioner, met him in a duel, and left upon him this mark, which, at the time of its infliction, brought the recipient almost to death's door. The city of Mexico is some 7,500 feet above the level of the sea, and the way to the sea is one vast downward slope. It abounds in bold points of view, from which the prospect is spread faint as a vision at a vast distance below. Cuernavaca is one of the most thrilling of these prospects. What is yonder singular detail in the valley, as we go down to it? A hacienda set in the open side of a small extinct volcanic crater, of which it has brought the whole interior under smiling cultivation. And yonder yellowish spot? The sugar-cane field of the Duke of Monteleone. He is an Italian nobleman, resident in his own country, who inherits, by right of descent from Hernando Cortez, a part of the estates which were chosen here for himself by the Conqueror after the termination of his labors. There is nowhere a quainter group of old rococo churches than that to be found in the solid little city. They have flying buttresses of two arches in width descending to the ground, domes and inlay in colored porcelain tiles; and they are all clustered into one, with tombs and a battlemented wall about them. A student of architecture coming this way with his sketch-book in his hand (I am not sure that the trip could not be made enjoyably, as it certainly could economically, on foot, with an attendant to carry a knapsack, after the manner in which we later met some German naturalists and prospectors for ore making it) could find material for a month; and Mexico is full of such. Close by is a garden on a great scale, the Jardin Borda, to which one obtains admittance for a fee. It has a stone fishpond like a lake, terraces, urns, and statues, and is worthy of the most luxurious prince of Europe, yet I was told that it could be bought for $5,000. I asked the custodian if the owner was remarkable for anything in his country. He replied that he was remarkable for *altos pesos*, which is Spanish for saying a big pile of money. From its outer terrace you look down into the barranca which Alvarado so brilliantly crossed when sent by his indefatigable general to quell a rising of the disaffected Gonzalo Pizarro. Here are guavas, the delicious mango (which is like peach, pear, melon, and pine-apple combined), bananas, and plenty of other tropical fruits, but not the cocoanut, which only grows lower yet in Tierra Caliente.

But now behold us ready to start. Vincente Lopez, strange to state, is not present to extend to us the fostering care he has promised. He has sold out his contract, and quietly gone back to the street of Parque del Conde with his profits. We are in the hands of a new muleteer, one Marcos, who has never made the journey to Acapulco before, and a fourteen-year-old boy, Vincente, who has made it, and is to be depended upon to find out the way. Every cavalcade in Mexico is bizarre, and ours, ordinary enough there, would attract attention elsewhere. First rides the Colonel, a tall, spare man in military boots, a wide hat with silver braid, and a linen blouse through which project the handles of his revolvers, upon the dun mule Venado. He was not aiming at display, but comfort. Of my own aspect I need say nothing. It is a privilege the narrator has of letting it be supposed that it is always gallant, imposing, and adapted to the circumstances. I rode the rather large bay horse Pajaro. "Don" Marcos, as Vincente called him—a deprecating, tricky person, with a purpose, soon evident, of making up as far as possible his bad bargain—wore a crimson poncho with a hole for his head, and bestrode the small white horse Palomito (Little Dove). He thought good thus appreciatively to name the animals, though he had but come on the instant into possession of the whole outfit. The Colonel's trunks, sewn up in cocoa-mats, were securely tied with ropes upon the back of the mule Niña, and mine upon Aceituna. Vincente, the boy, ran barefoot most of the way to Acapulco behind the mules, crying, "Eh! machos!" and cracking them with a combination whip and blinder, with which they were blindfolded four times a day, when their loads were being put on and taken off.

There was a bit of wagon-road at first, as there is outside of each of the more important small places along the way, soon merging in the trail, however, and this becoming wilder and wilder. The huts and hamlets were of cane well thatched. There were fields of cane, trains of mules laden with sugar-loaves, and an occasional great, stately-looking sugar hacienda—now and then, one ruined in the wars. At noon the mules were unpacked at some favorable point, and the expedition rested several hours for a siesta during the extreme heat of the day. At night there were occasional *mesons*, or rude inns, but generally our stopping-places were the accommodations offered by the inhabitants of the villages to travellers along their trail. The baggage was piled under a thatched pavilion. Beds, consisting of a mat of stiff canes resting upon a couple of trestles, were arranged for us alongside or in the open piazzas. It has a rude sound, but these in the warm nights were by no means disagreeable. *A la guerre comme à la guerre!* Sleeping thus almost under the *belle étoile*, one looked out at the constellations and the outlines of strange, dark hills, heard the dogs bark (and enjoyed the more the novelty of his situation) down at remote Sacocoyuca, Rincon, and Dos Arroyos. At the gray of dawn we were off. The people, all of the Aztec blood, were gentle with us, honest, and not much less comfortable in their circumstances than farmers might be, say, newly established in the West. The promised difficulties of the undertaking, as they were encountered, largely melted away. It rained chiefly at night; there were but one or two showers in the daytime, though one of these was a very hard one. In Mexico, as in California, the rainy season means that in which rain falls, while in the dry season there is none. The food obtained along the way was of a rustic quality, occasionally scanty, but often excellent. Chickens were generally to be had; fried bananas were the most frequent vegetable accompaniment. The national dish of frijoles (black beans) was always palatable. There was milk in the morning, but not at night, the cows being milked but once a day. We foraged more or less ourselves. The Colonel demanded a couple of eggs under the off-hand formula of *un par de blanquillos*, which cannot be translated, but is much as if one should say, "A pair of little white'uns." He declared it "a miserable population" if they were not to be had.

On the very first day out Don Marcos came to say that he had no money with which to buy feed for the animals. It was with the reserve I had retained, doled out day by day, that this rather necessary purpose was accomplished, and

the arriero perhaps kept from leaving us in the lurch on the way. It was apropos of this incident that my first glimpse into the nature and inclinations of the Colonel was obtained. It was now evident that it would have been better not to pay the man in advance; but the Colonel refused either to regret that he had done so or to seem to regard it as a lesson for the future. "I am a philosopher," he said, "who makes little of annoyances." This philosophy he professed on other occasions also throughout the journey, and seemed, with a kind of bravado, almost to go in search of inconveniences. "But," I said, "philosophy is rather to avoid such troubles as one can by a moderate amount of forethought, and then to endure such as are inevitable without complaining." "No," he returned, "that is the civilian, not the military, point of view."

This trail of ours, though called in the country only a good road for birds to fly over, was travelled, neither better, and certainly no worse, than now, nearly a hundred years before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock. It was the sole highway between Acapulco, the only really excellent port on the Pacific Coast, and the capital. It has seen the transit of many a convoy of treasure, slaves, silks, and spices from the Indies, part bound for old Spain. A regular galleon used to sail from Acapulco to supply the country with Oriental goods. It has seen the march of royalist troops, under the long reign of the sixty-four viceroys, and of wild insurgent bands. By one of the rivers still lies the massive cut stone-work for a bridge abandoned at the War of Independence seventy years ago. Most momentous of all the processions that passed it, however, were the forces of Iturbide, who returned along it with a new tri-colored flag, called of the Three Guarantees—viz., Religion, Union, and Independence—to overthrow the Spanish power in the capital and make himself briefly Emperor. This brilliant figure, who came to such an ignominious end, is still greatly honored in Mexico, and there is something rather typical of Mexico, or at least of Spanish America, in his history. Taking the position which would have been that of a Tory here, he fought against the earlier insurrection in his country from its outbreak in 1808 till 1820. Sent, however, in command of an army against the great rebel chief Guerrero in the latter year, he united with instead of overthrowing him, seized a convoy of treasure as sinews of war, and drew up, at Iguala—a charming little city on our route—a plan of independence of his own, which he thereupon proceeded to put into execution. The Viceroy, in despair, tried to buy him back with promises of pardon, money, and a higher command, but without success. He made a triumphal entry into the capital in September, 1821. In May of the following year a sedition, which he had without doubt artfully set on foot, roused him in his hotel at night with clamor that he should be Emperor. He appeared upon his balcony and affected to consent reluctantly to the popular will. I have lived some months in the curious large hotel which was occupied as his palace at this time. He modelled himself upon Napoleon, who was nearly his contemporary. There is a portrait of him in the National Palace in the gorgeous coronation robes affected by the latter, though his whiskered countenance more resembles that of the English Prince Regent of about the same date. In August he imprisoned deputies, and in October, still following the model named, put his troublesome Congress out of doors. But in October the country rose against him, and he was obliged to leave it and take refuge in England. He returned again in July the next year, like Napoleon from Elba; but instead of sweeping the country with a new enthusiasm, like his distinguished prototype, he was seized instantly upon landing, and ordered to prepare for death within two hours. Four days were finally given him, and then he was shot.

Iturbide was a person of a highly politic turn, as is seen. He was a thorough devotee of expediency. He maintained (and there was not a little truth in this) that a people made up so largely of Indian serfs suddenly released from tyranny was not ready for self-government. He said that he meant the Empire to be only temporary. He showed no personal valor in the service of his country, as there had been no occasion for it; all his actual fighting being against it. Yet he is commemorated in the national anthem,* and a certain hold, in the Napoleonic way, which he must have upon the popular imagination, was relied upon by the French when they endeavored to establish Maximilian in Mexico. There is a grandson of Iturbide still living. Maximilian, in order to give his new dynasty a more traditional and indigenous aspect, adopted this boy and declared him the heir to the succession. The boy's mother, however, who at first acquiesced, repented later of her concession to the usurping order of things, and endeavored to get him away; and this was finally effected through the mediations of Secretary Seward and Mr. John Bigelow, who was then our Minister to France. W. H. B.

* "Si á lo lid contra hueste enemiga
Nos convoca la trompa guerrera,
De Iturbide la sacra bandera,
Mexicanos valientes, seguid!"

THE LATE GEORGE P. MARSH.

ATHENS, September 20, 1882.

THOSE of us Americans who have lived in the East, especially on the basin of the Eastern Mediterranean, during the last twenty-five years, will have heard more, and measured better, the personality of the late George P. Marsh than his countrymen at home. His public services are matter of public record. Those who have access to his despatches to the Department of State can tell better than I how he constantly studied whatever might be turned to the advantage of his country, and perhaps may read between the lines what he never made ostentation of—his love for it; an ardent, never-faltering, watchful devotion such as few public men have ever given their native land, and few governments have so poorly acknowledged and recompensed as ours. An Englishman, Mr. Marsh had been a peer, and long ago in the enjoyment of a pensioned leisure to follow up the studies in which he was the most widely distinguished American. That he had been a public servant, even ill-paid and hard-worked, to the loss of his country and his kind, so many years, is due, not to any element of good in our wretched diplomatic service, or any good sense or sound policy in our Government, but, as is well known, to the tenacity and fidelity of his relative, Senator Edmunds. I remember his writing me, at Lincoln's second election, when the usual scramble for offices was to begin: "I hear the cheep of the axe which shall lop my official head from my shoulders" (I quote from memory), "and I should not regret my removal were it not that I have no other source of income left; and were I to return to America I should not know how to get a living."

It has been my fortune in a varied and adventurous life to make the acquaintance of many distinguished men, and of all I ever knew George P. Marsh was the noblest combination, *me judice*, of the noblest qualities which distinguish man—inflexible honesty, public and private; the most intelligent and purest patriotism; ideality of the highest as to his service in his official career; generosity and self-sacrifice in his personal relations; quick and liberal appreciation of all good in others, and the most singular modesty in all that concerned himself; unfaltering adherence to truth at any cost; an adamantine recognition of duty which knew no deflection from personal motive; and, binding the whole in the noblest and truest of lives, a sincere religious temperament, in which the extreme of liberality to others was united to the profoundest humility as to himself. A man on whom his country or his countrymen might repose any trust, or impose any worthy service, and whose modesty alone prevented him from acquiring the highest honors human intellect can win, all that the great Republic, the richest country in the world (the only one at least rich enough to pay its debts), could do with him was to keep him in second and third-rate legations, wearing out his life in the futilities of a diplomacy which has neither value nor meaning, and the anxieties of an insecurity of position which no intelligent merchant's clerk in one of our great cities is liable to. A diplomatic service which has had drunkards and gamblers in its highest positions; whose tenure of office is regulated by the claims of bar-room politicians and the recompenses due to electoral frauds and corruption; which dismisses a Motley and menaces a Lowell because they are too well bred to suit the tastes of our average politician, or because they are not pleasing to the lowest dregs of the cosmopolitan populace of our States, may be proud of having retained even unwillingly such a man as Mr. Marsh in its service so many years. But to me it seems a wilful waste of what in America we have a woful want of: the culture of which he was one of the highest results. What any man could do to increase the respect of the representatives or individuals of other nations for the United States he did. I knew no European who had met him who had not a higher esteem of our country from having known him. I have often heard European men of letters speak of him as a splendid result of American institutions—which perhaps in one sense he was—and an example of the sagacity of our Government, which he certainly was not. As with Lowell at present, his place was continually fought for by all the Greeks and Trojans of our politics, and it was due purely to influences which, unfortunately, are rarely present in our politics, that in the one case, as in the other, the better man kept the place.

It was my misfortune to spend eight years of my life in the consular service of the United States. From the first post, that at Rome, I was removed to silence my remonstrances against the disgraceful state of our legation there; and, after our usual shopkeeping system, I was sent to a distant station at my own expense, after having been financially ruined by my official countrymen at Rome. Mr. Marsh was then Minister at Florence, at which place I was stopped by the cholera blockade which almost suspended travel in the Levant, and when he learned that I had exhausted my means and was stranded without resources, he came to my hotel in the quietest manner and insisted on my accepting a thousand francs. I did not know then, what I learned afterward, that he had to restrict himself to give me the money, and though it was six years before I could pay the last instalment of the loan, he never made an allusion to it. Nor am I the only American who has been benefited by his unostentatious benevolence; and I fear that in all cases his confidence was not even as well justified as in mine. His generosity was only limited by his means.

Mr. Marsh could never have been a popular man, except among students. His high, unbending sense of justice; his aversion to and contempt for anything that savored of duplicity, disingenuousness, partiality, or favoritism; his intolerance of anything that resembled corruption, unfitted him for American politics, while

the same justice in personal matters, coupled with a singular want of egoistic ambition and rare humility, seemed to prevent that display of personal preferences which contributes so largely to the creation of individual enthusiasm. If anybody loved him, it was for the sake of the truth and the justice he himself so revered; he was so broad in his humanities, so uncompromising in his judgments on his own failings, so free from vanity of any kind, or ostentation, that he seemed almost impersonal. He seemed to me to shrink from anything that looked like personal admiration with the sensitiveness of a pure and modest woman, and in his relations with his surroundings he was as tender, as loving as any woman, and all his experience in the world had not in the least affected the unworldliness of his nature or diminished his intense enthusiasm for pure and wild nature. He loved children, the Alps, the glaciers, the woods and fields and trees, with an untiring devotion, and the only complaint I remember his making of his own losses and decay was of his being unable to climb as he used to do; and, indeed, his only failing in power was physical, for to the very last his mind seemed endued with an immortal childhood; his speech became indistinct, but only as all his physical forces yielded. His attention never flagged, nor his appreciation of passing events.

There were some questions of Eastern politics in regard to which I differed from Mr. Marsh, and on which I still feel disposed to maintain my own views; but I never differed from him without feeling that I was more likely to be wrong than he, and being disposed to review my opinions. The most serious of these differences was on a personal question relating to the late J. P. Brown, dragoman and Secretary of Legation at Constantinople, to whom Mr. Marsh was much attached and whom he greatly respected. My own experience was contrary to Mr. Marsh's, and I had attacked Brown with what I considered justifiable vigor, and in retaliation for open hostility to me in my official capacity as well as to the then representative of the United States of America at Constantinople, Mr. Morris, whom he attacked in the press. The end of the conflict was that Mr. Brown was deprived of the Secretaryship, though retained as dragoman, and soon after died. This was a great shock to Mr. Marsh, who felt it almost as a personal injustice, but it never seemed to affect our friendly relations. He accepted even what he believed injustice without resentment, and he probably gave me credit for intending justly. He expressed his pain in one of his letters of the time, but not one word showed that he held me culpable in the matter. He held the opinions of those who differed from him in such respect that any unfairness of discussion was impossible, and I venture to say that no one could, even in small matters, differ from him without regretting the difference and wishing to go over to his side.

So round and full was his character, so free from any one-sidedness or eccentricity, that it will require a long and complete review of what he was and did to enable the nation to realize how great a man it has lost, and then it will be seen that with all his intellectual greatness his moral dignity was greater still. I never visited him without going away ashamed of my moral shortcomings—he seemed to have none. W. J. S.

THE INFLUENCE OF JOHN BRIGHT.

LONDON, Sept. 30, 1882.

MR. BRIGHT has said of himself with truth, "I am not a statesman." It is not as a politician, not as a party leader, not as an administrator, that he ought to be judged. He has been the consistent preacher of political Quakerism. Critics who wish to understand the nature and the value of the influence exerted in his generation by the Member for Birmingham ought to weigh both the worth of the doctrine which he has preached and the mode in which he has applied it. With Mr. Bright's political sermons, as with other sermons, the important thing is to understand the text, and still more the preacher's application thereof. The basis of political Quakerism is twofold: it rests on a combination of religious convictions and of economical doctrines. It is, at any rate as it appears in Mr. Bright's exposition of it, a union or reconciliation of the morality of the New Testament with the economical dogmas of Adam Smith. The advantages of peace; the necessity of doing justice to all men; the absolute and universal truth of free-trade dogmas; the wastefulness, no less than the sinfulness, of war; the folly and the iniquity of intervention in the affairs of our neighbors—views, in short, which are half religious and half economical—are, in Mr. Bright's teaching and in Mr. Bright's own mind, so mixed or blended that they can hardly be separated from each other. He has rarely, if ever, realized the possibility of conflict between his economical and his religious faith, and a good deal of his influence has been due to the perfectly honest, if not quite satisfactory, combination in his thoughts, speeches, and policy of two different classes of conceptions. His economical convictions have given an air of solidity and of common sense to views in the main dictated by religious sentiment, while the moral fervor and impressiveness of his oratory have been in the main due to the intensity of moral feeling.

That Mr. Bright's economical beliefs have played a considerable part in moulding his political course, he would be the last man to deny. They have preserved him entirely from all the various delusions which, under one form or another, connect themselves with socialism; and they have also, it must be added, kept him entirely out of sympathy with every kind of democratic movement which had the least tinge of communism. But it may be suspected that Mr. Bright's early connection with free trade and his position as a manufacturer have led him, no less than his opponents or his admirers, to overrate the influence of economical views on his general political convictions. At bottom, he is a man influenced far more by sentiment than by intellectual convictions. He is much more of a Quaker than of an economist. The theoretical objections to the commercial treaty with France, the grave criticism to which both the Irish Land Acts were, from a purely economical point of view, obviously open, never affected Mr. Bright's judgment or course of conduct. Mr. Cobden's commercial diplomacy appeared likely to secure peace. Mr. Gladstone's Land Acts promised to mitigate Irish discontent. To attain these moral results, Mr. Bright was prepared, whether wisely or not, to throw economical dogmas to the winds. Mr. Bright's political Quakerism is, therefore, though colored by his economical creed, mainly to be considered as a moral doctrine, or rather as an attempt to apply a certain view of morality to national life. If you take Quakerism (as Mr. Bright no doubt would take it) to be a fair representation of Christianity, Mr. Bright's teaching is in reality an endeavor to apply Christianity to political, and especially to international, transactions.

Of the speculative defects of Mr. Bright's doctrine this is not the place to speak at length. Two difficulties immediately present themselves to the minds of any one who considers fairly whether it be possible to conduct political affairs on the principles of Quakerism. It is, in the first place, a bold assumption to take for granted that a view of Christianity held by a small and diminishing sect—a view radically opposed to the historical development of the Church—is the true representation of Christianity, or, what is politically of almost equal consequence, that it will ever be admitted to be the true representation of Christianity by the majority of the Christian world. It is, in the second place, questionable whether the religious principles enunciated in the New Testament, and meant for the guidance of individuals, can be directly applied to the affairs of states. The existence of the Roman Empire made it absolutely impossible that any early Christian should have considered what was the relation between Christianity and international—we may almost say political—transactions. Add to this that the political life of the world has, as a matter of fact, been based upon a complex combination of feelings, beliefs, or ideas which, if partly due to Christianity, are also due in great part either to heathen or to Jewish influences. A consistent Quaker must condemn both war and capital punishment. He must doubt the morality of institutions based in effect on warfare. His theories seem applicable only to a state which has neither army nor police. Such a state, we all know, could not exist for a week. No doubt even the most sincere Quakers in some way or other modify their theories so as to make them compatible with the necessities of life. To do this is, however, to concede that Quakerism cannot form anything like an adequate code for the guidance of political action. It were futile to dwell on matters which must have occupied the attention of every defender or critic of Quakerism since the days of George Fox. The reason for here noting rather than discussing the impossibility of applying Quaker doctrine to public life is, that this inherent difficulty has in more respects than one injuriously affected the teaching and the influence of John Bright. He has, like every leader of men, been forced to deal with actual facts. His religious theory has been found incapable of consistent application to the facts with which he had to deal. Hence he has more than once been forced to take up an attitude which even to himself can hardly have appeared satisfactory. All through Mr. Bright's attack on the policy of the Crimean War, every one must have felt that the great orator never made it quite clear whether he objected to all war, or whether his objection lay against the particular war which he denounced. He had, it may be conjectured, on this point never quite made up his own mind. It would be difficult, we believe, to find in his speeches a passage which absolutely condemns war in itself; his attitude throughout the War of Secession is hardly consistent with the belief on his part that every form of warfare is open to condemnation. But the latent feeling that all war is wrong has certainly made him a singularly unfair critic of all particular wars, and a very unjust judge of statesmen who, like Palmerston, felt no more scruple in using the Army in what they thought a legitimate cause than in employing the police to arrest a burglar.

To the natural dislike of a Quaker and an economist to anything which disturbs the peace of the world, may in great measure be attributed Mr. Bright's singular indifference (to use no stronger term) toward the efforts of Continental nations to secure liberty or independence. From the beginning of 1848 to the outbreak of the War of Secession, Mr. Bright was completely out of sympathy with the strongest and the most generous Liberal feeling of the time. He deplored the enthusiasm excited in England by Garibaldi; he did everything that he could to prevent England from giving any aid to the efforts of foreign patriots. Of the sympathy of Gladstone with the sufferings of the Neapolitan political prisoners, of Palmerston's wish to promote the free-

dom of Italy, of Lord Russell's interest in the independence of Poland, not a trace is to be found in John Bright. Nor can it be said that as regards foreign policy his feelings or convictions have changed with the advance of life. The Liberal denunciations of Lord Beaconsfield's sympathy with Turkey ought to have led to active efforts on behalf of the races suffering from Turkish oppression. Unless the public are greatly mistaken, Mr. Bright did as much as any man to prevent any use of English power which might involve England in war, even if the war were a war against the Turk. Mr. Bright's teaching has undoubtedly tended to encourage the feeling that England is absolutely irresponsible for any oppression which takes place in foreign and distant countries. His zeal for peace has more than once stimulated national selfishness.

Nor have the evils resulting from the errors or incompleteness of Mr. Bright's political and religious creed been limited to the practical results of his teaching. He has, though quite unintentionally, contributed to produce a state of feeling not consistent with what may fairly be called national honesty. He has not converted Englishmen to Quakerism, but he has so far moulded public opinion as to make large bodies of Englishmen think that any policy is wrong which is avowedly based on the promotion of English interests. If the result of this feeling were solely to encourage a high, even if somewhat overwrought, feeling of the obligation lying upon England to respect the interests of other states, no special harm would be done. Unfortunately, the nominal acceptance of a creed in which a convert only half believes, produces a kind of humbug which tends toward hypocrisy. Mr. Bright himself is not responsible for English intervention in the affairs of Egypt, but his influence is, to a certain extent, responsible for the very unsatisfactory and unreal defences put forward on behalf of a policy which can hardly be defended in accordance with the doctrines taught by Mr. Bright. When we are told that the bombardment of Alexandria was an act of self-defence; that it is the duty of England to improve the position of the fellah; that the country is acting with absolute disinterestedness, and the like—we may legitimately regret that acts defensible enough on ordinary political grounds should, under the influence of Mr. Bright's teaching, be excused by most untenable or dishonest apologies.

Mr. Bright's teaching has its weak side, which it were mere flattery for any admirer to keep out of sight. But it were the grossest injustice toward a great teacher to deny that he has, by his acts no less than by his words, produced a most beneficial effect on the tone of English politics. He has, in combination with Mr. Cobden, transformed the whole character of political agitation. Orator Hunt, Sir Francis Burdett, Feargus O'Connor—even, be it said with all respect, Lord Brougham—were agitators who could not divest themselves of the character of demagogues. Something the same may, in spite of O'Connell's transcendant genius and (from an Irish point of view) indisputable patriotism, be said of the hero of Catholic Emancipation. Whatever can be alleged against John Bright, no one who has an eye for facts can fairly allege that the great democratic orator has been a flatterer of the people. He has again and again displayed the noblest trait of Quakerism—namely, the power to stand up on behalf of the dictates of his conscience against all but universal opposition. He ran counter to the whole vein of popular sentiment during the Crimean War, when to be a friend of Russia was held almost equivalent to being a traitor to England. He denounced real or supposed injustice to China when the whole country, and especially the mercantile classes, were prepared to rally round Palmerston as the vindicator of English prestige. He demanded justice for Hindoos when all England was still trembling with indignation at reported Sepoy atrocities. He agitated for the admission of the people to representation at a moment when to appeal to the spirit of reform was (to employ an expression attributed to Mr. Bright himself) like "flogging a dead horse." He resisted the whole sentiment of the well-to-do and influential classes by denouncing the attempt to form a republic based on slavery. He did this, it must be remembered, without any very general popular support, without any encouragement, to say the least, from men like Gladstone, and (what must have been harder still for Mr. Bright to bear) without any energetic sympathy from Cobden. In many of these instances Mr. Bright is now admitted to have been as far-seeing as he was bold. But the point to remark is not the correctness of his judgment, but the moral independence of his action, and the new color given by him to popular agitation through the proof which his own acts afforded that a man may advocate the cause, without flattering the prejudices or passions, of the masses.

If Mr. Bright has raised the tone of politics by separating democratic agitation from the vices generally displayed by demagogues, this is not the only service, great though it be, which he has rendered to his country. His life-long labors have increased, if they have not created, a new sense of responsibility not only as regards peace and war, but as regards every matter connected with the treatment of foreign nations or the government of countries which are, in any sense whatever, dependencies. The eloquence and energy of Mr. Gladstone gave force, point, and effect to the reprobation with which the electors of Great Britain regarded the policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Government. But Mr. Gladstone's harangues would have fallen flat if the opinions of his audiences had not for years been moulded by the moral teaching of Mr. Bright. This is not the occasion to examine how far Mr. Bright or Mr. Gladstone took a fair view of Lord Beaconsfield's policy or (what is of far more consequence) of that Palmerstonian policy of which Lord Beaconsfield's acts were the parody rather than the imitation. The point to be noticed is, not that Mr. Bright's judgment was correct, but that his preaching had created among the English people a perfectly new sensitiveness as to the moral guilt of any wars which could not be justified by palpable necessity. The peace with the Boers marked the prevalence of sentiments among Englishmen which in 1853 had hardly been brought into existence. No political act (unless it be the settlement of the *Alabama* claims by peaceful arbitration) is such a testimony to the moral effect produced by Mr. Bright's life and work as the convention which followed the victory of the Boers.

If any one wishes to measure the influence of Mr. Bright in matters which do not concern peace and war, he can take no better criterion than the attitude of the English people toward Ireland. The disestablishment, indeed, of the Irish Church, though facilitated by the authority of the Member for Birmingham among the people, can hardly in any direct way be ascribed to his action. But on two points he has assuredly effected something like a transformation of English opinion. He has convinced the electorate that the English land laws cannot justly be applied to Ireland. He has made the English people, for the first time in history, listen with patience to Irish grievances under circumstances which, not thirty years ago, would have rendered it impossible for Irish demands to obtain fair discussion or attention. To say this is not to allege that on matters of Irish policy Mr. Bright's ideas or influence have been wholly beneficial. He has never shown sufficient desire to support the law by the whole force, if necessary, of the state. The Coercion Act, which either has expired or is about to expire, was an attempt, and, we may now add a futile attempt, to substitute humane despotism for legal sternness. But the undoubted benefit which Mr. Bright's teaching has conferred in England is to create or evoke a new spirit of patience. Whether the singular calmness which, on the whole, has for the last two years characterized English popular sentiment with regard to Ireland will endure, is a matter on which no one would wish to pronounce a confident opinion. But that the attitude of the nation on the news of the assassination of Lord Cavendish and of Mr. Burke was so utterly unlike the condition of violent passion excited by the no doubt infinitely greater horrors of the Sepoy Mutiny, is a singular tribute to the effect of unceasing protests in favor of humanity and of justice.

Mr. Bright's statesmanship will, we suspect, command in future times but very qualified admiration. His religious—which is with him the same thing as his political—creed is open to speculative objections, and the attempt to make it the guide of national conduct has led, and must lead, to several unsatisfactory results. But candid critics will, when party contests have become matters of the past, admit that Mr. Bright has labored after his lights to import the spirit of morality, of justice, and of humanity into politics, and that few preachers have more effectively taught to their generation the lesson which it was their mission to preach.

A. V. Dicey.

Correspondence.

A FALSE NEWS ITEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of August 3, 1882, I have observed the following, under the heading "Summary of the Week's News":

"There is great mortality in Alaska from a plague—a combination of scarlet fever and measles. Commander Pearson, of the U. S. S. *Wachusett*, is severely censured for taking both surgeons away from Sitka and leaving no medicine."

Coming from such a paper as the *Nation*, one would certainly conclude that the administration of Commander Pearson in Alaska is censured; that his action in this case at Sitka was inhuman. To correct the impression which your notice gives, and to show that the letter from Alaska, which no doubt is your authority, did not state the facts as they were, I beg leave to submit the following, showing that Commander Pearson did all that could be demanded of him, and that his action could not be censured.

The *Wachusett* arrived at Sitka on July 17, and found that there had been much sickness in the place, and, as you state, great mortality. One surgeon was at once directed to investigate the disease, and to prescribe for the sick. The *Wachusett* was placed in quarantine, not wishing to get measles aboard. On the 23d of July we had coaled and were ready for sea, but before deciding to sail, Commander Pearson again directed the medical officer to examine the condition of affairs ashore, and report whether or not it was necessary to leave a medical officer at Sitka in event of our going to sea. The senior medical officer reported that the epidemic had subsided; there were no new cases. The sick had been seen, and prescribed for, and medicines

and directions left for their use, so that it was not necessary to leave a medical officer at Sitka. The sincerity of this report could be appreciated by knowing the devotion of the medical officers of this ship to the sick of Alaska; and it proved correct, inasmuch as the sickness entirely disappeared. There being no business to detain the *Wachusett* at Sitka, she sailed on the 27th for Wrangel

In conclusion, I would state that what I presume to be your authority for stating that "Commander Pearson is censured," was a letter written by parties in Sitka who seem to be desirous of making themselves disagreeable to Naval authority in Alaska.

If the above could have a place in your valuable paper, the wrong impressions concerning Commander Pearson might be corrected.

Very respectfully,

A. C. DILLINGHAM,
Lieutenant U. S. N.

U. S. S. *Wachusett*, 3D RATE, OFF FORT WRANGEL, ALASKA TERRITORY, Sept. 7, 1882.

THE FREE PLAY OF ECONOMIC FORCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read, in your review of Jevons's 'State in Relation to Labor': "Under the unrestricted play of economic forces the worst possible, not the best possible, form of industrial society comes to exist. The moral tone imparted to it is that of the worst, and not of the best, competing elements." This strikes me as "strong doctrine." I do not care to enter into any discussion of the illustration by which you enforce it, or the views of state interference which you bring forward. I strongly dissent from them; but I know that they are in fashion. I cannot, however, resist the temptation to call upon you to reconsider the doctrine of the lines which I have quoted, and let us know whether it is the sober conviction of the *Nation* that that doctrine is true. I have heard it said that some people believe that the free operation of economic forces produces the ideally best form of industrial society, and that others believe that the same force produces the best form of society which is possible under the existing conditions. Cobden held something approaching to the latter doctrine, but never formulated it, to my present recollection. There used to be a school of us who held that the free play of economic forces would produce (to judge from all experience) a better form of industrial society than could ever be produced by laws and boards of state inspectors. We held this, not as an "absolute principle," but as a maxim of expediency. I do not know how many of that school are still left. When Jevons could write such a farrago of loose thinking as appears in the book referred to, we may well doubt of others. I am, however, for one, still firm in the old faith, my education in which I owed, in no slight degree, in my younger days, to the *Nation*. The doctrine that industrial society would, under the free play of economic forces, run down to the worst possible form, is entirely new to me. It is an "absolute principle," far transcending in its scope any absolute principle which I have heretofore met with in social science. I should like respectfully to inquire whether the *Nation* has adopted it, and means to teach it to the persons who trust that journal to do their thinking for them. If so, I think that we are entitled to a very careful elucidation of the doctrine.

Yours very truly,

W. G. SUMNER.

NEW HAVEN, Sept. 30, 1882.

[The doctrine is doubtless strongly expressed, but it is nevertheless true that the unrestricted play of economic forces has, wherever tried, produced a bad form of industrial society, if not the worst possible. It has never been completely tried anywhere, but it has been more fully tried in England than elsewhere, and there produced results which compelled state interference through a considerable number of regulating acts. Moreover, some of the best specimens of industrial society on a small scale owe their goodness, not to the free play of economic forces, but to the interference wrought by the benevolence of employers. We are not aware that the *Nation* has ever anywhere absolutely opposed state interference. On the contrary, it has always treated the proper limits of the province of government, on the rule of J. S. Mill, as a line of expediency. It could not maintain this and maintain also that industrial activity should always, under all circumstances, be let alone. But we concede that to say that "the worst possible form of industrial society comes to exist under the free play of economic forces," is going too far, because nobody has seen the worst possible form, or knows what it is. The worst form we know of is slavery, but that cannot be called the product of a free play of economic forces. It is rather the result of the free play of military force. In the last analysis, it may be said to rest on the ability of the employer to give the laborer a good thrashing whenever he asks for wages.—ED. NATION.]

THE NEW YORK CITY REPUBLICAN ORGANIZATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a conversation on politics, I made the assertion that only a comparatively small number of the Republican voters of New York *City* had a voice in the primary meetings. Am I right? Could you give a short article on the subject?

A CONSTANT READER OF THE NATION.

KEENE, N. H.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit an old reader to remark that he has read what you have published from time to time concerning the non-representation of the great mass of New York City Republicans in the primaries. What I do not understand is the origin and history of this state of things, and the constitutions and rules of the local societies by which the control of New York Republican politics is kept in the hands of a small number of men—say, five or six thousand. It has occurred to me that two or three elaborate articles on the general topic at this time would be of public service. Certainly, they would add greatly to my stock of information.

Respectfully, OLD READER.

CLEVELAND, O., Oct. 6, 1882.

[We last published a very full account of the matter in the *Nation* of December 4, 1879, in an article entitled "New York Primaries Described by a Worker," based on a letter written to Mr. Arthur by one of the local "workers," Mr. George Bliss, who, though by no means a political Puritan himself, was, or professed to be, shocked by the state of things at that date. There is no reason to suppose that it has improved since then, and much for supposing that it has grown worse. His description showed that the rolls of the twenty-four District Associations which elect the delegates to the nominating conventions contained 13,335 names, representing the 50,000 (now said to be 80,000) Republican voters of this city. Of these, however, he said fully one-half were the names of dead men, or of men who had removed or turned Democrats, and that not over 6,000 were entitled to be there. Why do more of the voters not join the Associations? it will be asked. First, because the existing members do not wish additions to their numbers. They are in control; in other words, they are the Machine. They elect the delegates who make the nominations, and it is their interest to confine this power to as small a number as possible. The hindrances to joining them on the part of respectable men are several. In the first place, the meetings are held at night, and in disagreeable localities, and the managers are rough and tricky, and quiet men of business dislike leaving their homes to contend with them, knowing that they will be cheated by preconcerted arrangements, and fearing that they will be insulted and abused. In the second place, a pledge to support all nominations hereafter to be made is exacted as a condition of membership, which, of course, no self-respecting man will take. But, thirdly, supposing him to be willing to take it, and to be willing to incur all the discomfort and inconvenience of attending the meetings, other difficulties arise. According to Mr. Bliss, applicants for admission whose presence the Machine men do not desire are "directly rejected" without reason—admission being by election—but oftener "by a refusal to act on names presented by hanging them up in a committee which never reports." Obnoxious members, too, are got rid of or kept away from the meetings by "dropping" them from the rolls, by "expelling them on frivolous charges," or by sending them notice of meetings by postal-card two hours only before the hour named, and refusing admission to those who cannot show the card.

Why, then, it will be asked, do the respectable citizens not organize primaries of their own, and send up contesting delegations to the Convention? Because the Machine, headed by the Boss, has control of the Conventions, and supports its subordinates in the city, and would reject, as "irregular," delegates produced by a revolt of any kind. The system is thoroughly organized. It is nefarious in all its details, and is based on the assumption, which events have justified for the last twenty years, that the control of the Republican Convention secures the Republican vote, owing to the deep-seated Republican dread of the Democrats. This dread, in fact, furnishes a large band of rascals in this city with their whole stock in trade, and in many cases with their means of livelihood. —ED. NATION.]

A RITUALISTIC VIEW OF THE LATE DR. PUSEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me a few words regarding your editorial in the *Nation* of September 21. It seems to me to give a wrong impression in several particulars about Dr. Pusey and the great

work in the Church of England for which he did so much.

I venture to assert that there are few scholars capable of judging of the merits of such works as 'Lectures on the Prophecy of Daniel,' 'Commentaries on the Minor Prophets,' the last great work on 'Eternal Punishment,' and others, who will agree with you that "Dr. Pusey's scholarship in Hebrew was mediocre." Whatever opinions there may be about his religious teaching, there appears to be but one among scholars in this—that one of the greatest of their number has gone to his rest. This is what Newman said of him: "I used to call him ὁ μέγας. His great learning, his immense diligence, his scholar-like mind, his simple devotion to the cause of religion, overcame me."

Again, Pusey never founded a "sect." It would have been a sin of the gravest character for a man of his belief to do so. "He remained," as you say, "in the English Church." Neither did he proclaim a "new doctrine." He and his few earnest companions showed that the Church of England is Divine in its origin, Apostolic and Catholic. They sought to revive, what was then so much needed, earnestness in the Christian life; to point out the neglected doctrines and practices of the Church, which were taught in the Bible, the Fathers, the Primitive Church, and the Prayer-Book of the Church of England. The last fifty years have shown the wonderful results of the Oxford movement. It has been, as the Archbishop of Canterbury acknowledges, a period of the greatest life in the Church of England. The restored churches, the many new ones built, the work of sisterhoods, weekly communions, and many other marks of true religion are living witnesses, to-day, of the greatness of the work begun by the humble Pusey and his associates. Such scholars as Liddon, such preachers as Knox-Little, and such martyrs as Green, now in Lancaster jail more than a year for being true to the Church and constitutional law, are the men that are now carrying on the work. It is before this school in the Church that the "new set of antagonists" and other foes of the Faith must fall.

As to confession, it seems no more a mark of "weakness" to make use of it, if one desires it, than for one to make known to a physician one's sickness in order to be cured.

Respectfully yours, W. H. Tomlins.

Rantoul, Ill., October 3, 1882.

[No Hebraist of distinction has said that Dr. Pusey was more than "mediocre." The best that has been said for him is, that the chair which he took when no clergyman in the Anglican Church knew any Hebrew did not decline in his hands. He did not found a "sect" in the technical sense, perhaps, but his followers were separated from the Evangelical wing by lines of dislike and distrust and disagreement as strong as those which separate the Church from any sect. About "the sin" of it we know nothing. Denying that he proclaimed a "new doctrine" is, we must be allowed to say, somewhat evasive. The denial can only be maintained by the plea that the Church of England existed in the third and fourth century, and that any doctrine then held is now old Anglican doctrine. But we cannot give our columns up to rattling the dry bones of a dead controversy.—Ed. Nation.]

TRIAL BY JUDGE OR JURY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Edward A. Freeman, in a recent article in the *Fortnightly Review*, entitled "Some Impressions of the United States," makes the following statement, which seems to require explanation:

"New devices, indeed, we sometimes light upon in the New World. When we look at a Maryland judge, who is authorized under certain circumstances to send men to the gallows without a jury, we are divided between wonder at the innovation and awe toward a being who can do what no being that we ever saw before can do."

The innovation in Maryland which creates wonder and awe in the mind of Mr. Freeman is a law which gives to every one accused of crime the right to elect whether he will be tried by a court or a jury, without excepting capital cases. It has in substance been in force ever since 1793, and is entirely satisfactory to the people of the State. It is very seldom that capital cases are submitted to the Court, although instances have occurred, but in none, so far as I know, has the Court found it necessary to pronounce sentence of death.

It is a noteworthy fact, however, that those accused of all other offences generally prefer the Court to a jury. I have before me a list of the trials which took place in the Criminal Court of Baltimore City from the 1st of January, 1880, to the 11th of September, 1882. They were in all 4,417. Of these, many were police cases, which are everywhere tried without a jury, but a large number were crimes of the grade of felony, which, according to the rules of the common law, could only be tried before a jury. In the trial of all these cases only 238 juries were sworn. This Court is presided over by a single judge, and during the last fifteen years the presiding judge has been changed three times, but throughout the entire period the trials by the Court of offences of every grade, less than capital, have greatly exceeded those by a jury. A very onerous, and often painful, duty is thus imposed on the Court, but it is easy to see that much is gained in saving expense as well as the time of all concerned in the trials. If it be right to give to the accused the privilege of election to be tried by the Court or a jury, there seems to be no sufficient reason to deprive him of it in a capital case.

The law of Maryland is at least worthy of consideration by those communities which do not permit any one accused of felony to be tried by the Court, but subject him against his will to the tedious, expensive, and uncertain trial by jury. G. W. B.

Baltimore, October 7, 1882.

SCHWERD ON LIGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the review of Mr. Wright's 'Light' (*Nation*, Sept. 14, 1882) is this sentence: "In this connection he quotes an experiment of Schwerd's, but it happens that Schwerd is one of the few names which we are unable to find in any list of physicists." The book from which the experiment was quoted is doubtless 'Die Beugungserscheinungen, aus den Fundamentalgezetzen der Undulationstheorie analytisch entwickelt,' by F. M. Schwerd (Mannheim, 1835, 4to, 18 copperplates). It is referred to in Ganot's 'Physics,' quoted from frequently by Gehler, called by both Müller and Wüllner "a classical work." Daguin says: "We cite particularly Schwerd"; and Billet speaks of him as "cet habile physicien." Surely, Mr. Wright could quote from no better authority.

Yours truly, Charles K. Wead.

Ann Arbor, Mich., Sept. 30, 1882.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons offer at a very reasonable price a neat, uniform edition of the late George P. Marsh's principal works—viz., 'Lectures on the English Language,' first and second series, in two volumes, and 'The Earth as Modified by Human Action.' These works are of a class peculiarly available for self-culture, and are now brought within the reach of every one. No better examples of popularization exist.

Hallam's and May's respective Constitutional Histories of England, covering together the unbroken period from 1485 to 1870, have been handsomely republished in a new "Standard Edition" by A. C. Armstrong & Son, as a uniform series, consisting of four volumes 8vo.

The same firm reduce to the lowest terms the price of a complete uniform edition of the historical and border romances of William Gilmore Simms—seventeen volumes being compressed into ten, and the whole given a very presentable exterior for the library. Of this author it would be curious to learn how widespread is his present popularity in the section of which he was for so long almost the only man of letters. Darley's original illustrations of these novels have been retained.

Bulfinch's 'Age of Fable' having been reprinted till the plates were worn out, the publishers (Lee & Shepard) have wholly remade the book, with additions by the Rev. E. E. Hale, in the spirit of the original, and with a great number of illustrations. It still, at the end of nearly thirty years, holds its own as a clear and readable substitute for Lempriere and the more ponderous and learned classical dictionaries, to say nothing of its copious examples of the mythologic allusiveness of the best English poetry.

Walpole's 'Short History of the Kingdom of Ireland' has been added to the Franklin Square Library of the Messrs. Harper.

Three volumes of "facetiæ" meet on our table. 'Billy Blew-Away's Alphabetical, Orthographical, and Philological Picture-Book' (Boston: Osgood) is a very moderately jocose assortment of white silhouettes on a blue ground. Owen Wister's 'The New Swiss Family Robinson' (Cambridge: C. W. Sever) hits the mark as a satire, but for sustained humor it suffers by comparison with Rollo's Cambridge adventures, that earlier trophy of the Harvard *Lampoon*. On the other hand, 'College Cuts' (White & Stokes), chosen from the Columbia *Spectator*, a college paper with a humorous corner or corners, compares well with the larger and more heterogeneous collection of designs from the *Lampoon*. There is more *chic* and a higher average quality in the drawing. Politics are altogether eschewed in favor of collegiate and social topics. The legends are noticeably good.

Mr. Howard Henderson's recent articles in the *American Field* are to be reissued as a book, under the title, 'Practical Hints on Camping,' with the imprint of Jansen, McClurg & Co. Camp photography is incidentally treated of.

White & Stokes announce a new and elegant edition in 16mo of Charlotte Brontë's poems; and 'The Artist's Year,' illustrated for every month by a design from a representative American artist, and a poem.

Harper & Bros. have issued 'Sterne,' by H. D. Traill, in the English Men of Letters Series; and 'Diddie, Dumps, and Tot,' by Mrs. Louise Clark Pyrnelle—a picture of slave-life in the South from a child's point of view.

Cassell & Co. have nearly ready 'The United States Art Directory and Year-Book,' prepared under the direction of Mr. S. R. Koehler, late editor of the *American Art Review*.

From a circular issued by Mr. Peter G. Thomson, of Cincinnati, publisher of Gen. J. D. Cox's 'Second Battle of Bull Run,' it appears that no unpleasantness exists, as has been alleged, between him and Messrs. Charles Scribner's Sons, on the ground of that volume's having been published in a style similar to that of the 'Campaigns of the Civil War.'

Forestry Bulletins Nos. 19, 20, and 21 of the Census Bureau, issued under the direction of Prof. C. S. Sargent, exhibit graphically in colored maps the timber conditions of the Pacific Coast proper. No. 18 tabulates the fuel value of the more important woods of the United States.

We have received the first number of the *American Journal of Forestry*, edited by Mr. Franklin B. Hough, Chief of Forestry Division, United States Department of Agriculture, and published at Cincinnati by Robert Clarke & Co., and a sixteen-page issue of the Montreal *Herald*, filled with the proceedings of the recent American Forestry Congress in that city.

The first number of the monthly *Decorator and Furnisher* (New York: E. W. Bullinger) promises and contains contributions by men of established reputation, but the form of this magazine is opposed to the best taste, and makes one doubt the authority of its directors.

Tributes to Darwin on this side of the water have not been wanting in number or heartiness. The latest that has fallen under our eye is Dr. Asa Gray's sympathetic "biographical notice," as it is called, in the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. In a Washington paper we find brief but admiring mention of a lecture on 'The Demon of Darwin,' delivered at the National Medical College, by Dr. Elliott Coues, whose motive seems to have been to indicate what philosophy may be deduced from the Darwinian theory of evolution, with special reference to its bearing upon Platonism and its anti-materialistic tendency. "A dialogue between the disembodied spirits of Darwin and Socrates" formed a portion of the lecture, if that is the right name to bestow on the composition.

Apropos of Mr. Herbert Spencer's visit to this country, the Providence Library's *Monthly Reference Lists* for September has its customary bibliography concerning his philosophy. The second topic is Wordsworth's poetry.

Classes in the subjects required by the Harvard Examinations for Women, which are now identical with those for boys, have been established by the New York Local Committee at Nos. 21 and 23 West Thirty-second Street. The object is "to furnish experienced and responsible teachers, at the lowest possible cost to the student." The instructor in Latin and Greek is Dr. E. G. Sihler, late Johns Hopkins Fellow in Greek, and his charge will be proportional to the size of his class. "Earnest students, not preparing for the examinations, will be admitted to the Classical and Mathematical Courses."

The most promising movement yet made toward the founding of an educational journal worthy of the best culture of the country is announced in a circular issued by Mr. H. S. Ballou, 7 A Beacon Street, Boston. It will be called the *American Teacher*, and "will aim to discuss, in the light of philosophic principles, all questions of education," ranging from the kindergarten to the university. One department alone, if faithfully conducted, would be worth the whole cost of the experiment; we refer to the "critical reviews, by specialists, of school-books and works on education." We cannot reproduce here the list of eminent names embracing contributors and actual shareholders, nor the scheme by which a permanent fund is to be raised for the paper. The circular can be had on application to Mr. Ballou, as above.

—B. Westermann & Co. send us the first portion of an immense work undertaken by W. Spemann, of Stuttgart, under the editorial direction of Joseph Kürschner—'Deutsche National-Literatur.' In brief, this is a combination of general views of the whole course of German literature, with historical and critical editing of its chief monuments. Thus, the *Lieferung* before us contains (without completing it) Goethe's 'Faust,' preceded by an introduction giving an account of the "origins" of that drama, while the text itself is freely commented in foot-notes. Taking a hint, perhaps, from the publishers (Velhagen & Klasing) of Koenig's 'Deutsche Literatur-Geschichte' and Stacke's 'Deutsche Geschichte,' Spemann proposes to embellish usefully the present work with portraits and other illustrations in great variety. Accordingly, we have already facsimiles of a good-sized drawing by Goethe (in 1806) of his 'Faust' MS., and of the playbills for the first representations of 'Faust' at Brunswick and at Weimar. Finally, the index of names and subjects will be made a veritable literary lexicon by the insertion of explanatory notices, biographical data, etc., and will fill two volumes. On such a scale, at least, this last feature has no parallel. Spemann has carried as far as any one the union of good workmanship with cheapness, and he offers each instalment of the 'German National Literature' at about fourteen cents (to the home subscriber, of course). One or two will appear weekly for the space of three or four years, so that we may calculate that the whole work will cost, unbound, from forty to fifty dollars. The body print for the text is large enough; that for the editorial prefix is fine, but as little trying to the eyes as faultless presswork can make it.

—We have just received from the author a volume which is unique in more than one respect. Its title is 'Brynjólfur Sveinsson.' It was printed in Reykiavik, the capital of Iceland, by Einar Thordarson, the leading publisher of that distant land, and composed by Mrs. Torfhildur Thorsteinsdóttir Holm, who resides in Selkirk West, Manitoba, Canada. It is a stout volume of 309 octavo pages, and is, on the one hand, the first historical novel ever written or published in the Icelandic language, and, on the other hand, the first novel ever written by an Icelandic woman. The scene of the story is in Iceland, in about the middle of the seventeenth century, Mrs. Holm having purposed to give a picture of Ultima Thule about the time when the epoch of modern researches in old Norse antiquities began. The hero of the novel is Brynjolf Sweinsson, Bishop of Skalholt, who discovered the manuscript of the Elder Edda in the year 1643, and gave it the title of Sæmundar Edda, believing it to have been written by Sæmund the Wise (born 1056, died 1133), an opinion that has since been set aside. He was born, 1605, at a place called Holt, in western Iceland, and died as Bishop of Skalholt in 1674. He belongs to the brilliant galaxy of learned men whom Iceland produced in the seventeenth century, and among whom we find Arngrim Jonsson, the progenitor of the celebrated Vidalin family, and the so-called "restorer of Icelandic literature"; Thorlak Skulason, the translator of the Icelandic Bible; Ole Worm, the antiquarian and runologist; Björn Jonsson, the annalist; Thormod Torfason (Torfæus), the historian; Arne Magnusson, a remarkable collector of manuscripts, and founder of the Arne Magnæan Library in Copenhagen, and many others. As to the contents of Mrs. Holm's book, we may say that she writes her native tongue well, and that there is a charming simplicity in her narrative perfectly in keeping with the theme she has in hand. But the mere circumstances of its production and publication would entitle her book to be entered among the curiosities of literature.

—Dr. Hans von Bülow, who wields a clever and sarcastic pen, wrote some letters to the *Allgemeine Deutsche Musik-Zeitung*, last spring, descriptive of his concert tour in Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. These letters, which have been reissued in pamphlet form, deserve attention not only as one of the best existing accounts of the musical condition of the countries named, but also because of the side lights incidentally thrown on German music and musicians. Much space is devoted to Gade, the most prominent of the Northern composers. He is still of youthful appearance, although sixty-five years old. He was a pupil of Mendelssohn, but has made persistent efforts to introduce Liszt and Wagner to Copenhagen audiences; and his efforts were crowned with success because he went to work with the *intention* of securing success for them (a hit at some German conductors). Gade has also familiarized his countrymen with those monumental works, Bach's Passion music and Beethoven's Ninth Symphony, and he "has more sympathy for Berlioz's music than all the German conductors taken together." Bülow's manner of interpreting Beethoven with his Meiningen orchestra having been questioned by several German critics, he is delighted to find Gade in perfect accordance with his views. Among the players in the Royal orchestra of Copenhagen, he found artists of the first rank. The audiences were, in spite of their latitude, characterized by a "tropical warmth" and enthusiasm which he had not encountered elsewhere during twenty-five years of concertizing; and their taste was so good that he found he could dispense with the sensational pieces necessary elsewhere. This pleasant state of affairs he thinks is due to the large number of excellent musicians, and, negatively, to the subordinate position occupied by that "bastard-parasite," the opera; for Bülow is of opinion that "a healthy development of musical taste is rendered impossible, or at least is greatly obstructed, by an unhealthy condition of operatic affairs"—a statement which New Yorkers might reflect upon to advantage. During the last ten years Gade has written less than formerly, and his "novelettes" for orchestra, as well as his concerto for violin, have not received the attention they deserve. The same is true of the operas, cantatas, and ballets of the Nestor of Danish composers, Prof. J. Hartmann. Like the Russian Glinka, he is a national composer, and has never written anything that is trivial, thus proving Rubinstein's observation that "music is an aristocratic art." The excellent organist Lindemann travels through the country every summer, at the expense of the city of Stockholm, to complete his collection of Northern folk-songs. In regard to Stockholm audiences, too, Bülow found that "the best that could be offered them was just good enough for them." The two greatest nuisances he observed were the excessive pauper tax levied on amusements, and the fluctuations in the price of tickets. The pauper tax is no less than ten per cent. of the gross receipts, whereas in Paris it is only five per cent. Concert tickets cost three crowns on the day of the concert, four crowns a day in advance, and five two days in advance—a most paradoxical "anti-climax." Bülow is a great admirer of Brahms, and he thinks that a "rational Brahms cultus" introduced among a people so highly gifted would have immeasurable consequences. "After twelve years' study of the great master," he says, "I am somewhat in the same position as that which the painter Cornelius held toward Rome. Being asked by a German guest how much time was requisite to know thoroughly the Eternal City, he exclaimed impatiently: 'You will have to ask some one else; I have only been here twenty-five years.'"

—We expect new kings to be discovered on the bricks of Assyria, and the dynasties of Egypt are not quite definitely settled. It was only the other day that M. Miller introduced us to a hitherto unknown Queen of Cyprus, Demanassa. But who expected that an addition could be made to the royal house of France? Yet so it is. M. Charles Grellet-Balguerie, in a pamphlet called 'Deux Découvertes Historiques; Histoire de Clovis III., Nouveau Roi de France' (672 or 673 to 677), has given reasons for thinking that a young prince who was produced by the Mayor of the Palace, Ébroin, as son of Clotaire III. was really son of Dagobert III. of Austrasia, and should be styled Clovis III., so that the son of Thierry III. will become Clovis IV. It is, after all, a question rather of *hautes études* than of living interest, even less important than will be for posterity the names of the puppets whom Gambetta put forward when he hesitated to take the power which he lost so soon.

—In 1879 it was a favorite argument with the German protectionists that foreigners would be obliged to pay the customs duties; now, as we learn from the *Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie und Statistik* (a magazine not inclined to misrepresent in favor of the free-trade school), manufacturers themselves are clamoring for rebates on raw material imported with a view to export after being manufactured. The chief cause of this change of attitude has been the experience of the last two years regarding the effect on German mills of the duty on grain. Reports of failures from all parts of Germany show that this important industry is on the road to ruin. Rebates, indeed, were nominally allowed when it could be proved that the flour exported was made of grain which had been imported, and only of such grain, but the proof of identity was in most cases impossible. It was a general practice to mix foreign and domestic grain in grinding, and, for technical and economic reasons, the German mills are to a great extent forced to do so. Of course, when imported grain was mixed with domestic, no rebate whatever could be allowed. What was the effect expressed in figures? In 1879, 200,000 tons of flour and meal were exported; in 1880, 80,000 tons; and in 1881, 50,000 tons. Between 1875 and 1879 the industry of the flouring-mills had increased rapidly, and the quality of the work done had improved. The great mills on the North Sea and the Baltic being unable, as formerly, to export their products to Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, attempted to dispose of them in Germany, the result being the excessive competition which has ruined so many mill-owners. This injury to the country has been so indisputable that when the Government brought in a bill doing away with the necessity of establishing the identity of the flour exported with the wheat imported, it was accepted in the Imperial Parliament without opposition. Now an exporter of flour is allowed a rebate in proportion to the grain he has imported, without being obliged to prove that the flour exported was manufactured out of the very same grain; but it will take a long time to repair the injury done to the milling industry in Germany. Large mills have been established in those countries which were formerly her best consumers of mill products, and have obtained possession of the market; for example, in Denmark, where Russian grain is ground and exported to England and Holland; in Holland itself, etc. As the prosperity of the farmers is largely dependent on the mills, they also begin to think that protection is not proving the boon to Germany which they hoped.

MOZLEY'S REMINISCENCES.—II.

Reminiscences, chiefly of Oriel College and the Oxford Movement. By the Rev. T. Mozley, M.A., formerly Fellow of Oriel, etc. 2 vols. London: Longmans; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

FROM 1836 to 1842 or 1843 (Mr. Mozley is always vague about dates) the Rector of Cholderton was occupied and oppressed by what might be called the chief work of his life. At infinite labor, cost, and anxiety he repaired or rebuilt Cholderton Church. He fell, he tells us, into his task almost involuntarily, and assuredly in total ignorance of the extent of the work in which he was engaged. "My visitors chaffed me on my church," and made invidious comparisons between it and the new rectory. "All the foolish things I had ever said about smug parsons and snug parsonages were now visited upon me. Something must be done, and when I had pupils I could not say I wanted the means. Moreover, the churches all about were in a bad state. I was there to set an example. I can honestly say it was not a spontaneous act." Having once begun his work, the Rector was, he adds, as wild as any other church restorer. He purchased a roof of a highly ornamental character, then lying for sale at Ipswich, but which probably had originally covered "the clerestory of some conventual church destroyed at the Reformation." The covering did not fit the building. "The roof fixed the proportions of the church. It was eighty feet long, and of course I could sacrifice nothing of it. Though we coaxed out of it a few inches more breadth, we could not get more than twenty feet six inches. What did I not sacrifice to this dumb idol?" The church had, in short, to be rebuilt to fit the roof. When the task was accomplished, the builder left his church and betook himself to writing articles for the *Times*.

Of all the details of Mr. Mozley's autobiography, none are more interesting to humane or sympathetic readers than the sort of tragi-comic story of the Rector and his church. It tells us more of the man than any other part of his book. The oddity of the thing, however, is that, as sometimes happens in life, an individual fact becomes a type of something more general than itself. As one reflects on Mr. Mozley's tale of Cholderton Church, the thought irresistibly suggests itself that the whole thing is a clever allegory, setting forth in a figure the history of the early Tractarian movement. It were hard to sum up the history of Newman and his friends better than by the statement that they tried to fit on the Church of England a roof of a highly ornamental character which had originally belonged to the church destroyed at the Reformation. They, too, like Mr. Mozley, felt keenly the contrast between the comfort of smug parsons supported by the state and the condition of the Church of which the parsons were supposed to be servants. With Newman and his friends, as with the restorer of Cholderton Church, the course they took could hardly be called a "spontaneous act." We can see, what neither Newman nor his opponents could be expected to see, that the Tractarian movement itself was a portion of a far wider reaction, and that the actors in it did little more than conscientiously follow out the path marked out for them by their position, their antecedents, and the circumstances of the time. They were undoubtedly as much surprised as their critics when they found "that the roof fixed the proportion of the Church." When their labors seemed all but crowned with success, the ablest of them retreated from the Church which they could not transform into "the Church destroyed by the Reformation." The puzzle for an historical student is to understand the causes both of the great and rapid success of Tractarianism, combined with its total failure to produce that revolution in the Church of England and in the people of England which was doubtless more or less distinctly hoped for by the earlier Tractarians. To solve this enigma fully would be little less than both to record and explain the whole course of English religious opinion during at least half a century. There is not one man in ten thousand who has either the knowledge or the ability for the task, and assuredly the results of his labors could not be set forth in a newspaper article; but an intelligent study of Mr. Mozley's 'Reminiscences' enables a student to perceive what were some of the more obvious and external conditions which account for the rapid progress and for the complete failure (looked at as a whole) of a movement which ought, if successful, to have reunited the Church of England with the Church of Rome.

It is no disparagement to Newman to recognize the fact, which he certainly would be the last to deny, that his own talents and moral influence had probably rather less effect on the course of the Oxford movement than would be attributed to them either by fervent admirers or by strenuous opponents. It is hardly conceivable that if Newman had died young, or had, as it seems might have been the case, devoted his life to the politics of Hanover, the Anglican reaction would not have run its course. Mr. Mozley is perfectly right in asserting that "people who talk about the Oxford movement seldom say anything about the universal movement which immediately preceded it. In the year 1831 the whole fabric of English, and indeed of European, society was trembling to the foundations. Every party, every interest, political or religious, in this country was pushing its claims to universal acceptance, with the single exception of the Church of England, which was folding its robes to die with what dignity it could." Was it to be expected that the greatest, the most ancient, the most powerful association in the country should die without a struggle? To fancy that the Church would simply fold its robes to die, was to ignore both the teaching of history and the real condition not only of England, but of the European world. The eighteenth century, it has been well said, lasted in spirit till 1832; in other words, the reaction against the theories, political, moral, and religious, of which the eighteenth century is the representative had at that date excited a reaction of sentiment which became apparent to the whole world. John Mill was brought up outside the limits of the Christian world, but the autobiography of John Mill sufficiently proves to any candid observer the existence in 1832 of just that state of opinion which generates ecclesiastical movements such as the Tractarianism of England or the Ultramontanism of France. A Church, it may be added, like the Anglican communion, based on endless compromises between Catholicism and Protestantism—compromises which are the result neither of logic nor of religious conviction, but of historical and political considerations—is specially liable to become the field for the unexpected production of religious developments. An impressive preacher or thinker pushes to their logical conclusion one side of the Church's multifarious and not over-consistent doctrines. He means simply to give effect to the Church's true teaching. He, and still more his disciples, become without meaning it ecclesiastical revolutionists. Whitgift and Laud, Wesley, Simeon, Newman, and Arnold each and all believed themselves to be expounders of the true doctrines of the Church of England. They each, as far as their influence extended, disturbed the practical compromise which, if not exactly the

Church's true doctrine, is its true reason for existence.

If there were to be a High-Church revival, any one who knows England may confidently assert that Oxford was in 1832 its appropriate home. The truth is, that the English universities, and especially Oxford, are, whatever their defects or merits, created, so to speak, to be the centre of movements. There are at the universities collected teachers and thinkers who, despite the popular prejudice against dons or professors, are constantly men of great talent, of impressive character, and of that kind of disinterestedness which even more than cleverness or energy enlists the enthusiasm of youth. To any one who has realized how large is the amount of intellect, of learning, and even of originality which lies hid in the English universities, the true difficulty is to account, not for the extent of the influence exerted by Oxford or Cambridge, but for that influence not having become as marked, at least, as the weight exercised in modern Germany by the political and theological teaching of professors. For not only have there certainly never for the last fifty years, and probably for a much longer period, been lacking at Oxford teachers preëminently fitted to impress their hearers, but the college system, with its curious combination of freedom with discipline, of intimate association with individual independence, brings young men together in just such a manner as to render them specially sensitive to the authority of teachers who are, for the most part, still young enough not to be separated by great difference of age from the sympathies of their pupils. A sincere and enthusiastic believer in Mormonism, could such a person become the leading tutor, say, of New College, of Oriel, or of Balliol, would, one may feel well assured, soon organize a Mormon movement, and alarm respectable society by inducing hundreds of young men to set sail for Utah.

But if the institutions and traditions of Oxford favor the growth, up to a certain point, of almost any form of religious faith or scepticism, we must remember that fifty years ago Oxford was far better than at present suited to be the centre of a movement of which the inevitable result was to increase the influence of the clergy, and to bring into prominence clerical views of life, of policy, and of religion. The undergraduates were for the most part sons of clergymen; they were themselves, in many cases, destined to take orders. It is impossible to read Newman's 'Loss and Gain,' or, for that matter, Froude's 'Nemesis of Faith,' without seeing in each book the picture of a world where the questions which interest the clergy have a prominence, and even predominance, which they certainly do not possess in the larger sphere of the general life of England. Mr. Mozley even now looks back on the Oxford movement as a sort of golden age. Can any one wonder if every young clergyman throughout England felt a thrill of new life when called upon as a matter of duty to take part in a great cause, the success of which, by elevating his order, lent new dignity to his own existence? Early Evangelicalism had no such attraction for the clergy. The converted layman stood in the same position as the converted priest—or, rather, the priest was not a priest at all, but, on the Evangelical view, a preacher of the truth, and, as such, on the same footing as a dissenting minister who preached the same doctrine. The liberal or sceptical teaching of the Broad Church may, to a certain extent, lighten the burden of clerical subscription. It may teach clergymen that they have a moral and religious advantage in belonging to a State Church, but it does not tend to raise the dignity or the influence of the clerical order. High Church doctrine, on the other hand, whatever its worth, both increases the dignity of the clergy and, in the mouth at any rate of teachers like Newman and Pusey, invites clergymen to play a prominent part in the moral, the religious, and even the political life of England. "Has not the Church," said Sterling, "in every parish its black dragoon?" There is no need to adopt the description suggested by the intemperate eloquence of the youthful orator, who was haranguing a debating society of youths; but persons who know that the "black dragoon" is generally an excellent gentleman engaged in the earnest discharge of hard and ill-paid duties, may nevertheless admit that Sterling laid his finger on a most important fact. In every parish there is a man who must, from the nature of things, be apt to adopt High Church doctrine. We may fairly say that in half the parishes of England the Tractarians found ready-made missionaries. The instruments for affecting public opinion lay ready to the hands of the Puseyite leaders. They used these instruments (and no blame to them for it) with the energy of men filled with confidence in themselves and in their cause. No one can wonder that the movement spread during its earlier years with astounding rapidity.

What, then, were the reasons which prevented Tractarianism from effecting something like a complete revolution in English opinion? The answers which Mr. Mozley's book suggests are none the less worth consideration because they lie, so to speak, on the surface of the whole matter. Newman and his friends owed their influence in great measure to the fact that they were to the very core a body of university teachers. They were clergymen and college tutors, and they had to a preëminent degree the defects no less than the virtues of priests and professors. Oxford was their world. There is something pathetic in the way in which Mr. Mozley, after his varied experience of life, still appears in feeling to look upon Oxford with something like the veneration with which an enthusiastic Catholic might regard Rome. Much the same is true of Cardinal Newman. Rome commands his reverence and allegiance, but it is impossible to read his 'Apologia' without seeing that toward the end no less than at the beginning of his career his heart remained at Oxford. This concentration of interest on the life of the University, if it increased the immediate authority, was fatal to the ultimate influence of early Tractarians. Mr. Mozley reveals the feeling (and we must add the gross ignorance) of himself no less than of his associates with regard to the world without. His language about Simeon, about Wilberforce, and about the Evangelicals generally, proves plainly that the rank and file of the High-Church army knew next to nothing of the spirit, or even of the lives, of the theological party to whom they were most directly opposed. The notices even of Arnold, who must have been well known to Mozley's Oriel friends, are almost ludicrous, from the absurdly false picture they give of an eminent religious teacher. It is absolutely impossible to suppose that Newman shared the ignorance of his disciple. Still, it is odd to find that if Mr. Mozley's statements be correct, Newman must have thought Thomas Paine to be a fair representative of modern infidelity. In any case, we may fairly assume that even the best informed of the Tractarian leaders—who, by the way, seem to have undertaken to edit the Fathers before reading them—knew for practical purposes little of any part of English life which lay outside the religious interests or controversies of Oxford. They had the power to influence the clergy; they had but very little means of influencing the laity. Of the Dissenters; of the world of science; of the circles influenced by Mill and Bentham; of the men who, like Arnold and Maurice, were intensely interested in questions of the day; of Carlyle, and of men like Carlyle; of the whole world which lay outside the influence of the Church of England; of the movements going on in the Roman Catholic Church; of Roman Catholicism itself as it actually existed, the Puseyites of 1836 seem to have known nothing. That Hurrell Froude should describe the Roman Catholic Church of Ireland as the "Irish schism," is a curious specimen of the contorted and artificial view which the early Anglicans took of the world about them. As you read Mr. Mozley, you feel as if he and his friends had attempted to revolutionize England without ever opening their eyes to the facts of English life. Newman's 'Apologia' itself gives sufficient proof of the fact, which the 'Reminiscences' confirm, that the leaders of the Oxford movement had nearly reached Rome before they clearly saw what was the end to which their path was leading.

This blindness to the facts of English life accounts to a great degree for the curious way in which Mr. Mozley and his friends seem to have underrated, as he apparently still underrates, the strength of English Protestantism. The real gist of the strange series of arguments (if so they may be called) by which he vindicates his qualified belief in the distinctive dogmas of Romanism, is that Anglicanism of a very High-Church type is the creed of English churchmen, and that this creed does not differ essentially from that of Rome. If, as is probable, the men of whom he was the follower and the ally shared the feelings of their disciple, we can understand the failure of the Tractarians to affect the large mass even of churchmen. They did not realize the patent fact that the vast majority of English laymen are essentially Protestants. Mr. Mozley's arguments betray a further and a much deeper source of weakness, which was of itself almost fatal to the success of the Oxford movement. Every one of his reasons for accepting the doctrine of Rome is in reality an application of the well-worn, and to most men by no means convincing, formula, that "you must believe everything or nothing." This mode of reasoning is clearly derived by Mr. Mozley from his teachers. As assailants of prevalent Protestantism, Newman, Ward, and a host of their followers had to adopt the attitude of sceptics. Doubt was to be made the means of producing faith. In particular instances the process gave the desired result; but two consequences also often followed which were certainly not contemplated by preachers who undoubtedly did not intend to propagate scepticism. Some disciples accepted the wrong horn of the proposed dilemma, and preferred general doubt to belief in what appeared to them specific falsehoods. In others there was produced a condition of what may be termed stunted scepticism. Men who saw the difficulties of belief, and who dreaded negation, took up an attitude of semi-belief in doctrines which they could not pronounce to be false without, as they thought, denying the truth of other beliefs which they wished to hold true. Now, such stunted scepticism is, on the whole, favorable to practical conservatism, but is certainly not likely to induce most men to make a complete change in their beliefs, in their mode of life, and in their whole position. Mr. Mozley says, honestly enough, that had he been born a Roman Catholic he would have remained a Roman Catholic throughout life. The influence, in other words, of his teachers tended on the whole to make him remain true to any creed which he had once received by birth or education; but that very teaching indisposed him to leave the community in which he was born. Here, as elsewhere, Mr.

Mozley's self-revelation reveals the thoughts of other hearts. The Oxford movement was arrested because it was based on theories involving something like self-contradiction. Scepticism was used as a means of creating belief, and an appeal to intellectual and moral conservatism was made the foundation of a movement which logically terminated, as in the case of Newman, with a tremendous change. For the most part, conservative instinct was stronger than logic; and Anglicans, like Mr. Mozley, in search of rest rightly enough found such rest as they could in adherence to Anglicanism.

SCHIPPER'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH METRES.

Englische Metrik in historischer und systematischer Entwickelung dargestellt. Von Dr. J. Schipper. Erster Theil: Altenglische Metrik. Bonn: Strauss. Pp. xxvii.–565.

THE want of a systematic treatise upon the origin and growth of English versification has been felt so long that even an inferior work would be sure of a welcome. All the more gladly, then, do we greet the present work, which is in every sense a masterpiece and worthy of a place by the side of Ten Brink's history of our early literature (see *Nation*, No. 667). For twenty years and upward a vain dictum has been in vogue among English and American scholars, to the effect that the Germans, while they might be good enough at special investigations, had little power of generalization, little breadth of view. We ask our readers to note the fine irony of fact. The only two works that have investigated our literature (first its substance, and now its form) as a phenomenon of continuous growth from the obscure early Middle Ages down to the dawn of modern times, tracing its organic relations with the literatures of other peoples, are precisely the works of these two Germans. Not one English scholar has made so much as an attempt.

The present volume covers the ground down to the Elizabethan period, more precisely, to the Renaissance. Dunbar, Gawin Douglas, and Sir David Lyndsay are the latest poets discussed. As the tyro knows full well, this archaic period is not only difficult, but in great part downright discouraging. The maze of irregular, uncouth verse-forms can be likened only to an Indian jungle. We need not be at a loss for the cause. Our poetry began by being the naïve expression of an untutored folk, and its rhythm (alliterative verse) was familiar to all. But through the spread of ecclesiastical training and habits, even before the Norman Conquest, and in consequence of the wholesale borrowing and imitation of foreign themes and metres, to which the Conquest gave a wonderful dynamic impulse, the English folk came gradually to unlearn their native rhythm, and to acquire, by slow and painful steps, the art of composing in Latin-Romance metres. Prof. Schipper is the first, even in Germany, to throw light upon this obscure process as a whole and in all its details.

The first forty pages treat of the general principles underlying all versification, such as arsis, thesis, ictus, quantity and accent, tone, rhyme. This introductory matter might be abridged considerably without loss. Besides, we cannot assent to the author's opinion (§ 25) that rhyme may have been, in Germanic languages, a spontaneous outgrowth. We hold, once for all, that the practice of rhyming is of Latin-Romance invention, and that its use in German and English is a mere borrowing. The real beginning of the work is section 2, pages 39–77, upon Anglo-Saxon alliterative verse. It will be found satisfactory in perhaps every respect but one: section 29, on the "quality" of alliteration—*i. e.*, which sounds properly alliterate and which do not—is altogether too vague and meagre, especially when contrasted with the succeeding paragraph, on the relations of the alliterative sounds to the grammatical character and syntactic position of the several classes of words. We call attention here to the circumstance that Schipper is a firm adherent to the "new" theory, according to which the full line, *Langzeile*, has only four beats (*Hebungen*), two in each hemistich. He has not even deemed it worth while to combat the old eight-beat theory of Lachmann; but the foot-notes cite all the recent literature on the subject. Apparently, the eight-beat theory is doomed.

Section 3 (pp. 78–293) treats of the introduction of foreign metres, such as the Latin *septenarius*, the octosyllabic rhyming couplet, the French *Alexandrine*; also the expansion and modification of the native alliterative verse, its revival, so called, in the fourteenth century, and its gradual extinction. This section is the *crux* of the book, and is bound to provoke much hostile criticism. Already one sharp review, by Einenkel, has appeared in the *Anglia* (Anzeiger, V., 30–53). We have no space for entering into the controversy, and can only indicate the cardinal point. Schipper does not accept for Old English the theory (commonly accepted for *Mittelhochdeutsch*) that an inflection-vowel after a long stem-syllable must be read with a subsidiary accent (*Nebenton*), so as to count for a full verse-measure—thus *lórè*—but asserts that such vowels are usually unaccented (*tonlos*). The point, apparently a trifle, is really wide-reaching in its consequences. If we side with Schipper, we shall regard Layamon's "Brut"—to give merely one striking example—as composed in the old alliterative rhythm, four beats to the full line. But if we side with Einenkel, we shall have to reject its alliterative flow altogether, and read it by four-beat couplets, thus getting eight beats to the full line. Our decision will turn upon the scansion of the "Ormulum." Schipper has subjected this poem to a most searching examination, and has shown that to apply to it such a method of accentuation as *lórè* would utterly ruin its verse-flow. To which Einenkel replies by rejecting the "Ormulum" as a standard. He goes even so far as to assert (*ibid.*, p. 38) that its author "violates the rules of accent of his speech at every turn (*Augenblick*)," and again, p. 47, calls its metre a *Zwitter* between four-beat rhythm and French syllable-counting. When rubbish like this is proffered for argument, we can only hold our breath in amazement. A critic must indeed be at his wits' end when he accuses Orm of violating the rules of English accent; for if there be any one poem between the times of "Beowulf" and the times of Chaucer and Gower that is easy to scan, it is assuredly the "Ormulum." To an English ear and tongue the poem does not offer any difficulty worth noting. In truth, Orm was, for his day, a metrical and linguistic genius in comparison with whom Layamon and all the others were the veriest blunderers. Hence Schipper has done wisely in selecting the "Ormulum" as a standard of utterance. And the choice confirms us in a surmise based upon many other minor indications—to wit, that Schipper is possessed of a thoroughly English ear. He does not, like Einenkel, Trautmann, Jessens, construct impossible scansion on paper, but tests his reading by the actual sound. Thus he is the only German scholar (to our knowledge) that has a clear and sure perception of our Anglo-American fondness for what he calls *Taktumstellung*, what we are in the habit of calling "choriambic" movement—*e. g.*, in the well-known line from Orm:

'After the flĕshes kínde,

rather than

Aftér the flĕshes kínde.

Section 4 (p. 294 to the end) treats of the "strophic" structure of our verse, as borrowed or imitated from Latin, Provençal, and French; of the Burthen, Refrain, Wheel, Bob-Wheel, etc.; and of the iambic pentameter of Chaucer, Gower, Lyndesay. It is by far the most interesting section, and also the most important to students of our modern verse. We can scarcely say that it is less difficult than the preceding section, but it is certainly less dry. Its difficulty lies in the application of well-known principles to an endless variety of forms. The student ought to find here much pleasant reading. Chaucer's iambic pentameter alone gets fifty pages, yet no one, surely, will find in them a page too many, or a word of praise that he could wish abated.

Schipper's style has not the clearness nor the grace of Ten Brink's. In many places his syntax is involved and confusing. But, by way of compensation, he has given us two things that Ten Brink withheld: first, he has appended an exhaustive alphabetical index of authors, poems, and subjects; then, he has cited in his foot-notes the title in full of every book referred to. One has only to copy off these titles to get a complete bibliography of the whole subject. We have not detected a single omission of importance. We earnestly hope our author will complete his noble work as he has begun it, and that right speedily.

History of Woman Suffrage. Edited by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Matilda Joslyn Gage. Vol. II. 1861–76. Fowler & Wells. 1882. 8vo, pp. 952.

THE scrap-book of which we have here a second instalment is not yet exhausted, and the editors are able to announce a third volume, doubtless of companionable size, and possibly, let but a single State meantime concede the ballot to women, of greater interest. As we write, an active canvass is being carried on in Nebraska by both wings of the woman suffragists, to insure the acceptance of a proffered constitutional amendment to that end; and it cannot be denied that the public mind has become much more accustomed, if not reconciled, to the idea than it was in 1867, when a similar effort was made and failed in Kansas. Only a day or two ago, also, the Supreme Court of Connecticut refused to exclude women from the bar, whereas in 1869 Mrs. Myra Bradwell was denied admission to the Illinois bar, on grounds which might, we imagine, have been equally well adopted by the Connecticut court.

The war caused an utter suspension of the woman's-rights agitation, but, if the movement stood still, it did not lose ground. The part played by women in the Sanitary Commission and in the hospital service brought into relief the heroic and patriotic qualities of the sex. On the other hand, the spirit of ridicule and violence was completely allayed. The volume before us does not, we believe, record a single instance of popular disturbance of a woman's-rights meeting. This is attributable not so much to a growth of respect in the community as to the overthrow of slavery, the arch-enemy of free discussion and the chief fomenter of intolerance and mobs. Moreover, in 1864, one woman at least, Anna Dickinson, had taken the stump at the invitation of the Republican managers, with acknowledged effectiveness, and thus emphasized the paradox that while women were fit to help carry elections by giving advice to voters, they were not fit to vote. In 1868 the National Democratic Convention in this city gravely received, listened to, and referred a letter from

Miss Anthony, a *soi-disant* delegate, asking permission to be heard in favor of a woman's-suffrage plank in its platform. In 1872 the National Republican Convention at Philadelphia conciliated the support of this easily-satisfied lady and her friends by a "splinter," rather than a plank, declaring that woman's "demands for additional rights should be treated with respectful consideration." Hollow and insincere as this profession was, it astonishingly marked the progress of public sentiment since the ante-bellum days, when women met only in "hen conventions," amid the jeers of the obscene and the assurances of the good and wise that they were unsexing themselves by their "demands for additional rights."

Strange to say, the greatest impediment to the cause came from the women advocates themselves. In 1869 they divided into two semi-hostile organizations, which have been perpetuated to this day. The causes of this split are neither clearly nor ingenuously set forth in this 'History,' which has been compiled by the faction known as the National Woman Suffrage Association. Its early connection and coöperation with a notorious charlatan of the male sex and an equally notorious blackmailing adventuress are but faintly suggested; and the real character of its policy, begun in 1867, of offering its support to any party ready to cajole it with empty phrases, may easily escape the ordinary reader. Efforts to defeat negro suffrage unless woman suffrage were also accorded (as in Kansas), failed because the American people knew what was the main issue of the reconstruction period. Efforts to wring the ballot from the Federal Constitution by a forced and absurd construction of the Fourteenth Amendment, failed for obvious reasons. The more legitimate attempt in 1867 to induce the New York Constitutional Convention to eradicate the word male from the new charter failed because public opinion was by no means ready for such an innovation—was not even prepared to allow women to vote for delegates to that Convention, as Senator Folger proposed at the time in their behalf. And so, while many advances toward equality and some toward a partial suffrage have been made in the period surveyed in this book, no State has yet set the example of abolishing the distinction of sex at the polls, in the jury-box, in the Legislature.

It is well known that the loose constructionists who held that the Fourteenth Amendment applied to women, manifested their sincerity by sundry endeavors to vote, some with success, like Miss Anthony; and that this led to an indictment of the latter, her conviction, and sentence to pay a fine, as well as to the conviction and imprisonment, till pardoned by the President, of the inspectors of election who permitted her to register. The humor of the present volume must be sought in this episode, or nowhere else:

"During the intermediate period between November 28, 1872 [the date of her being bound over], and January 21, 1873 [the date of the Albany term of the United States District Court], Miss Anthony, in the eye of the law, was imprisoned; but the Marshal, though somewhat uneasy, left her free to fulfil her Lyceum engagements and attend woman-suffrage conventions. A singularly anomalous position for a criminal, travelling about the country as a teacher of morals to the people! Learning that in case the jury returned a verdict of guilty, the judge must declare the costs of the trial against the defendants, she determined to canvass Monroe County, in order to make a verdict of 'guilty' impossible. She held meetings in twenty-nine of the post-office districts, speaking on the equal rights of all citizens to the ballot. Hearing that District-Attorney Crowley threatened to move her trial out of that county, she sent him word that she would then canvass the next with an army of speakers.

"The Court sat in Rochester [Monroe County, where the offence was committed], May 13th, but several days passed without calling the case. Finally, it was moved by District-Attorney Crowley merely to ask its adjournment to the June United States Circuit Court at Canandaigua. Counsel protested, but without avail, and both the women [thirteen had registered along with Miss A.] and the inspectors were again required to answer the charge and renew bail. This motion for change of venue was made on Friday, and the following Monday night Miss Anthony held her first meeting in Ontario County. In the twenty-two days before the convening of the Court she made twenty-one speeches. Matilda Joslyn Gage came to her aid, and spoke in sixteen townships, thus together making a thorough canvass of that county. . .

"The last meeting of the series was held at Canandaigua on the evening before the trial. Strong resolutions against these acts of injustice toward woman were introduced by Mrs. Gage and unanimously endorsed by the audience. Thus the case went to trial with ample opportunity for the District Attorney and the Judge to know the opinions of the people, and for the men of Ontario to be too generally enlightened on the subject to find any twelve men who could be trusted to bring in a verdict of guilty against the women for voting, or the inspectors for receiving their votes." (Pp. 629–30.)

The Judge, however, directed the jury to find a verdict of guilty.

The Philosophical System of Antonio Rosmini-Serbati. Translated, with a Sketch of the Author's Life, Bibliography, Introduction, and Notes, by Thomas Davidson. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

THE "Latin" races, especially the French and the Italians, are beginning to play an active part in that revival of philosophical activity which distinguishes the recent years of our generation. The reading of Italian is becoming more and more a necessity to every one who wishes his heart to beat in unison with the "best thought" of his time. Mr. Davidson, yielding to this irresistible attraction, has discovered, so to speak, and revealed to our dull English-reading minds the existence of an Italian writer whom he holds to be not only a philosopher but a saint of the first magnitude, and who died as recently as 1855. A perusal of Mr. Davidson's well-written life of Rosmini proves him to have been indeed a man cast in the heroic mould. Of gentle blood, a priest, almost a Cardinal, the founder of a great religious order, dying at the age of fifty-eight, much of his life in poor health, he nevertheless found time to excogitate and write out ninety-nine separate books on an immense variety of subjects, a very large number of which are octavos in more than one volume, treating in the most systematic way of the most arduous subjects — metaphysics, logic, ethics, psychology, and the like. When it is added that in these works the treatment is not only systematic, but invariably original, and that Rosmini's range of reading, embracing as it impartially did the whole range of ancient, modern, and mediæval authors, has probably never been surpassed even by any German professor, it is obvious that whether Rosmini's ideas be true or not, the *type* of his mind gives him no low rank in the not very numerous brotherhood of intellectual giants.

The present work is a sort of compendium of his whole system, written in short separate sections, and elucidated by editorial comments and copious translations of passages from Rosmini's larger and more special works. We may as well say now that the translator's part has been admirably performed. Nothing that learning and care could do has been left undone by Mr. Davidson, who, though far from disposed to swear to *all* the words of his master, has given here most substantial aid to his meaning.

And now as for the meaning. We fear that this volume alone is inadequate to its complete expression. We have read it twice and find that the formulas it applies to the universe, and the answers it gives to ancient problems, evoke a series of new questions as formidable as any it professes to solve. Whether this be because the book pretends to be but an abridgment and a compendium, leaving much out, or whether the minds of both author and editor have failed to take everything into consideration, may here be left an undecided question. We shall not make this newspaper article unreadable by propounding our difficulties, but pass on to shadow forth to our readers, in such feeble words as we possess, what seems the most central and original part of Rosmini's thought.

Some one has said that the art of philosophizing is to see the strange as if it were familiar and the familiar as if it were strange. Now, of all things familiar to the mind, surely mere *being* is certainly the most so. "Is," and "was," and "will be" constitute the very warp of its structure. But Rosmini has been able to take this bare contentless notion of Being, which, transparent, imponderable, impalpable as the imagined ether of the physicist, yet ubiquitous as it, fills continuously all the crevices and crannies of the world; and he has been able so to detach himself from the prepossessions of ingrained habit as to regard it as if it might not have been—to project it from his intelligence as a positive object existing separately by itself; to make it come and go, and act, and illuminate the mind, and change its mode, and mediate between this and that, as if it were a living thing. A casual reader taking up his book for the first time and coming upon all this talk about Being, receives in its intensest form that strange impression that metaphysical books so often give, of a sort of mental vacuum, with no fixed support, and of his own equal readiness to agree with or to dissent from any given proposition, since he never can tell exactly in what "sense" it is meant, or with just what concrete matters it has to do. If power to deal definitely with abstractions be the mark of the true philosopher, certainly Rosmini bears off the palm by his treatment of Being. We, too, end by catching a little of his spirit, and find out what help the notion of bare Being can be made to yield.

From the time of Plato and the Sophists, there has reigned an inveterate philosophic quarrel between two types of mind which may be called sensationalistic and rationalistic, respectively. If we name Mr. Herbert Spencer and the Concord School of Philosophy, it will easily be seen why we call the quarrel inveterate. The reasons why there should be such a quarrel lie deep in the constitution of our mental life. This may, on the one hand, be regarded as a mere part of Nature—a train of feelings and particular conscious events, occupying definite tracts in an outwardly existing time. Or, on the other hand, it may be regarded in a totally different way, as something which stands outside of Time and Nature and *cognizes* them. *What* is cognized may be a past feeling, or a relation of similitude or contrast between a past and a present one, or it may be a reality supposed material or disconnected with the mind altogether, or another spirit like the mind itself. But, whatever it be, it is always something different from the immediate feeling through which its cognition takes place. The latter, in knowing it, transcends its own, so to speak, physical existence. The consequence is that we are entitled to consider the mind in two entirely different manners—physically or transcendentally: we may inquire into its letter, or into its spirit; into its constitution, and the laws that seem to govern the order of its events, or into the purport and meaning of the latter, the objective truth that

each of them reveals. The characteristically English sensationalist school of Locke, Hume, and the Mills has considered the mind in the former way exclusively, and either ignored the mysterious self-transcendent function of cognition altogether, or else tried to deduce it as a sort of collateral consequence from the laws of grouping of the separate special feelings. The transcendentalists, or rationalists, object that this procedure, so far from explaining the function of cognition, proves it impossible, and leads straight to the bottomless abyss of an absolute scepticism and "subjectivism." There is at this day among us and in Great Britain a fervid rationalistic school, professing to inherit the combined mantles of Kant and Hegel; and the Alpha and Omega of its teaching is that the sensistic mode of studying psychology has hitherto massacred the mind in its most essential function and faculty, the power of real objective knowledge, and that this faculty can only be restored to it by dropping sensations and their groupings out of our notice altogether, and treating the whole matter as the case of a *self-conscious ego*, endowed with the mysterious power of Pure Reason. Any one who wishes to see how this modern ego-worship may solve all the philosophical difficulties of a deeply-serious spirit, should read the posthumous essay by Professor Green, of Oxford, which has lately appeared in *Mind*.

Now, for Rosmini, the mere presence of an ego to a series of feelings is as little capable of giving us real objective knowledge as are the feelings themselves. His complaint (ably argued enough) against Kant and Hegel is that their systems lead to a subjectivism quite as bottomless as any they attribute to the school of Hume. The *intuition of Being* is for him the only thing that can confer objective knowledge. With all other categories of Thought abolished, and with the intuition of Being left as the sole function of our Reason in contrast with our sensations; with the facts of sensation in their widest sense, including among them (whisper it not at Concord) the Ego itself, Rosmini builds up his universe, and claims to have satisfied all demands and to have been unjust to neither of the two opposite ways of viewing the mind. Certainly, no philosopher appears to have done more justice to the feelings merely as such. The most rabid Humian is hardly more radical than he. Only he holds with the anti-Humians that each fact of feeling is in itself "blind," having a merely physical or non-cognitive existence, and needing the light of the intellect to appear to consciousness *as* the fact it is. This "light of the intellect," or "ideal Being," is purely *Object*. "By *Object* we understand a term seen in such a way that the seer sees neither himself nor any relation to himself, and that himself remains excluded and forgotten while the term stands by itself and appears as existing in an absolute mode. . . . The essence of Being becomes the form of our spirits simply and solely by making us know, by revealing to us its own natural cognizability. Hence there is no reaction on the part of our spirits. These are simply receptive, and the light, the knowledge they receive, is what renders them intelligent" (pp. 193–195).

No one can fail to perceive how entirely different this absolute object is from the absolute subject of Hegelism. By successively combining our feelings with our intuition of pure being, by weaving the subjective facts upon this vast objective background, we build up, according to Rosmini, a world of experience veraciously cognized for what it *is*. To us it seems as if both Rosmini and the transcendental egoists were making the same mistake, trying to give preëminence each to a different one of two terms equally correlated in cognition, and so to alleviate that metaphysical disease, the unbridled lust after unity. We believe, however, that Rosmini clings a great deal the closer to the actual facts of psychology. But for this and all further matters we must now refer the reader fond of what Miss Edgeworth calls "the not inelegant labyrinths of metaphysics" to the book itself. Such a reader will not find that Rosmini makes all things clear; but if repelled by much that is obscure and scholastic in his pages, he will certainly gain that refreshment that always comes of contact with a master-mind.

Hints and Remedies for the Treatment of Common Accidents and Diseases, and Rules of Simple Hygiene. The two parts complete. Compiled by Dawson W. Turner, D.C.L., late Head Master of the Royal Institution School, Liverpool; sometime Student of Westminster Hospital and of Charing Cross Hospital. Revised, corrected, and enlarged by twelve eminent medical men belonging to different hospitals in London, and by one Right Reverend Bishop of the Established Church, formerly Surgeon to one of the London hospitals and F.R.C.S. With numerous additions from the eighth English edition. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

THE title of this little volume is given in full partly because it is in itself a literary curiosity, and partly in order that the reader may appreciate the reluctance with which anything like adverse criticism is offered; in England, indeed, the requisite hardihood could hardly be found, excepting among those who never need the services of "eminent medical men" and who entertain some misgivings respecting the authority of the "Established Church." Not that all commentary need be adverse. On the contrary, in this, as in all other books of the kind, there is much to be cordially approved as likely to aid the ignorant or thoughtless to avoid disease and to give relief in cases of illness or accident. Especial stress is laid upon the importance of cleanliness and ventilation, the care of the eyes and teeth, etc. Perhaps the pages devoted to "How to Build a Fire" and "How to Make Tea and Coffee" might have been advantageously devoted to other matters; but probably no two persons would agree as to the exact limits of such a work.

The positively objectionable features are: the malarrangement of the entire work; its inadequacy upon some important points; its non-adaptation to this country, and its style of composition. Contrary to the order indicated in the title, the first nine pages are occupied with twenty-four "Rules of Simple Hygiene"; but the Appendix to this Part is interposed between the Second Part and the Appendix thereto. The Care of the Teeth is treated of, under different headings, on pages 1, 2, 3, 8, 59, and 60; and so definite a matter as Bathing is discussed in Rules i., xi., xxii., and xxiii. The order of the leading topics is ostensibly alphabetical, but exceptions are numerous and inexplicable. Even were the order unbroken, it would not atone for the lack of both Index and Table of Contents, in a work supposed to be consulted in haste upon some occasions. Considering that the appendices are more voluminous than the original work, it is to be hoped that future editions may embody a radical readjustment.

Among important matters inadequately treated may be mentioned Drowning. Here, if anywhere, we should look for full and explicit directions, well spaced off for ready reference, and for some distinction between the parts relating particularly to Drowning and those which apply equally to Suspended Animation from other causes, as, *e. g.*, Chloroform Narcosis, under which a reference is made to Drowning. Yet to this common and urgent emergency is given less than a page, about the same as to "Bad Leg," and not much more than to "Corns." There is a single, involved paragraph beginning, "Strip the patient immediately and wipe him quite dry," which under some circumstances would be inappropriate and, even in case of drowning, should not prevent for an instant the performance of artificial respiration. So, too, the injunction, "Do not give up rubbing for four hours," might well lead a single operator to defer, or at least intermit, the more essential manipulations. Of the three accredited modes of resuscitation, only one (Sylvester's) is given, requiring the coöperation of three or more persons. In the early part of the paragraph the patient is to be laid on his face, and nothing is said as to reversing his posture for the movement of the arms; neither is there an intimation of the difficulty—nay, almost impossibility—of keeping the tongue from falling back upon the glottis. Upon the whole, the unprofessional operator would stand a better chance of success if he rolled his patient upon a barrel in the ancient fashion. Perhaps the author meant to admit the insufficiency of his directions by calling them "general," and by referring the reader to the "Directions of the Humane Society and the National Lifeboat Association."

An American edition of such a work ought surely to mention the vicious habit of frying meat, the dangers of kerosene oil, the abuse of patent medicines, and the precautions in regard to icy sidewalks and railroad accidents. What kind of revision can it be which permits the unchallenged publication of the following: "Bear in mind that the administration of chloroform is preferable to, *and safer than*, that of ether, unless this last be given by a medical man"? (The italics are ours.) The New York *Medical Record*, in a recent editorial (July 29), remarks:

> "The conveniences of administration, rapidity of action, and comparative agreeableness of the drug [chloroform] to the patient, are more than offset by the chances of occasionally killing the patient as suddenly and as unexpectedly as if by lightning. . . . Any dental surgeon who would use the drug with fatal result would be indictable for manslaughter, and a surgeon who would do likewise would not be much better off."

To which may be added the somewhat significant facts that chloroform is commonly employed to kill animals for scientific purposes, and has even been suggested as a substitute for the halter in judicial executions. Nor is the mischievous effect of the present recommendation of chloroform for unprofessional anæsthesia adequately neutralized by the clumsy minuteness of the directions for its administration, covering two pages, and embracing the injunctions: "Don't take your eyes off the patient's lips for a moment. . . . In case of any danger or difficulty, open his mouth wide and pull the tongue quite forward. Lastly, and *most important* [then why not firstly?], if any indication of faintness comes on," etc. One is tempted to speculate whether the warnings in the case of the "more dangerous" ether could do more toward unnerving the operator and depressing his patient.

The literary style of the work is almost beneath criticism. Colloquial and commonplace as a whole, it is interlarded with French, Latin, and even Greek phrases, and embellished with cheap witticisms and scraps of doggerel. In particularly bad taste are paragraphs on pp. 8, 35, 49, and 67. What might perhaps be pardoned in an off-hand talk upon hygiene with boys at a boarding-school is wholly out of place in a published book. The unnamed "twelve medical

men" are variously described as "of great experience," "of great distinction," "of the highest authority," etc. This kind of thing may aid the sale of the book in England, but it will not commend itself to the profession here any more than the intercalation of patent medicines and homœopathic "remedies" among regular formulæ, or the following curious remark: "Either of these [formulæ] will pretty certainly help you to get rid of your cold, and, *if you are simple enough to believe it*, will cure you."

The Land of Dykes and Windmills; or, Life in Holland. With Anecdotes of Noted Persons, and Historical Incidents in connection with England. By Frederic Spencer Bird. London: Sampson Low. 1882. Pp. xii.-320.

MR. BIRD touches lightly upon very many details of the daily life, both present and past, of the Dutch middle and lower classes, interspersing his accounts with anecdotes and historical allusions derived chiefly from old chronicles. The impression which he gives us of the people is uniformly pleasant. The Dutchman, as pictured by him, is courteous, sober, industrious, and eminently cautious. Of this latter characteristic he gives several examples: "Druggists are prohibited from preparing and selling the most simple mixture unless the prescription of a doctor be produced." In case there is an infectious disease in any house, the proprietor is obliged to put upon the street-door "a printed notice announcing the fact to the public." No loaded wagon weighing over four tons can pass through Amsterdam without permission "from the chief engineer of the town, who furnishes an order in which is described the exact route to be taken, such order to be countersigned by the burgomaster." A notice posted at the entrance of the village of Broek directs "that riders must dismount and lead their horses when passing through. It further prohibits tobacco-smoking after sunset (a precaution against fire), and states that even in the daytime pipes must be provided with proper covers." Two hundred years ago the taxes were so numerous that Sir William Temple says that in Amsterdam, "before one could be served with a plate of fish with ordinary sauce, thirty different duties had to be paid." Some of these taxes are to be commended to the notice of the temperance advocates of our own day. "A tax of five cents was levied on each person who entered a tavern before noon. In the afternoon the tax was increased. . . . For the privilege of drinking beer in a brewery after two P.M. there was a small tax to be paid. Persons who assembled in a private house after three P.M. for the purpose of amusing themselves, had each to pay a certain sum." A chapter devoted to a description of the festivities accompanying betrothal and marriage in North Holland is prefaced by an account of marriages by proxy. These, it is said, are

"frequently celebrated . . . when the parties reside at such a distance from each other as to make it difficult or impossible for both to be present in the *Stadhuis* where the ceremony takes place. . . . The preliminaries being settled, the gentleman sends one of his gloves, which is worn on the appointed day by a friend or relation, who acts as his proxy, and who is present with the bride, and represents the absent bridegroom while the marriage contract is being completed. The formalities over, the separated lovers are legally as much man and wife as though they had actually stood side by side in the *Stadhuis* to be married, and should either of the parties die before the happy moment of meeting, the survivor would be entitled to claim the estate and effects of the deceased as fully as if they had lived together for years."

Contrary to the general notion, that the Dutch are quiet and sober even in their pleasures, Mr. Bird tells us that at times their mirth can be very uproarious. At the Kermis, or annual fair, for instance, the streets are thronged till two or three o'clock in the morning with bands of men and women who "dance, or rather jump, through the streets, heedless of obstacles, and singing a monotonous kind of song or chant, to which, by their movements, they endeavor to keep time." The following custom is one which must be productive both of comfort and economy, and might well be adopted in our cities during the summer months:

"Many poor persons, in Dutch towns, get a living by supplying *burning* turf and boiling water for making tea and coffee. At breakfast and tea-time, an iron vessel like a coal-hod is brought into the room, having inside a kettle of water placed upon red-hot turf. . . . As the dealer generally lives in some little street close at hand, the boiling water and fuel can be supplied at a moment's notice, and at a trifling charge."

The last five chapters give an account of the escape of Grotius from the castle of Loevestein, and incidents of the life of Charles II. of England while an exile in Holland.

The Faiths of the World. St. Giles Lectures. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

THE collective significance of this book is hardly less remarkable than that of the 'Scotch Sermons,' the publication of which, two years ago, created such a stir in circles theological and ecclesiastical. This book, like that, emanates from a group of Scotch Presbyterians. The authors are identical in but a single case—fortunately that of Principal Caird, who leads off the series here as there, and here as there with two lectures, those who follow him having but one apiece. The 'Scotch Sermons' were a statement of Christian doctrines in terms so novel and so much at variance with the obvious meaning of the Westminster Confession, that the perturbation caused was less considerable than that caused by the famous 'Essays and Reviews' only because of much disintegration in the course of twenty years. The effects of this have been in nothing more conspicuous than in the exposition and criticism of faiths other than Christian by preachers and scholars of the Christian Church. The change of method and of tone has been immense. Twenty years ago, the average Christian apologist felt it incumbent on himself to state the contrast between Christianity and other great religions in the most glaring manner. "The Sympathy of Religions" was a subject left for Christians close upon the verge of infidelity to expatiate upon. To seek out the worst constructions, to write down the Brahman, the Mohammedan, systematically—this was the order of the day: take, for example, Hardwick's 'Christ and Other Masters.' The 'Ten Great Religions' of Dr. James Freeman Clarke, a liberal Unitarian, represents the extreme of sympathy and fairness a dozen years ago. But it is not too much to say that the average method of the book which is the subject of this notice is an advance upon the work of Dr. Clarke in point of general sympathy and catholic appreciation.

It was certainly a happy judgment that assigned the lectures on Brahmanism and Buddhism to Principal Caird. The Hegelianism which was so conspicuous in his 'Philosophy of Religion,' and there made it so easily possible for him to detect the essence of religion under disguises which are baffling to dogmatic eyes, here also stands him in good stead. Thus, in the lecture upon Buddhism, it enables him honestly to discover in the apparent atheism of the Buddhist's creed an element of implicit theism. One's acquaintance with the method of Hegel need not be great in order to discover it in the following bit of exposition:

"But those who thus identify Buddhism with atheism overlook two all-important considerations: first, that the negation of Buddhism could not exist without a virtual affirmation; and, secondly, that all religion, and the Christian religion most of all, contains a negative element—or that negation is a necessary step in the process by which the human spirit rises into communion with God. As to the former of these points, it needs little reflection to see that that very recognition of the nothingness of the world and of all finite objects of desire, which in Buddhism reaches its climax, is a virtual appeal to a positive standard of reality by which we measure the world and pronounce this verdict. . . . A religion whose cardinal doctrine is the negation of the finite, bears unconscious evidence to the fact that it has already transcended the finite."

Both of Principal Caird's lectures are written in the fresh and streaming style which he is always able to command, whether in a popular sermon or more serious discourse. A monotheistic pantheism is his ideal faith—an ideal which he finds made actual in Christianity—and it is the failure of Brahmanism and Buddhism to embody the monotheistic factor which, in his opinion, is the defect of their excellence. In his treatment of the Vedic period he is less inclined than Barth and Tiele to attribute to the Vedic hymns a recondite and sacerdotal character. He insists upon the purely formal character of their polytheism; that essentially the Upanishads are not more polytheistic than the hymns. Caste, and the relation of Brahmanism and Buddhism to it, are discussed at considerable length and with much penetration. In Buddhism is discovered a return to the fundamental principles of Brahmanism to which the elder religion had proved sadly recreant. But with the return there was also an advance.

The lecture on Confucianism is by Dr. Matheson, minister of the parish of Innellan. It is written with much force and clearness. The conclusion arrived at is, that

"the doctrine of Confucius owes its success to the fact that it has made a real contribution to the science of natural religion. It gave to the faiths of the East an element that was distinctive and new. . . . It held up the vision of an infinite in the finite—the establishment of a kingdom of heaven upon earth, the existence of a perfected society, the organization of a divine order out of the elements of time. It pointed to the prospect of a paradise below—to the advent of a pure civil government—to the possibility of a reign whose law would be universal blessing; and in the suggestion of that hope it supplied the one feature which was lacking to give the religions of the East a power over the present life."

The defect of Confucianism is declared to be its self-conscious individualism. But when in the course of the discussion we are told that "Christianity has revealed to the world the principle of self-forgetfulness, and that the only road to individual greatness is the banishment of the individual from his own thoughts," many will be inclined to ask if the salvation of the individual soul has not been made eminently prominent in Christian teaching, and if the tendency of this has not been to concentrate the individual's regards upon himself in a manner sometimes painfully engrossing.

The lecture on Parseeism, by the Rev. John Milne, suffers in comparison with Prof. Whitney's treatment of the same subject in his 'Oriental and Linguistic Studies.' A fuller treatment of the relations of Parseeism to Judaism would have been acceptable here. It is certainly remarkable to find a Scotch Presbyterian contending that Jewish monotheism was perfected by Mazdean influences, and that the doctrine of immortality came into Judaism from the same quarter. Rev. James Dodds, the writer on Egyptian religion, is so much impressed by it that he suggests that only by some primitive revelation could so much of truth akin to that

of the New Testament have got into men's minds. He is, however, less inclined than Renouf to admit that monotheism was ever anything more than the esoteric teaching of an extremely limited circle. The lecture on Mohammedanism gets something additional of warmth and color from its being to some extent a record of the author's personal impressions. There is more in this lecture of the old-fashioned kind of contrast between revealed and natural religion than in some of the other lectures. In that upon Roman Religion there is no adequate suggestion, indeed, none at all, of the religious revival inside of paganism that synchronized with the first Christian centuries, and made the conversion of the Empire a less miraculous occurrence than it might otherwise have seemed. The lectures on Greek and Scandinavian religion are only tolerably good. The introduction of a lecture on the religion of Central America is a novelty in such a course as this. It is exceedingly meagre and conjectural, and could have been omitted without serious harm.

The final lecture, on "Christianity in Relation to Other Religions," would have been more catholic if this also had been assigned to Principal Caird. It should certainly have had the ablest treatment possible, but this has not been granted. The thesis it maintains is that "Christianity is the only religion from which, and in relation to which, all other religions can be viewed in an impartial and truthful manner. . . . Christianity alone occupies the lofty and central vantage-ground from which every phase and phenomenon of religion can be appreciated with all the exactness of human science and all the fulness of human sympathy." "This is a remarkable fact," the writer continues. It is indeed; and, moreover, if it is a fact, it is one which has been less apparent in some earlier stages of Christian development than in that which is represented by this interesting and important book.

Under the Sun. By Phil. Robinson. With a Preface by Edwin Arnold. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1882.

MR. ROBINSON'S name is comparatively new to American readers, and yet there is something rather American in his writing. The volume belongs to a field in which American humorists —or perhaps we should say wags—have done a good deal of work: the treatment of serious subjects in a consciously humorous way. If we can imagine Mr. Warner an Englishman, and an Anglo-Indian at that, he might have written parts of 'Under the Sun' much as they stand. The "Hunting of the Soko" is a story of African adventure in which we feel ourselves surrounded by a haze of humor and fancy that makes the improbabilities of the facts seem a matter of indifference. In the story of "The Man-Eating Tree," on the other hand, we are in a domain of pure extravagance, which, were the scene not laid in Africa, we should actively resent. A great part of the book is occupied with descriptions of Indian life and natural history; and here we have Mr. Arnold's word for it that the work is well done. To our mind, the description is better than the humor; for there is too much consciousness and too little originality about Mr. Robinson as a humorist to make the jokes with which he seasons his descriptive writing thoroughly funny. Indeed, we may say, at the risk of an apparent paradox, that Mr. Robinson would be more humorous were he less jocular. He is at his best in narration, and we are not surprised to learn from his title page that he has been a newspaper correspondent. Extracts would hardly give an idea of the book, and any candid critic who looks over the formidable collection of extracts from English newspapers and reviews published at the end of it, must feel that the reader had better find out for himself what 'Under the Sun' is. One critic declares the author to be "a kind of cross between White of Selborne and the American writer Thoreau"; to another he suggests Dr. Holmes; others find him like Charles Lamb; and, again, we learn that "Mr. Robinson belongs to that school of pure literary essayists whose types are to be found in Lamb and Christopher North and Oliver Wendell Holmes, but who seem to have died out for the most part with the pre-scientific age. One or two of the pieces remind one not a little of Poe in his mood of pure terror with a tinge of mystery." We do not put these opinions side by side for the purpose of proving anything beyond the fact that Mr. Robinson has claims of no mean order upon the attention of the American public. Some of these criticisms or our own must be wrong, but the reader will find it an amusing intellectual exercise, after comparing them, to try to make out for himself what 'Under the Sun' really is. He can hardly look through the book without finding something to his taste.

Altavona. Fact and Fiction from My Life in the Highlands. By John Stuart Blackie, F.R.S.E. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1882.

THE hint of the title of this book was taken, the author says, from Goethe's autobiography, but it will not in any other respect recall to the reader the 'Wahrheit und Dichtung' of the German poet. Professor Blackie, having resided for twenty years in the Highlands, and, as he says, "in a position peculiarly well fitted for looking a little into the soul of things there," thought that it would be a pity not to note down in a book his impressions of the country. This he has done in the form of what he calls "ambulatory dialogue," which gives him an opportunity of changing his scene and, with his scene, securing a continual change of subject. He has also another reason for resorting to the form of dialogue, which, we fancy, had a good deal to do with his decision. "I have," he says, "decided opinions on important social questions, but I hate one-sided views. I strive always, when I most violently condemn, to appreciate my antagonist's point of view, and to state sympathetically any circumstances that may either palliate his guilt or make a sort of reasonable apology for his blunder. Now, there is no way of doing this so effective as the dialogue. Both parties in a disputed matter are allowed to state their case strongly, and the reader, as a wise arbiter, is invited to strike a just balance between the two." The characters introduced in 'Altavona' represent an Old Catholic and Highland type, a Presbyterian type (Gaelic, however, at all points), an English Episcopo-Oxonian type, and a cosmopolitan, philosophic German. What they say is supposed to be a true picture of the opinions respectively held by these types; and the author has worked out his scheme with a great deal of cleverness. But the difficulty with dialogue of this sort is that it proceeds on a false assumption. The characters are not real characters, and what they have to say is seen through the mind of the author. No matter how desirous he is to be fair, the reader knows after all that he must aim at giving his own side the best of the argument; and, consequently, unless the dialogue is a work of great interest as a dialogue, he refuses to accord that reality to the discussion which he would be willing to give if the author merely said what he had to say *in propria persona*. Real dialogues, like those in Boswell's 'Johnson,' or Madame D'Arblay, are always profoundly interesting, because they contain the real discussions of real men and women; so are the dialogues in a book like the 'New Republic'—a masterpiece, in its way, of pure literature. But every author who undertakes to convey information and correct opinions through fictitious dialogue, does so at his peril, and this peril Mr. Blackie has not avoided. 'Altavona' is a mine of information about the Highlands, its people, customs, language, songs, religion, and amusements. It is a really valuable *vade-mecum* to the country, and we cordially recommend it to any one who wishes to explore the subject; but we must protest against the form into which it has been thrown, and the author's belief that he has heightened the interest by adopting it.

The Political Conspiracies Preceding the Rebellion; or, The True Stories of Sumter and Pickens. By Thomas M. Anderson, Lieut.-Col. U. S. A. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882. 12mo, pp. 100.

SUMTER was a flaming beacon: its flash called a nation to arms, and the fierceness of its glow intensified the shadows. To this day its lights and shades embarrass the interpreter of the incidents that surrounded it. Men ignorant or unmindful of the political situation, and looking at the strictly military features, even now denounce Major Anderson as incompetent, cowardly, or disloyal. In their eyes, the assault on the *Star of the West* should have compelled him to prevent by force of arms the growth of the Carolina batteries. But most who remember the political situation as it was, and have learned the official restrictions that bound him, believe that Anderson acted with judgment, military propriety, and moral courage. Extremists, North and South, to whom the slavery cause was first and that of the Union subordinate, would have precipitated the war at the earliest possible hour. The mass of patriotic men at the North, in their distress at a possible disruption, would have exhausted every pacific agency before resorting to arms. The cross purposes and confused counsel of the ante-bellum period are a labyrinth through which the historical student will not find an easy way.

The writer of this little book vindicates the just fame of his kinsman, and retells the story of the fall of Sumter and the rescue of Pickens. There is very little that is new; the letter of General Meigs, giving his version of the curious military expedition which the Secretary of State set on foot without the knowledge of the Secretary of War or of the Navy, being the only original document. Lieut.-Col. Anderson does not accept the conclusions of the writer of the letter. The essay is often diffuse in style, and sometimes lacks dignity; it omits an occasional link of narration, and its story of facts is accompanied by reflections which, although generally just, are frequently commonplace. *Après nous le déluge* is, oddly enough, called Buchanan's famous phrase. The book is well published, although there is some indifferent proof-reading and there is no index.

Virgil, with an Introduction and Notes, by T. L. Papillon, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of New College, etc. Vol. I. Introduction and Text. Vol. II. Notes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1882.

THE special value of Mr. Papillon's edition of 'Virgil' is in the Introduction, which contains a mass of information not found, we believe, in any other school edition. It is in four parts: Life and Poems of Virgil; the Text of Virgil; Orthography; and the Virgilian Hexameter. Of course there are few pupils, of the age at which Virgil is generally read, who will care for these discussions; but here and there there will

be one, and at any rate they will be very acceptable to teachers and to students who have not access to the larger editions. Of the commentary, it need only be said that the editor, in his preface, declares as his aim to provide something intermediate in quantity between the commentaries of Conington and Kennedy—"a want that my experience as a college tutor has shown to exist." He appears to have made intelligent use of these commentaries and the other leading editions. If he had been acquainted with Prof. C. L. Smith's paper in the *American Journal of Philology* (Dec., 1881) upon "Virgil's Instructions for Crops," he would certainly have modified some of his notes on the first book of the Georgics. Mr. Smith seems to us to have proved that the additional ploughing recommended in verse 48 was in the late winter, probably February, instead of in the autumn, as is usually assumed. When Mr. Papillon says "he alludes to the cultivation of 'novales,'" he ought to have told the student what *novales* were. In the note to Eclogue i. 71, he gives the word three distinct definitions; and what he means in the present case we cannot guess. Another passage explained by Mr. Smith is that in verses 71 to 84, where, however, some points are more uncertain, and a part of his argument rests upon a transposition of verses. But he has, at any rate, proved that peas, etc., were not "a spring crop," but were regularly sown in the fall.

Constitutional History and Political Development of the United States. By Simon Sterne. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

Mr. Sterne has attempted to give a sketch of the Constitution as it stands, accompanied by a history of the political controversies which resulted in its formation and in the changes which it has undergone, together with a presentation of the actual present condition of politics, and of questions demanding the attention of parties. The work is of a popular character, and has the advantage of bringing down the constitutional history of the country to the latest period. It can hardly supplant the constitutional text-books used in schools and colleges now.

In his chapter on "Current Questions" Mr. Sterne takes up Civil-Service Reform, the Silver Question, the Transportation Problem, Revenue Reform, and, indeed, most of the questions of the day, and discusses them briefly. Mr. Sterne does not hesitate to tell his readers how they ought to be disposed of, and, in the main, his "soundness" cannot be questioned. We only complain here of a certain looseness of treatment, which in a constitutional history is out of place. For instance, with regard to centralization, speaking of the transportation question and the necessity of clothing the General Government with sufficient power to deal with the subject adequately, he says:

"That this necessity runs counter to a very correct theory of decentralization, and that the liberty of the individual is endangered by all centralization of power, is a truth to which thoughtful students of political history cannot shut their eyes. But precisely as in Germany a false decentralization of power had to be succeeded by a nation having centralized national power, with the view to intelligent and proper decentralization, so in turn it may be necessary in many particulars to disregard State lines, and the localizing of power resulting from such State lines, for the purpose of more intelligent and more effectual decentralization in those particulars wherein it is beneficial, and also to secure centralization in those matters wherein decentralization involves danger to the commonwealth."

We are sorry that Mr. Sterne did not take the pains to clear up a little more thoroughly the confusion which surrounds the subject of centralization. There are at least three different senses in which the word is used in the politics of this country, and used without any clear discrimination of the differences between them. It has an historical, a legal, and a political meaning. Historically, it is opposed to State rights; and here it is important to remember that the sentiment out of which the doctrine of State rights grew, or at any rate on which it was founded, is practically dead. Centralization in the United States, in its earliest manifestation, found its most serious obstacle in the fact that every addition to Federal power was secured at the expense of the original sovereignty of the States, which had been, so far as their relations to each other were concerned, independent governments. During the first generation after the Revolution, and in many parts of the country down to the time of the war, every American was born with a sentiment of State allegiance, weaker than, but in kind the same as, the allegiance of a Frenchman or an Englishman to his government. This was, however, a purely historical sentiment, and since the war it may be said to have been completely destroyed. Even in the older States, the notion of anything like allegiance or sovereignty is so dead that it can hardly be considered any longer as a political force, or as likely to produce questions on which parties can possibly divide. It is involved in none of the questions which Mr. Sterne considers "current." Legally, however, the conception of the Constitution, not as an original growth, but as a grant of powers—a charter conferred upon the Federal Government by the States—continues to exist, and must continue to exist until State lines are entirely blotted out. Here, then, centralization makes its inroads by merely modifying the rules of interpretation applied by the courts to the provisions of the Constitution, or by constitutional amendments. This process, however, is very slow, and must be hastened or retarded by considerations drawn from the political view of centralization as a matter of expediency. Such a question as the transportation problem involves both legal and political considerations, and we think that any one who discusses it is bound to show much more clearly than Mr. Sterne does what he means, when he predicts the extension of the powers of the United States over "all industrial and commercial matters as to which the States have a common interest," in order that "the United States may deal with that subject precisely as it deals with the subject of bankruptcy." The analogy between bankruptcy and the business of common carriers seems to us very remote; and if the grant of power over one could be extended to the other, we should be very curious to know precisely by what means. The fact that almost all the railroads in the country are the property of corporations chartered by the States presents a serious legal obstacle; and assuming, as Mr. Sterne assumes, that the change is to be effected by constitutional amendment, what is the change to be? Is the National Government to buy up the entire railroad system of the country? or is a central commission to fix the rates for freight and passenger traffic everywhere? or what is to be done?

Outlines of Ancient History, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of the Western Roman Empire, A. D. 476: Embracing the Egyptians, Chaldeans, Assyrians, Babylonians, Hebrews, Phœnicians, Medes, Persians, Greeks, and Romans. Intended for private reading, and as a manual of instruction. By P. V. N. Myers, A.M., President of Farmers' College, Ohio, etc. Harper & Bros. 1882. 12mo, pp. 484.

Mr. Myers has made a book which will accomplish very well the purpose he had in view—the preparation of an interesting and generally accurate sketch of ancient history, designed especially for readers and students who are not classical scholars. Nothing is harder than to make ancient times real to persons of the nineteenth century: Christianity, the Teutonic race, and the absolute principle of government, to say nothing of the radical changes in dress, habits of life, and manner of speech, separate ancient and modern times by a gulf which Mr. Freeman will never succeed in wholly bridging over. Even classical scholars seldom feel toward Themistocles and Cicero as they do toward Charlemagne and William the Conqueror; and certainly this sentiment is impossible to any one who is not imbued with a spirit of antiquity by a close intimacy with its works of literature and art. So far as it can be done, however, in a general sketch, Mr. Myers has succeeded, and this he has done largely by that rare quality in bookmakers—a willingness to omit names and dates which are not essential. What strikes one first on opening the book is the absence of capital letters and figures—it looks like a narrative, not a statistical statement—and the reader finds his pathway uninterrupted by the wearisome detail that cumbers most books of this character. This merit would outweigh many defects, even if the book were less sound in scholarship than it is. We notice (p. 12) that the Turanians are classed in the Caucasian race. Probably Blumenbach's division of races has little value at the present day; but at any rate the Caucasian race should not include the Tatars, Lapps, and Finns.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, W. Sketches of Life Among My Ain Folk. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Allen, W. F. The Reader's Guide to English History. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Bertram, R. A. A Homiletic Encyclopædia of Illustrations in Theology and Morals. Funk & Wagnalls. $2 50.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo-Ausgabe. Birds, Part 45 (conclusion). Mammals, Parts 46–49.
Buell, W. Joshua R. Giddings: a Sketch. Cleveland: W. W. Williams.
Chatterbox, Junior. R. Worthington.
Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. viii. Fifth Series. Winthrop Papers. Part 4. Published by the Society.
Danenhower, Lieutenant. Narrative of the *Jeannette*. Illustrated. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 25 cents.
Eastern Question; or, An Outline of Mohammedanism: Its Rise, Progress, and Decay. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Ellis, Rev. S. Life of Edwin H. Chapin, D.D. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. $1 50.
Faustine: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Gréville, H. Sylvie's Betrothed: a Russian Story. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.
Heaton, M. C. Correggio. Scribner & Welford.
Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. Army. Authors and Subjects. Vol. iii. Cholecyanin-Dzondi. Washington.
Jenkins, T. J. The Judges of Faith, and Godless Schools. Thomas D. Eagan.
Jones, D. M. Lethe, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Longley, E. American Phonographic Dictionary. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2 50.
Magill, Mary Tucker. Pantomimes; or, Wordless Poems. For Elocution and Calisthenic Classes. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.
Mohl, L. Life of Haydn. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 25.
Mühler, W. Political History of Recent Times. 1816–1875. Harper & Bros.
Parloa, Maria. First Principles of Household Management and Cookery. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Peterson, H. Poems. Second Series. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Phelps, A. My Portfolio: A Collection of Essays. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Phillips, A. W., and Beebe, W. Graphic Algebra. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Report of the U. S. Fish Commissioner for 1879. I. Decrease of Food Fishes. II. Their Propagation. Washington.
Rodd, R. Rose-Leaf and Apple-Leaf: Poems. Philadelphia: J. M. Stoddart & Co. $2 50.
Sanborn, Kate. Grandma's Garden. With Many Original Poems. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Schuyler, A. Empirical and Rational Psychology. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
Short, Prof. J. T. Historical Reference Lists. Columbus, O.: A. H. Smythe. 40 cents.
Smiles, S. Self-Help. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Stack, E. Six Months in Persia. In two vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4 50.
Stevens, A. Character-Sketches. Phillips & Hunt. $1 50.
Strange Journey; or, Pictures from Egypt and the Soudan. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Washburn, E. A. Sermons. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 75.
Wheeler, L. Erothanatos, and Sonnets. James Miller.
Wilkinson, W. C. Preparatory Greek Course in English. Phillips & Hunt. $1 25.
Wonders of the Heart of St. Teresa of Jesus. Baltimore: John B. Piet & Co.
Zola, E. The Girl in Scarlet. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 19, 1882.

The Week.

THE two Camerons—father and son—bosses of Pennsylvania, are engaged in a supreme effort to maintain the rule of their dynasty. Senator Don Cameron, the son, has been in Washington for a day or two to see what the Government could do in the way of propping up the Cameronian cause, but he found that the Administration had long been absent on a fishing excursion, and was now doing honor to Daniel Webster's memory at Marshfield. The Pennsylvania boss thought that a live Cameron was worth looking after much more than a dead Webster; and, if report speaks truly, he gave emphatic vent to his feelings. When the clerks in the departments heard of Mr. Cameron's presence in Washington, their hearts sank within them at the prospect of another "voluntary" contribution for the grand old cause. They will scarcely escape the necessity of "volunteering" with their pocket-books once more. Ex-Senator Simon Cameron, the father, on Friday spoke to a reporter in Philadelphia. He thought it would have been better to let Tilden be President, for then the country would by this time have become disgusted with a free-trade Government. On civil-service reform Mr. Simon Cameron's opinions are particularly strong. He says: "This subject of civil service is all wrong." And why is it all wrong? Mr. Cameron's reasons are altogether philanthropic. "I believe," he says, "in giving poor young men a chance, but if you observe the custom observed in England, why, only the wealthy succeed each other." This is news. Does Mr. Cameron think the young men in England who work very hard to prepare themselves for the competitive examinations to get a living in the civil service, are mostly rich young gentlemen who might as well live on their independent incomes? Does he think such rich young men would crowd into the competitive examinations here? The chance Mr. Simon Cameron wants poor young men to have, is to be put into public places upon the selection and recommendation of the Camerons, father and son, and to pay lusty assessments when the Camerons have a political battle on their hands, and to be in constant dread of removal at the Camerons' request if they refuse to pay or otherwise displease the bosses. As to the campaign in Pennsylvania, the Camerons want it to be understood that they are "confident." They think it is too late for a compromise between the Independents and the Stalwarts, and that the defeat in Ohio will "do the party good."

The story of the conspiracy to ruin Colonel Irish, of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, bears at some points a curious resemblance to the story of the safe-burglary conspiracy, in which "Dick" Harrington, of Delaware, played such a conspicuous part some eight years ago. In both cases the charge is that of a conspiracy to injure an innocent man by "putting upon" him a felony; in both cases the beneficiaries of the crime are supposed to be a gang of that class of politicians who are now known as "Stalwarts." The facts in the safe-burglary case were these: Columbus Alexander, a citizen of the District of Columbia of the highest character, was actively pushing an investigation into the transactions of the Shepherd Ring. In the course of the investigation it became for the interest of those carrying it on to get possession of the books of John O. Evans & Co., contractors, which were in District-Attorney Harrington's safe. Alexander was approached, and the books were offered to him if he would pay for them. He declined to buy any evidence. The burglary was then committed, with the intent that it should be traced to Alexander's door, but it miscarried, and Harrington was indicted. In the present case, Mr. Alexander is Colonel Irish; the part played by Harrington is taken by Salter and Ward, and the "job" consists in getting property of the Bureau stolen in order to bring discredit on its management, get Colonel Irish removed, and make places for two or three politicians, one of whom has been "working" for the place with the aid of Senator Cameron and the Pennsylvania delegation. Whether Salter and Ward, who are now under arrest, are guilty, remains to be shown; but if they are, they may well have got their idea of their little scheme from the history of the charges against Harrington, and they must derive encouragement in their awkward position from a recollection of the effectual way in which he has since been vindicated. He was indicted during General Grant's second term, and while under indictment he went to call at the White House, and was pleasantly received. The jury disagreed, and he returned to Delaware, where the party felt that he was just the man they needed; he has now been made Chairman of the State Committee, and is waging an active war against the wicked Democrats.

A case of political boycotting is reported from Albany. It is said that the letter-carriers of that city have been ordered to distribute, free of charge, circulars denouncing the *Evening Journal* for its independent course in politics, and urging Republicans to discontinue taking it and to take the Troy *Times* instead. In other words, a Federal office is used as an organized instrument to injure a private business whose proprietors are not in political sympathy with the Federal Administration. It is understood that large numbers of these circulars have been so distributed. If the facts are as reported, the partisan use of official power has gone a step further than ever before. Places have been awarded as a reward for political service, men have been turned out of office as a punishment for refusal to render such service, and officeholders have been required to contribute a fixed percentage of their salaries to support a political machine. All this is familiar. But we believe this is the first time that the organized force of a public office has been employed to induce the customers of a business establishment not to deal with it any longer in order that it may be punished for party contumacy. This is boycotting in politics carried on by Government officers. The *Evening Journal* asserts the facts in the most positive way, and the *Argus* announces that, after a thorough investigation, the charge appears to be well founded. It is one which Postmaster-General Howe cannot safely sleep under. If it is false, he ought to lose no time in contradicting it effectually. If it is true, a failure on his part to dismiss Albany Postmaster Craig from the office he has abused will throw upon himself and the Administration the responsibility for this gross outrage.

The Albany *Journal* of Monday says:

"It may not be generally known, but it is none the less a fact, that Judge Folger did intend to decline the nomination, and said so openly a couple of hours before the State Committee met. There is no doubt of the sincerity of this declaration. But unfortunately he allowed his best judgment to be overthrown by the urgent pleadings of the Machine men, and at last reluctantly accepted."

If this be true, Mr. Folger is undoubtedly now looking back with profound regret upon the hour when, yielding his better judgment to a set of tricksters, he lost a chance to put himself in a stronger position before the public than he has ever occupied in his life. That chance he lost, and a similar one is not likely ever to come back to him. It is rumored that the Machine men are urging Mr. Folger to "mount the stump" and make a number of speeches in the campaign in his own behalf. There should be a limit to their cruelty. They should be satisfied with the injury they have already done to Mr. Folger, and not insist upon inflicting upon him further humiliation.

Mr. Howard Carroll will do well not to repeat the indiscretion of his speech to the Young Republicans on Monday night, when he said:

"There has been a great deal said about civil-service reform, and nobody can doubt that such a reform is necessary. I do not believe, however, that the rules under which appointments are now made in the Custom-houses and Internal Revenue offices always secure the best men. It does not seem the best thing to ask a man how high a mountain is when he is to be made a gauger of whiskey, nor is it necessary to ask a man as to the depth of the sea when he is seeking a position as an appraiser of goods. I should be disposed to advocate such rules as would tend to secure the men best suited for the particular duties which they will be required to perform."

The illustrations he uses about the gauger and the mountain, and the appraiser and the sea, explain clearly why it is he believes "that the rules under which appointments are now made in the Custom-house do not always secure the best men." He is right as to the fact, but the true reason for believing it is that no system of human contrivance "always secures the best men" for anything. *His* reason is, however, the very plain and commonplace one that he knows nothing whatever about the examinations. He has evidently never attended them, nor ever seen the papers. His illustrations are therefore simple concoctions of his own fancy, and are intended to be a sneer at the only practical attempt at civil-

service reform yet made, which is the less excusable in him as he has been long connected with the *Times*, which has again and again exposed this particular device of the spoilsmen. His first duty now, before he speaks again on civil-service reform, is to go down to the Custom-house, and inform himself, either by witnessing an examination, or reading the examination papers, whether there is the smallest foundation for his joke. He will find that the questions are eminently practical, that they go straight to the candidate's general intelligence and special fitness for a special work, and that they are just such as a private employer would ask candidates for situations under him, if he had no previous knowledge of them. One candidate for Congress—Mr. Charles O'Neill, of Philadelphia—passed a portion of last Saturday doing this very thing, having been incited to it by questions put him by the Civil-Service Reform Association of that city. He did not stay at home and invent funny questions as specimens of "this particular method," and retail them on the stump, but took the train and went to the Custom-house and saw the thing itself, which Professor Huxley says is the true foundation for all knowledge. Mr. Carroll will do well to follow his example. He is young, is just entering on a political career, and is handling a question which is fast becoming the burning question of the day, and it may prove highly inconvenient to him hereafter to have talked about it flippantly, or without due information.

The *Herald* gives a synopsis of a plan suggested by the Hon. John Jay Knox, Comptroller of the Currency, for converting the outstanding 4 per cent. bonds, which run till the year 1907, into 3 per cents having the same time to run, in order to furnish the national banks a more secure basis for their circulation without lengthening or increasing the public debt. The plan provides that the Government shall issue the new threes in exchange for the outstanding fours, at the rate of $117 50 of the former for $100 of the latter. A computation will show that the amount of money to be paid by the Government between now and 1907, principal and interest together, will be the same in either case. It is believed that the banks would readily make the exchange, since it would enable them to realize the premium which the fours now have, without selling the bonds and retiring a corresponding amount of their circulating notes. Under present circumstances the premium yields nothing to the banks, and it serves as an inducement to them to retire their circulation and sell these bonds—the effect of the movement being a slow contraction of the currency. The plan appears to be free from objections and entirely feasible, provided the public can be made to see that it involves no loss of money and no extension of the debt beyond the period now fixed for its redemption. To make this clear will be a task of some difficulty, but not more difficult perhaps than many other financial problems we have had to deal with.

The New York banks during the last week again increased their reserve, and now hold a surplus of nearly $2,000,000 where a year ago there was a deficiency of $2,500,000. The money market worked easily for borrowers, and at lower rates than for several weeks, no loans having been made above 6 per cent., and not a few having been made below 5 per cent. The domestic exchanges are not running as strongly against New York as they were, and the Treasury disbursements during the week were heavier. Rates for foreign exchange, chiefly on account of the settlement of loan bills, advanced early in the week, but later declined again; rates, however, are still above the gold-importing point, and it begins to be seriously doubted whether any gold will be imported this year. At the Stock Exchange, the early part of the week was characterized by weakness and depression, but in the latter part there was a recovery in tone and prices. Railroad earnings continue very large on the leading lines; the tonnage from the grain movement is small, but other sources make up this deficiency, and rates charged are much higher than a year ago. The general trade of the country is fairly good, but is not up to extreme expectations, because of the slow movement of grain from first hands, which in turn is due to the low prices to be obtained for it.

Two colonels fought in St. Louis on Saturday, one a newspaper and the other a bar colonel, and the latter, who appears to have been a most estimable man, was shot dead. The Bar of St. Louis has accordingly held a meeting of mixed indignation and condolence over the affair, which protested against "the spirit of ruffianism which is abroad, the wanton employment in speech or writing of intemperate, licentious, and defamatory language, and the resort, on frivolous pretexts, to deadly weapons." The occurrence is doubtless most deplorable, but the resolutions of the Bar do not, it seems to us, go to the root of the matter. Colonel Cockerill, the slayer, made use in his paper—the *Post-Dispatch*—of "intemperate, licentious, and defamatory language" about Colonel Slayback, who thereupon went to the office of the paper with a friend, and found Colonel Cockerill in his room with his pistol on the table. There was an altercation, and Colonel Slayback was shot in the well-known Southern style. But then Colonel Slayback, being the kind of man the Bar describes, ought to have known better than to go armed to the office of a ruffianly newspaper colonel to call him to account. "The spirit of ruffianism" is just as much abroad here as in St. Louis. Dozens of colonels in this city are constantly defaming other colonels in the most licentious manner; but the defamed colonels take no notice of it, and it soon becomes as harmless as the noise in the street. No colonel of high character and standing at our Bar carries a revolver, or thinks of going in quest of other armed colonels to demand retractions or apologies. The apology of a blackguard is of no use to any colonel in any part of the world. If peaceable and respectable colonels at the South would make up their minds to disregard the foul-mouthed and abusive colonels, we believe the homicidal record of that blood-stained region would rapidly improve. And then, would it not be well to cut down the number of colonels? Would it not be well for hard-working lawyers—fathers of families—to go about as plain Misters? Does not this military rank make them feel as if they had a store of military honor to look after? And can there be a more inconvenient thing for a peaceful citizen than a commodity of this kind?

Our respect for Mr. Munro, the eminent Pirate, great already, for his endeavors to bring the best foreign literature within reach of the masses, has been heightened by learning that he now prints expurgated editions of his books. We are informed, but have not ourselves verified the information, that he has, for instance, produced an edition of Mallock's 'Romance of the Nineteenth Century' from which he has excluded all the objectionable passages, leaving simply what is pure and elevating. It would really seem from this as if we were about to witness one of the strangest transformations of modern times, full of strange transformations as this century has been—namely, not only the disappearance of all that is opprobrious from the term Pirate, but its conversion into a title of honor. What is perhaps most curious about this is, that it will be simply a recurrence to the old Greek use of the name, which not only conveyed nothing discreditable, but designated a calling in which a man could establish as high claims on the consideration of his fellows as in any other. Mr. Munro is thus perhaps unwittingly—though for aught we can tell he may be an eminent Greek scholar—furnishing a fresh illustration of the power and permanence of Greek culture. The modern world is slowly learning the extent of its indebtedness to the Hellenic thought and language. The idea that a Pirate could be a useful and honored citizen is Greek. We, after two thousand years, have revived it, but have also, we are glad to say, ennobled it by making the Pirate a philanthropist.

The change which has come over the spirit of the French people with regard to war, as illustrated by the disgust caused by the Tunisian expedition, and by the popular opposition to any participation in the invasion of Egypt, has naturally been exciting a good deal of surprise and speculation. It is only twelve years since the French had the reputation of being not only the most warlike people of Europe, but the people fondest of war. They have now the reputation of being the least warlike and most pacific people in Europe. It would have been said before 1870 by almost any observer of French politics that no government, whether monarchy or republic, could survive a refusal to participate in the enterprise against Egypt undertaken by the British. It is now generally acknowledged that no government could have safely participated in it. Can it be possible, it is now asked, that the old view of the French character, which may be said to have prevailed for seven hundred years, was all a mistake, and that the French all along have been quiet and peaceably disposed in spite of their incessant warring? Or has the national temper undergone a complete revolution under the discipline of the German invasion? The answer to both questions which finds most favor now is, that the French people never were really fond of war, but that owing to their highly centralized Government they never until now had a chance of impressing their real sentiments on the national policy.

The French public was, until 1870, for all political purposes, the inhabitants of Paris. It was in Paris that all revolutions were made, the provinces accepting the result as soon as it was telegraphed to them. It was the opinion of the Parisian salons which had most weight in the palace and Ministerial bureaux. It was Paris which clamored for war, and liked "glory," and enjoyed the spectacular triumphs which followed the return of the conquering heroes and the armies which they led. It was in Parisian society that the titles and decorations won on the battle-field were most effective, and to Parisian galleries and museums that the great spoils of victory came. In the provinces, it is said, war has all along inspired nothing but horror. It was not the provinces which longed for revenge for Waterloo, or which was ready to begin armed meddling in Spain seven years after Waterloo, and besiege Antwerp fifteen years after, and to fight England about Mehemet Ali and about Tahiti twenty-five or thirty years after, and which under the Third Empire began to threaten all Europe once more. It was good society in the metropolis.

It is to be observed that this theory does not fully account for the enormous popular vote in 1849 for Louis Napoleon, who can only have been known to the peasantry as the heir of a military hero. But this may have been due to the immemorial custom of the French people to vote always for the man in power. It is by no means conclusive proof of anything except their desire for a strong government which should put down the Reds. But the theory certainly does seem to be borne out by the recent history of the Republic. Paris, as a political capital, received a fatal blow from the insurrection of the Commune. The Commune got possession of Paris, but this did not give it possession of France, and this very novel experience seems to have awakened the provinces to a consciousness of their power. The establishment of the Republic may be said to have completed the transfer of the sovereignty, by taking away both the Legislature and the Administration from the control of "good society." The "elegant world," as the French call it, is no longer the official world. France is governed by country lawyers, manufacturers, and farmers, who do not go into society, and do not know or care about its standards or aspirations. They represent the peasantry, and they apparently truly say that the peasantry care nothing about the old French "glory." They want peace, a quiet life, and good markets. They will not submit to seeing their sons dragged off to perish in pestilential climates in order to uphold the traditions of the Foreign Office in Paris. They know and care nothing about these traditions, and if it costs money or blood to uphold them, will have none of them. The change is certainly most interesting, and, for the future of the European Continent, most important.

There is another Ministerial crisis at Constantinople, the first which has occurred for some years. Soon after the close of the Russian war the Sultan took all the affairs of state into his own hands, reduced the Ministers to the rank of clerks, and took away from the Vizier's office the character of lieutenancy which it had had since the foundation of the Empire. He then went to work to get up a sort of Mussulman revival in Asia, and restore the spiritual glories of the Caliphate in his own person, as a compensation for the terrible losses he had sustained in Europe. The Egyptian revolt seemed likely to further the scheme; and there is no doubt that he all along secretly encouraged Arabi. This game has, however, been brought to an abrupt close by the victory at Tel-el-Kebir. This has given a severe blow to Mussulman aspirations all over Asia, and once more demonstrated the Sultan's humiliating helplessness. So he is now anxious to fall back on Ministerial counsel and support, and wishes Saïd Pasha—one of the very few rational and decent pashas—to form a Cabinet, and Saïd refuses to do it, except on the basis of reconciliation with France and England, the abandonment of the alliance with Germany, and the acceptance of the situation in Egypt. This is, however, too much for the Sultan; so there is "a crisis."

The cable brings news of a declaration by Mr. Leonard H. Courtney, a member of the English Ministry, though not of the Cabinet, and a man who is not likely to talk loosely or unadvisedly, which must give sincere satisfaction to all friends of the Gladstone Government. The despatch seems to indicate that Egypt will be relieved from the necessity of paying the outrageous "tribute" which now goes to the Sultan, for which he makes no return whatever, and that the Egyptians, from the Khedive down, will have to go to work and govern the country decently, soberly, and economically, and, better than all, that the bondholders will have to look out for themselves. If this programme be carried out, it will furnish a splendid justification of the war, and really make it a blessing in disguise.

The latest despatches from Peru seem to show that a crisis of some kind, either diplomatic or military, or both, is at hand, and that our Minister, Dr. Logan, is taking part in it. Calderon and he, according to one story, have arranged terms of peace with Chili, and both of them are now going to set off to Bolivia to bring that country into the agreement. According to what seems like equally good authority, Pierola's adherents are making ready in the north to get up a "de-facto Government" in his interest, resting, it may safely be assumed, not upon the "character and intelligence" of Peru, but upon some guns and soldiers. Montero, meantime, has issued a circular to the Diplomatic Corps, declaring that he will continue the war to the last ditch, unless reasonable terms of peace are granted, and protesting against the exactions of Chili. Such a state of affairs can hardly last long.

The National Conference which is sitting in Dublin seems to be a sort of prelude to some permanent organization, probably of a more political and less economical kind than the Land League. It is already announced that the agitation it will undertake will be peaceable and parliamentary, and it will probably push for some large measure of Home Rule, and will undoubtedly rely on greatly increasing the number of members of the Home Rule persuasion in the next Parliament. At the last election in 1880 the party can hardly be said to have been organized, and the Irish constituencies were still mostly Liberal. At the next election they will, in the south and west, probably break with both the English parties, and set up an Irish party, pure and simple; and it is estimated that in this way Parnell will have about seventy-three followers instead of twenty-three, who will constitute a very formidable "balance of power" in the House, especially in case Mr. Gladstone should retire from office. Mr. Egan, the Treasurer of the Land League, has sent in his accounts, in round sums, and asked for the appointment of two auditors to examine them. He says that about $1,250,000 has passed through his hands, and he has obtained a vote of continued confidence.

The programme of the Irish National Conference has been somewhat more fully brought out in the later despatches, but there is nothing very definite about it, and in fact it seems to resemble somewhat the programme of a Social Science Conference. It proposes discriminating taxation against grass lands, which is of course aimed at the practice of evicting tenants for the purpose of converting their holdings into pasture; but it would bear with great severity on tenants who thought dairy-farming more profitable than tillage. It proposes also to pay the Irish members of Parliament, which will greatly scandalize the English members, but will probably give the Irish party the services of some valuable men who could not otherwise afford to live in London. In addition to all this, the Conference is to establish workingmen's clubs and reading-rooms. In fact, the mixture of things political and social in the programme is very considerable, and seems at the outset to promise a rather languid agitation. A movement in favor of the general welfare of the population is never carried on with much ardor. There were some signs of dissension, owing doubtless to jealousy of Parnell, on the part of some of the fanatical members, like Davitt, of humbler origin, which was apparently kept down with difficulty. Parnell's own speech seems to have been, on the whole, moderate, and in parts very practical. He said that they needed from eighty to ninety members to make an effective Irish party in the House of Commons, but he apparently despairs of this without household suffrage. We have little doubt he could get it with the suffrage as it is, if more rationality were infused into the talk and doings of his supporters, because the doctrine of Home Rule has apparently made considerable progress among all classes within the last two years. Even many of the landlords are now disgusted with the legislation of the British Parliament, and would sooner take their chances in an Irish one. The truth is, the reliance on the British Parliament to save them from the consequences of their own folly has been the curse of the Irish landlords. If they had had to fight their battles with their tenants on Irish soil exclusively, they would long ago have come to terms which would have made Mr. Gladstone's land acts unnecessary.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 11, to TUESDAY, October 17, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE later returns from Ohio increased the Democratic plurality to about 18,000. The Congressional delegation will consist of fourteen Democrats and seven Republicans.

Returns from Speaker Keifer's district in Ohio show that, although elected, he ran more than 1,000 votes behind the weakest of the Republican candidates for State offices, none of whom commanded more than seventy-five per cent. of the usual Republican vote in Ohio.

The Liberals of Utah Territory on Thursday nominated Philip T. Vanzile, United States District Attorney for Utah, for delegate to Congress. The platform arraigns the Mormon Church for making Utah disloyal to the Government, retarding its growth, and setting its people at variance with the United States, and declares that there can be no fair and impartial government in Utah while the Mormon Church is permitted to control the law-making power. It repeats the demand of the last Territorial Convention for a Legislative Commission.

A meeting of prominent citizens of New York, without regard to party, was held in the city on Wednesday, for the purpose of nominating a man for Mayor who should, apart from all partisan political considerations, be best fitted to administer the affairs of the city, and the nomination of the present Comptroller, Allan Campbell, was found to be the sense of the meeting. On Saturday a Joint Conference of Tammany Hall and the County Democracy agreed upon Mr. Franklin Edson as the Democratic nominee for the office of Mayor. On Tuesday the citizens' movement was thwarted by the arbitrary action of the committee appointed to give effect to it.

The Rev. Dr. Howard Crosby has written a letter, saying that the election of the present New York Republican ticket would be "the endorsement of bribery, fraud, and the tyranny of the money power"; and that no consideration whatever can justify this. He commends the nominees of the Democratic party as men of the "highest character, whom we can all respect and support without any qualms."

An intimate friend of Secretary Folger's is reported to have stated that Mr. Folger has not tendered his resignation from the Cabinet, and will not do so before the last of December, and only at that time in the event of his election as Governor of New York.

An enthusiastic civil-service reform meeting was held at Ithaca, New York, on Saturday evening. Addresses were made by President White, and Profs. Moses Coit Tyler and Herbert Tuttle, of Cornell University. A branch of the New York Civil-Service Reform Association was organized, with Mr. White as permanent President. It was voted to request an expression of the views of the candidates for Congress from that district on the question of civil-service reform.

Attorney-General Brewster, in an interview in Philadelphia on Sunday, stated that important arrests would soon be made by the Government in the Star-route bribery cases; and that among the arrests would be those of one or two persons in the Department of Justice who had been used as spies for the defendants, and who appeared to be deeply implicated in attempts to corrupt jurors on behalf of the defence, and that, moreover, the defendants having obtained information that the Government contemplated such action, would within a short time furnish an article to the press disclosing facts that have long been within the knowledge of the Department, and thus take the credit before the public of being exposers of wrong-doing. This statement of the Attorney-General was verified on Monday by the publication in various newspapers of a voluminous document, said to have been prepared by the lawyers for the defence, and consisting of affidavits reciting in detail the attempts to bribe members of the Star-route jury to find verdicts for the defendants. The affidavits charge Special Agents Bowen, Fall, and Brewster Cameron, and others with having made these attempts. In an interview on Monday evening in reference to the affidavits, Attorney-General Brewster said he did not think it becoming to carry the case of the Government against criminals into the newspapers in advance of the trial; that there was no fund from which any money could be drawn for the corruption of jurymen on behalf of the Government; that the whole thing was a palpable fabrication, and that "events which will take place hereafter will explain all that has taken place."

The Treasury Department will continue the redemption, both in New York and Washington, of the 117th-call bonds, without rebate of interest; but the owners, while receiving full interest to December 23, will be required to deposit a sum equal to three months' interest, from August 1, 1882, to November 1, 1882. A check for this three months' interest will be forwarded by the United States Treasurer to the registered owners of the bonds on November 1, in the usual manner.

The Acting Secretary of the Treasury has addressed a letter to all Collectors of Customs announcing that hereafter all accounts for travelling expenses incurred in that service will be paid from the Treasury Department, instead of allowing the Collectors to estimate for such expenses.

The annual report of the Director of the Mint, which was forwarded to the Secretary of the Treasury on Thursday, shows a decided increase in the coinage of the twelve months ending June 30, 1882, over that of the previous year.

The annual report of Commissioner MacFarland, of the General Land Office, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, was completed on Thursday. It shows the total disposals of public lands under all acts of Congress to have been 14,309,126.50 acres, an increase of almost 3,500,000 acres over the preceding year. The total amount received from all sources in connection with the disposal of public lands was $8,392,848 24. The Commissioner states that the land now embraced in the limits of the public domain amounts to 900,000,000 acres, including Alaska. He recommends that the Preëmption Laws be abolished, as the Homestead Laws cover all the cases now arising.

The annual report of Second Assistant Postmaster-General Elmer, which is nearly complete, will show a decided increase in the mileage of the Star-route service for the last fiscal year, as compared with that of the year ending June 30, 1880, while the cost of maintaining the service has been less than in 1880 by more than a million dollars.

A statement showing the exact financial condition of the Post-office Department at Washington at the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, has been published, and states the total receipts as $41,876,410 15; total expenditures, $40,039,634 75; excess of receipts over expenditures, $1,836,775 40.

The Department of Agriculture has furnished a report of the corn crop of the country based on returns received for the month of October. New England will produce seven to eight millions, the Middle States eighty-two millions, the Southern States three hundred and forty millions, the States north of Tennessee and west of Virginia and Pennsylvania twelve hundred and fifty millions, an aggregate of sixteen hundred and eighty millions.

The more important claims filed with the board designated by Congress to audit the claims arising from the illness and death of President Garfield are as follows: Dr. D. W. Bliss, $25,000; Dr. D. Hayes Agnew, $14,700; Dr. Robert Reyburn, $10,800; Dr. D. S. Lamb, $1,000; Susan A. Edson, $10,000; Henry S. Little, receiver of the Central Railroad Company, of New Jersey, for laying special track at Elberon and running special trains, $3,239 91. No claim has yet been filed by Dr. Hamilton or Dr. Boynton.

Boards for the physical and professional examination of surfmen throughout the Life-saving Service were appointed on Tuesday.

A despatch from Pensacola, Florida, on Tuesday reported a total of 1,677 cases of yellow fever and 141 deaths to date. The fever is spreading in the northern and northwestern parts of the city, which have heretofore been exempt from the disease.

Reports from Pittsylvania County, Virginia, state that the ravages of diphtheria in certain neighborhoods are alarming, nearly 200 deaths having occurred within the sixty days ending October 12.

General Crook held an important conference with 400 of the head men and chiefs of the Apache Indians at San Carlos, Arizona, on Sunday. He informed them of his policy of government during the time he should remain in command of the department, the leading points of which are briefly as follows: All the Indians are to be counted daily, and none of them will be allowed away from the reservation without papers, and Indians found off their reservation without passes are to be treated as hostiles; the manufacture of tiswin, the favorite liquor of the Apaches, is to be stopped. In conclusion, General Crook said that, while every encouragement and assistance would be given to Indians willing to be peaceful and work for their living, no mercy would be shown to those who attempted to go on the war path. If any of the Indians at the council felt disposed to break out, he thought it best for them to break out now, and bring the question of supremacy to test without more delay.

The celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of Daniel Webster's birthday took place at Marshfield, Mass. Mr. Stephen M. Allen, President of the Webster Historical Society, President Arthur, Governor Long, and others delivered speeches. A letter of Webster's, written in October, 1850, while he was a member of President Fillmore's Cabinet, and not heretofore published, was made public. It was intended to be sent to all United States officers, but the Cabinet for political reasons objected to it, and it was never sent. In it Mr. Webster upholds the supremacy and perpetuity of the Constitution and the Union and reprobates secession.

At a meeting of the Board of Trustees of Union College on Thursday, at Schenectady, President Potter appeared in person and read a brief letter in which he refused to resign the office of President, on the ground that but nine of the eighteen Trustees had asked him to do so. After a long debate, a motion that the action of the Board of Trustees asking for President Potter's resignation be rescinded was adopted by a vote of nine ayes to eight nays.

The international cricket match between the Australian Eleven and a picked eighteen of Philadelphia was concluded on Friday, and resulted in a victory for the Australians with nine wickets to spare.

The committee appointed to select the American rifle team and to make arrangements for the international match to be held in England, met on Monday, and adopted resolutions recommending as part of the conditions for the match in 1883, the use of the wind-gauge and of the barleycorn sight in use in the United States Army and approved by the National Guard of the various States; and enlistments on or before December 31, 1882, to make National Guard men eligible. It was resolved to "disregard sentiment" and purchase English rifles, which would place the American team on an equal footing with the British.

John Cockerill, managing editor of the St. Louis *Post-Dispatch* newspaper, shot Colo-

nel Slayback, in the office of the newspaper, on Friday afternoon. The trouble arose out of political matters, and the immediate cause of the shooting was that the *Post-Dispatch* had charged Colonel Slayback with cowardice. Slayback went, armed and accompanied by a friend, to the office of the paper, to demand satisfaction. A scuffle ensued, in the course of which Cockerill shot Slayback.

FOREIGN.

The Irish National Conference was held at Dublin on Tuesday. The attendance was large, between 700 and 800 delegates being present. Mr. Parnell presided. The scheme for the establishment of the Irish National League was adopted. The Central Council of the League will consist of forty-eight members, thirty-two representing the Counties, and sixteen the Parliamentary party. Mr. Egan presented the financial report of the Land League, which showed a balance on hand of nearly £32,000. Mr. Parnell, in a speech, said that no solution of the land question could be final which did not secure to farmers the right of becoming the owners of their holdings by purchase. Mr. Davitt made a speech, in the course of which he moved an amendment to the proposed constitution of the Central Committee of the new League, to the effect that the Parliamentary party have no nominations, but that its members be eligible for membership. Mr. T. P. O'Connor said that the adoption of this amendment would amount to a vote of want of confidence in the Parliamentary party, and accused Mr. Davitt of trying to injure Mr. Parnell's prestige, which greatly excited Mr. Davitt, and to prove the groundlessness of the accusation he withdrew the amendment. A resolution was passed expressing unabated confidence in Mr. Parnell.

Lord Northbrook, First Lord of the Admiralty, speaking at Liverpool Friday night on the beneficial effects of the Land Act, expressed the belief that a turning point had been reached in the affairs of Ireland. The number of outrages, he said, had decreased and rents were being freely paid.

Sir Stafford Northcote has sent a circular to the Conservative members of Parliament, enjoining upon them the necessity of attendance at the opening of the session, in view of the importance of the questions relating to Parliamentary procedure and Egyptian affairs.

The committee under General Alison appointed to report on the proposed Channel tunnel has recommended that the exit of the tunnel should be commanded by a fortress of the first class; that the tunnel should be provided with a portcullis, and with an arrangement for filling it for a sufficient space with an irrespirable gas; that an arrangement should be made for the demolition of the land portion of the tunnel, for the temporary flooding of the main tunnel, and also for its total destruction by mines; and that various other precautions should be taken; but even if all this should be done, the committee admit that it would be presumptuous to place absolute reliance upon the arrangements. Memoranda from Sir Garnet Wolseley and the Duke of Cambridge are appended strongly condemning the tunnel. The London *Times* considers that this report has settled the question of the tunnel adversely for a long time to come.

Mr. Leonard H. Courtney, M. P., Joint Secretary to the Treasury, opening a Liberal club at Torpoint, on Thursday, denied that the Government arrogated to itself the credit for the victories in Egypt. That country, he said, must eventually become independent of foreign control, and must defray the cost of the war, and no doubt the bondholders would have to forego something. It was not for them that England undertook the war. In regard to a resettlement, Mr. Courtney said it would be necessary to consult the Powers. He concluded by saying that the policy of the Government was to detach Egypt from the Sultan, to look after the Suez Canal, and to "allow the Egyptians to stew in their own juice," and to warn the Khedive that his future position depended on his management of affairs. This speech of Mr. Courtney's has been read with interest as being the first public expression of the probable policy of the Government in regard to Egyptian matters.

The Committee appointed to try the rebel prisoners on Wednesday examined several witnesses, including Princes Ibrahim and Kiamil. The evidence was insignificant. Arabi Pasha was also taken before the Committee, and replied to their inquiries in long but unimportant speeches. On Thursday the examination of Arabi was continued, and a despatch from Cairo says that it is understood that he ably defended himself, denying complicity in the massacres and in the burning of Alexandria. He boldly vindicated his conduct as leader of the National party. He said that when he reached Cairo, after his defeat at Tel-el-Kebir, and found the inhabitants unwilling to continue the struggle, he immediately bowed to their will and surrendered. On Sunday the indictment of Arabi and his associates had not yet been completed, and the Prosecution Committee expressed the belief that the court-martial would not meet again for another week. This delay is caused by the question of admitting English counsel to defend the rebel leaders. The Egyptian Government is preparing a note to Sir Edward Malet showing the inconvenience of admitting foreign counsel in the case, and explaining that the Government would instead prefer to hand back Arabi and his associates to the military authorities for trial; and a despatch from Cairo to the London *Daily Telegraph* reports that the Egyptian Ministry met on Saturday to decide the question of counsel, and has informed Mr. Rivers Wilson that permission to Arabi to employ foreign counsel has been refused. The London *Times* on Friday printed a letter from Mr. Wilfrid Blunt to Mr. Gladstone, protesting against the action of the Egyptian authorities in preventing counsel from seeing Arabi to prepare his defence. The news on Sunday was that the Hon. Mark Francis Napier would defend Arabi before the court-martial, the Egyptian Government having allowed the latter to choose his own counsel, whether native or foreign.

On Tuesday a Cairo despatch stated that it was believed in official circles that proof of Arabi's complicity in the June massacre in Alexandria would be unobtainable. The *Daily News* states that at the private investigation of the rebel prisoners most of them objected to being questioned in regard to events which had occurred prior to the outbreak, Arabi especially urging that they were covered by the general pardon issued by the Khedive. Arabi also said that the June massacre was precipitated by the presence of the British fleet. Another despatch to the *Daily News* says that in regard to the defence of Alexandria, Arabi avers that he acted under the orders of the Khedive, and that he continued the war after the bombardment by order of the National Council at Cairo. The Cairo correspondent of the London *Times* telegraphed on Sunday that the decree of the Council of Ministers, the existence of which Arabi vehemently denied, had been found at the house of Rifaat Bey, bearing his signature and that of the other Ministers.

The Egyptian Minister of Finance is in possession of a list of landed properties belonging to the leaders of the rebellion which are worth in the aggregate £2,000,000. It is believed that much of this property will be confiscated.

A despatch from Constantinople says that England's reply to the Porte's note in regard to the evacuation of Egypt by the British troops caused great exasperation at the palace. The fanatical party, taking advantage of the Sultan's anger, accused Saïd Pasha, the Turkish Prime Minister, of having caused the loss of Egypt to Turkey, and demanded his exile. On Tuesday the despatches stated that, though the Sultan had accepted Saïd Pasha's conditions for remaining in office—namely, the abandonment of the Austro-German alliance, the acceptance of accomplished facts in Egypt, and the reëstablishment of a good understanding between England and France on the Eastern question—yet the acceptance was only in principle, and that the Sultan really desires to frustrate Saïd Pasha's plans.

According to a Paris despatch to the London *Times* on Wednesday, Prince Bismarck, in a recent interview with a politician, said he believed England intended to secure a majority of the shares of the Suez Canal Company, so as to oust M. de Lesseps, and that she could do this by simply empowering trustees to invest trust moneys in the Canal shares. The *Times*, in discussing these suppositions, declares them to be unfounded, and believes that M. de Lesseps is more reasonable than might appear from his proceedings during the war.

The correspondent of the London *Times* at Berlin reports that the appointment of Count von Hatzfeldt to the Foreign Secretaryship has been definitely settled. Herr von Radowitz, Minister at Athens, will succeed him as Minister at Constantinople. It is considered by some persons that the appointment of Count von Hatzfeldt is an indication that he will eventually succeed Prince Bismarck, who is known to entertain the highest opinion of him.

In the Lower House of the Hungarian Reichstag, on Wednesday, Count Tisza, President of the Council, said that he had not ordered a state of siege to be declared in Pressburg (the scene of the recent Jewish riots), but that he had furnished the Commissioners with full powers to be used should any occasion arise, and added that in future, in case of necessity, he would again adopt measures similar to those taken to put down the riots against the Jews in Pressburg. He said that the movement might eventually degenerate into one of a socialistic character, and he declared he would never tolerate the perpetration of excesses. With a view to the settlement of the whole question, the Government had introduced measures revising the usury and trade laws.

A despatch from Tunis says that strong reinforcements have been sent to southern Tunis with the object of carrying on operations on a large scale against the insurgents during the cold season.

A despatch to the London *Standard*, from Athens, says that with the evacuation by the Turks of the position claimed by Greece, the difficulty between Turkey and Greece is regarded as terminated.

A despatch from Madrid says that at a Cabinet Council on Thursday, the Minister of Foreign Affairs announced that the negotiations for treaties of commerce with various nations were advancing, and that the basis of a treaty with Germany had been fixed. Spain, he said, entertained friendly sentiments toward England, but was unable to arrange an agreement for a treaty with that country.

The Madrid *Correspondencia* says that at a recent meeting of Carlists it was decided, in consequence of Don Carlos's course of life, to proclaim his son, Prince James, the head of the Spanish Legitimist party.

A despatch from Lima, dated October 11, states that the peace negotiations between the Chilian Government and Garcia Calderon, under the friendly offices of Dr. Logan, United States Minister to Chili, have failed. The rumors are that Señor Calderon will not listen to the proposals of Chili, and while Dr. Logan urged Chili to treat with Calderon, she preferred to treat with Pierola.

The German ship *Constantia* came in collision with the steamer *City of Antwerp* fourteen miles east of Eddystone Light on Tuesday, and both vessels sank. The despatch says that "all the *Constantia's* crew and four belonging to the *City of Antwerp* have been landed at Cardiff."

THE POLITICAL SITUATION.

THE Republican press all over the country is busily engaged in a sort of post-mortem examination of the Ohio case. Was it the temperance question that defeated the Republicans? And if it was not that alone, what was it? The facts, it seems to us, speak clearly enough. It was undoubtedly the temperance question and the interference with Sunday recreation which drove away from the Republican party many thousands of German voters who had formerly adhered to it with great fidelity, especially when the question of specie payments was in issue. The effect of this desertion was felt principally in the large cities. But it is generally admitted that this does not account for the large falling off in other districts where it might have been thought that an attitude in favor of temperance legislation would rather have strengthened the Republican side. What was the trouble there? Some say that it was the popular affection for Garfield, whose memory was not sufficiently respected by the present Administration and its friends. Others say that it was the appointment of Stalwarts to offices in the State which disgusted the Republicans generally. Still others say that the noise made by the newspapers about Mr. Hubbell's assessment operations told heavily against the Republican party. There is undoubtedly some truth in all these opinions. The manner in which Garfield's memory has been treated by the friends of the present Administration, in the press and elsewhere, has certainly offended the feelings of many Republicans, especially in Ohio. The preference given to Stalwart politicians in appointments to office was likewise against the general run of sentiment, and produced a similar effect. And as to the shamelessness with which assessments were levied upon public servants, we observed long ago that the scandal of this practice would drive away far more votes from the Republican party than all the money that might be raised by such a system of blackmailing could buy.

But it is certain that none of these things, nor a combination of them, would have driven so large a number of voters from the Republican ranks, had there been a great public question of overshadowing importance on which the voters would have felt compelled to take sides, and which would have made them overlook things of less immediate consequence. But there being no such issue, the ordinary Republican voter ceased to be impressed with the necessity of a party victory, and many thousands of them thought this an excellent time to punish the party for its shortcomings—a conclusion which some arrived at with regret, and others with a certain relish for the opportunity. Thus the temperance matter, the reviling of Garfield's memory, and the appointment of unpopular politicians became causes of great effects in Ohio, as the boss rule of the Camerons and the interference of the Administration with State affairs, and the Gould-Conkling combination, and "fraud and forgery" are causes working out similar effects in Pennsylvania and New York, while the assessment scandal is producing its impression everywhere. The fact is, that people have begun to care more for the effects of party rule than for the sanctity of party allegiance, or for the fortunes of the party itself. That this indifference to party as such should result in the heaviest blows against the party in power is but natural. It is also natural that it should in our case most largely affect the Republican party, for the Republican party contains the greatest proportion of independent elements.

On the whole, this is not an unhealthy condition of things at all. It is under such circumstances that people are most disposed to look at and to treat questions of public concern upon their own proper merits, unbiassed by mere party interest. And that is what the country really needs, although the professional politicians, whose only capital consists in their party standing, may not like it. One of the peculiar features of the present situation is that the shrewdest Democratic politicians are quite sincerely and seriously alarmed at the greatness of their success, and especially at the prospect of a large Democratic majority in the next House of Representatives. They fear lest the Democratic party, as on former occasions, when in possession of great power, will not know what to do with its opportunities; that it will again alarm the country by an injudicious use of its power, and, by forfeiting the confidence of the conservative citizen, destroy its chances for a Democratic victory in the Presidential election of 1884. This apprehension is well supported by past experience; and the fact that the shrewd Democratic politician is disquieted by it, shows that the independent spirit now prevailing is growing strong enough to become a cause of serious dread to party men on both sides. This condition of things usually precedes great changes in the grouping of political forces and new party formations, the advent of which would, we have no doubt, be hailed with great satisfaction by untold thousands of Republicans and Democrats alike.

A JOINT CANVASS.

MR. HOWARD CARROLL, the Republican candidate for Congressman-at-large in this State, showed the other night in his speech accepting his nomination a very refreshing sense of humor; and in what he said there was perhaps nothing really funnier than his offer to make a joint canvass of the State with General Slocum. To make a joint canvass the two candidates would have to stump the State, and debate the issues presented by the two parties before audiences composed of members of both. In theory this is all very well, but any one who takes the trouble to look into the two platforms to see what the "issues" are this year, will perceive at once that Mr. Carroll and General Slocum would have to take pretty much the same view of them all, a fact which would rob the canvass of the interest that as a joint canvass it ought to have.

The Republican view of civil-service reform, for instance, is that it should be placed "upon a popular basis by adequate legislation, so as to give facilities for the execution of the law upon the statute-book." (This includes, of course, the anti-assessment statute.) Mr. Carroll is, therefore, in favor of these things; but then so is General Slocum, for his platform calls for a "reform and purification of the civil service, and the forbidding by penal enactment" of the "levying of blackmail upon dependent officeholders."

Again, with regard to taxation, the view which Mr. Carroll must take under his platform is that every effort ought to be made "to bring taxation within the lowest practicable limit, and by the strictest system of economy to reduce governmental expense, and the number of those employed in the collection of the revenue, thus relieving the people of all unnecessary burdens." It might be imagined from the bold stand taken by the Republicans on this point, that the Democrats were in favor of making the taxes as heavy as possible. But, on the contrary, what they promise to do is "to reduce the amount of taxation to a sum sufficient only for the legitimate requirements of Government under an honest and frugal administration," and favor "such tariff and fiscal reforms as shall relieve an overtaxed people from all unnecessary burdens, and prevent the accumulation of a fund to be lavished in profligate legislation, and in the support of a horde of useless and idle placemen." There seems to be no real opportunity for a debate here.

Another point on which a debate might be carried on is the monopoly question. But here the Slocum view and the Carroll view are identical. What Mr. Carroll thinks is that "monopolies oppressing the people and unfairly discriminating against local interests are wrong in principle and should not be tolerated." But so does General Slocum; he is "in favor of the adoption of measures to restrict the growing power" of monopolies.

What does Mr. Carroll think about "primaries"? Why, that "stringent legislation shall be enacted to secure the purity and honesty of primary elections." If General Slocum were in favor of dishonest and impure primaries, there would be a fine opportunity for a debate here; but he is not: what he favors is "the speedy passage of general laws providing against fraud and intimidation at such elections." It would be as hard for them to debate this as it would for them to have a joint canvass on the canal question, with regard to which the Republican view is that the people of the State should "examine with intelligent care the constitutional amendments submitted to them," and "give full expression at the polls to their judgment and wishes thereon," while the Democrats "approve the submission to the vote of the people of the constitutional amendment in favor of free canals," and "have full confidence that they will dispose of it in such manner as to promote all the great interests of the State."

With regard to the River and Harbor Bill and the exercise by Governor Cornell of the veto power, both Republicans and Democrats take the same view—that one was bad and the other good; so that we must look still further to find materials for a joint canvass. So far as we can see from the platforms, Mr. Carroll would have to make his part of the debate consist of an "arraignment" of the Democratic party for its sympathy with secession, its "support of a slaveholders' rebellion," its connection with Tammany Hall, and its general wickedness, to which there are numerous

allusions in the platform; while General Slocum would have to "arraign" the Republicans for their extravagance, love of centralization, the Whiskey Ring, the Belknap case, etc., etc. But the trouble with this kind of joint canvass is, that the determination of the comparative culpability and insincerity of the two parties is such a vast and portentous matter that three weeks do not give time enough to settle it, and the debate would probably leave the audiences of General Slocum and Mr. Carroll in a quandary as to which of the two parties really was the worse, and whether, party for party, there is not the same sort of identity in wickedness that there seems to be in the principles professed; all of which would be very sad.

THE LOBBY AND THE BAR.

The New York Bar Association appointed a committee recently, on the motion of Mr. Simon Sterne, to consider a plan "for improving the methods of legislation of the State." Mr. Sterne made a speech in explanation of his plan, and the truth of what he said with regard to legislation at Albany—that "most of the legislators vote upon measures of the character of which they are grossly ignorant," that these are usually "couched in bad English," and that the work turned out at every session is decidedly inferior to that produced by the English Parliament—few people who have looked into the subject at all will be inclined to question.

It is not stated in the report of the meeting how far Mr. Sterne's committee proposes to go, but we presume that they will hardly content themselves with trying to reform the language in which bills are drawn up, but will, in addition to this, attempt to get some order and system introduced into the machinery of private legislation, the shocking condition of which is the effective cause of much of the worst work done at Albany, and not only at Albany, but more or less in every State capital; and at Washington more, perhaps, than anywhere else, because there no constitutional restrictions as to private bills, such as are in force in all the States, are met with. Albany, however, is nearer, there is less disguise about what goes on there, and we can see more plainly the evil with which we have to deal.

Three-quarters of the measures introduced every year at Albany are what are known as private or local bills, in which the public at large are not interested, which the newspapers do not discuss, and about which all the members of the Legislature, except those who represent the locality affected, are profoundly indifferent. This indifference is natural and unavoidable. A member of Assembly from Buffalo, for instance, does not and cannot be expected to understand such a question as that of the removal of the reservoir in this city; and, vice versâ, a member from New York cannot be expected to understand an elevated-railway question in Buffalo. If he were to devote his time and attention to the consideration of such questions, he would have no time for those which concern his own constituents or the public at large. He therefore leaves all the work and all the responsibility for such bills to the committee which has them in charge, and if those interested in any scheme or job can secure a favorable report, the bill, bad or good, is pretty sure to go through.

Now, the matter with which these bills are occupied generally relates to local property interests—questions of private right, disputes between corporations and those interested in their operations, etc.; and the questions involved are quite as much judicial as legislative. They cannot be altogether taken away from the Legislature and handed over to the courts (as has been done with many of them, such as the changing of names and the laying out of railroads), and with the Legislature they will remain, furnishing a constant incentive to and means of corruption, unless a reform in the methods of dealing with them can be effected.

The committees, of course, cannot decide the questions presented to them by these local bills without argument and evidence; and the lobby, of which we hear so much every year, is merely the body, largely composed of members of the bar, which performs this work for the committee. The lobby, therefore, must exist. A lobbyist is merely an attorney who appears before the legislative court called a committee, for or against a private bill; and if the products of lobbying—*i. e.*, private bills—are to be reformed, the first thing to be ascertained is how the judicial part of the work is done.

If we could imagine a court of justice in which the judges were changed every year; in which there was no regularly organized bar, but where any class, including criminals, could practise; where the sessions were not held regularly, but at the pleasure of the judges, without any notice to litigants except such as they chose to give; where there was nothing to prevent a judge from sitting in a case in which he was interested, and where rules of law and evidence were not binding, and there was not even any obligation to keep a record of the proceedings, we should hardly expect the decisions of such a court to be generally pure, or the bar practising before it to be a very decent body. Yet this is not an unfair picture of a legislative committee, and it shows conclusively in what direction reform ought to be undertaken. What is needed is the introduction, as far as may be, of judicial methods. This has been done in England, and, to a certain extent, in Massachusetts, and while it cannot of itself make the Legislature at Albany suddenly wise and good, it would unquestionably take away one opportunity for corruption.

The judicial investigation into private bills ought to be conducted before committees as far as possible under the restrictions imposed upon courts and upon the bar. No bill ought to be introduced affecting private interests without previous published notice, so as to give everybody interested an opportunity of appearing exactly as a party appears in court, and, where it is possible, proof of actual notice should be required. No lawyers should be permitted to come before the committee except duly admitted members of the bar, and no hearings should be had without notice to all parties in interest. Of course it will not do to expect too much from such reforms, but they could not but have, if permanently embodied in our system of legislation, some effect. They would, if nothing more, diminish the secrecy which now surrounds the business of private legislation, and which is a fruitful source of corruption. The exclusion of perfectly irresponsible persons from practice before the committees would make the position of reputable lawyers who have to go before them better, and the mere fact of the existence of a system in the matter would make it harder to get jobs through. For this purpose, however, the passage of a constitutional amendment seems absolutely necessary. A law would be of no binding force if committees chose to disregard it; while a constitutional amendment would make the new system compulsory, exactly as the Constitution now renders compulsory the separate readings of bills, and their passage in certain cases by a fixed majority. It is very true that in England the changes we have mentioned have been introduced as a matter of practice, and without any particular external pressure. But we know by experience that from such a body as one of our legislatures it would be idle to expect this. The Legislature at Albany does not introduce reforms into its own practice of its own accord. For the benighted and barbarous legislative practices prevailing at Albany, which often result in enactments that would shock the sense of justice of a tribe of savages, reform can only be secured by constitutional restrictions; and there is no better work for the Bar to undertake, and none in which it has a more direct interest, than that which we have suggested.

THE FRENCH MINISTRY AND THE SOCIALISTS.

M. Duclerc, the French Prime Minister, whose name is, owing to the curious condition of French politics, probably unknown to the great majority of our readers, and, one might perhaps add, to the great majority of Frenchmen, was interviewed by a correspondent of a Swiss newspaper lately. What the correspondent wished to find out, apparently, was why M. Duclerc had taken office, and what he proposed to do in office. He said, in substance, that he had taken office because the President, who was an old friend of his, could find no one else to take it, and was in a position of great perplexity. No one who was ever supposed capable of forming a ministry would undertake the task. Gambetta could not; Busson could not; Jules Ferry dared not. So M. Duclerc undertook it out of pure friendship.

What had he to do when he took office? Well, he found France threatened in her peace and security by a sort of alliance between Austria, Germany, Russia, and Italy. He had removed the distrust which brought this about. But what was his programme as regarded home politics? Simply the maintenance of an attitude of "active vigilance" toward the Anarchist agitators in some of the departments, whose performances, if allowed to go on unchecked, would furnish the Bonapartists and Legitimists with the means of restoring their failing fortunes. As an illustration of the extremes to which these Anarchists are prepared to go, he mentioned the wholesale desecration of churches which had taken

place in Montceau-les-Mines, and also a recent Socialist meeting in Paris, consisting of one hundred and fifty members, at which he (M. Duclerc) was condemned to death by a vote of 148 to 2. He further alleged that there was a close alliance between the Extreme Left and the Extreme Right of the Chamber, both of whom, in spite of their wide differences of opinion on almost every question of government, were united in their desire to make the moderate and conservative Republic impossible.

It would seem, however, if we may judge from the account given of the proceedings of the Socialists in the newspapers, as if there never had been a time, since they first made their appearance in France, when they were so harmless and produced so little effect on the public mind. So that one cannot help feeling that M. Duclerc, in trying to account for his presence in office, was forced to conjure up a danger which really did not exist. The Russian disease of Nihilism has undoubtedly made its appearance in France, but the Frenchman has not the silent, secretive, and terrible resolution which the Slav conceals under his sentimental, fair-haired, blue-eyed exterior. He cannot bear to be a Nihilist and have nobody know of it. Accordingly, the "Anarchists," as the French Nihilists call themselves, are much more occupied in threatening society from the platform than with making mines to blow people up, or arranging for assassination. They condemned M. Duclerc to death, but it was at a public meeting. Their Russian confrères would have made private arrangements to have him shot in the street.

The Socialists can hardly be said to have reappeared on the surface in France until the meeting of the Workingmen's Congress at Havre in 1880. They then found that body, like the Trades Unions in England, too practical and businesslike, and too much occupied with things which seemed easily attainable, and they accordingly withdrew and began an agitation of their own, which is a good deal more absurd than anything of the kind that has hitherto been carried on in France. Since then they have split into four sects, of which the two principal ones are the "Collectivistes-révolutionnaires-possibilistes," which we presume means Revolutionary Collectivists-at-the-earliest-possible-moment; and the pure Anarchists, whose chief, Bordat, acknowledges only one instrument of reform—dynamite. He does not explode or overthrow abuses; he explodes the persons who support them and the offices in which they transact their business. The Collectivists have a regular official hierarchy, and have to work under the authority of a council. The Anarchists, on the other hand, are so many individuals, acknowledging each no authority but his own will, and applying dynamite only to such persons as they individually think deserving of it. The contempt of the Anarchists for the Collectivists, we need hardly say, baffles expression. The former, too, have just been split into two at a Congress they have been holding at St.-Étienne. There has for some time existed two groups among them, or "nuances," as the French call them, or shades of opinion, as we should say. One is the Shade Malon, and the other the Shade Guesde—the names of their respective chiefs. The latter have an organ called the *Égalité*, and have been revolting against the party, and have been accordingly expelled by a formal and very diverting decree, in which all persons are warned against becoming their "dupes." The Shade Guesde have replied by a manifesto in which they denounce their enemies with equal vigor, and recall the fact that they are the not unworthy successors of the dissidents who broke with the Barberetists at the Congress of Havre, and that they have once already testified their devotion to the cause by breaking with the Possibilists at the Congress of the National Circus; and they call upon all who are not willing to be the dupes of Opportunism to join their ranks, and open a new Congress of their own. The schism was not accomplished without a severe scrimmage in the hall, in which clothes were torn—one of the orators losing a very important portion of his trousers—and such epithets as "blackguard," "lunatic," and "drunkard" were freely interchanged. Order was not restored until the police, whose total abolition forms part of the Collectivist programme, had been called in. It will thus be seen that the watching of these reformers is not a task which seems to call for a Cabinet made up *ad hoc*. A few policemen are evidently equal to the work.

THE FORESTS OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

CENSUS Forestry Bulletins Nos. 13, 19, 20, and 21 treat of the Forests of the Pacific Coast. No. 13, which appeared some months ago, is devoted to the redwood forest which stretches in a narrow belt along the California Coast, from the northern boundary of the State to below the Bay of Monterey. This is perhaps the most interesting of the whole series. It illustrates a forest of no great area, to be sure, as compared with other forest regions, but unequalled in the scientific curiosity with which it has always been regarded, and in its economic value. It is certainly the most important piece of tree growth of its extent now standing. Few trees equal the redwood in economic value, and no other forest at all equals it in productive capacity, while none on this Continent is as accessible, or, on the whole, as easily worked. Immediately north and south of the Bay of San Francisco, as is shown by Professor Sargent's map, the redwood has already disappeared, and through the whole extent of the forest the axe has long been busy. The most easily reached trees have disappeared. Fire and browsing animals have preyed upon it far and wide; and the Californians, in their methods of lumbering and total disregard of the value, present and future, of forest property, have surpassed in folly even the lumbermen of the East. It is estimated that this forest contained, two years ago, some twenty-five billion feet of accessible lumber; less, indeed, than the white pine which stood at that time in the State of Wisconsin alone, but still a very large amount in proportion to the annual consumption, which is below 200 million feet. But when it is remembered that more than ten billion feet of white pine are now cut every year in the United States, that the whole supply must, at even the present rate of production, entirely disappear in the course of a few years, and that the redwood is the best and really the only substitute for white pine, the entire extermination of this forest as a source of lumber supply can be predicted with entire confidence. Its value to the country certainly cannot be overestimated; and as a piece of property worth, in dollars and cents, more than all the gold California has ever produced, the redwood forest should, apart from the higher and more important public considerations which make forest preservation a public necessity, be jealously husbanded and carefully worked.

No. 19 covers the whole State of California, and Nos. 20 and 21, Oregon and Washington Territory. No attempt is made to estimate the amount of timber of any sort standing in these States outside of the redwood belt, but the relative average density of the different forest regions is shown on the accompanying maps, which well illustrate the effect of moisture upon forest growth, and show, for the first time, we believe, clearly and authoritatively the position and relative importance of the Pacific forests.

We need not now discuss at any length the value of the Sierra forests, the only forests in California, outside of the redwood belt, of more than local importance. These forests are dense, varied, and valuable. At several points on both sides of the mountains they have been long worked, but no organized attack has ever been made upon them, except, indeed, by sheep. Their isolated and elevated position seems to protect them from the logger, who will not climb the Sierras as long as more accessible and more tempting fields of operation remain to him. Such fields he will find in western Washington and in Oregon. From the summits of the Cascade range to the shores of the Sound and the ocean extends the greatest body of coniferous timber man has ever known. In Washington, too, east of the mountains, especially along the northern boundary of the Territory, the forest is heavy, extensive, and locally of great value. Eastern Oregon is almost destitute of forest. The territory occupied by these coast forests within the United States is not relatively large, although beyond the British boundary they extend far north, but somewhat reduced in density and quality. In average density of forest growth, however, no territory of equal extent at all equals it, although small areas of redwood certainly contain more lumber to the acre.

Words can hardly convey an idea of this great forest. Immense trees, often more than 300 feet in height, stand so close together that a man can hardly push his way between them. Undergrowths of prodigious size and luxuriance render locomotion slow and laborious. Fires and the axe have hardly left a mark upon this forest, although fearful fires rage through it nearly every year, and Puget Sound has long been the seat of important lumbering operations. But so quickly do these forests spring up, and without, too, any change of species marking, as in other parts of the country, the sites of former fires, that Nature quickly heals here at least the wounds man makes in the earth's tree covering. This region, taken as a whole, is not particularly suited for agriculture, and the hold which the forest has upon the soil is so firm that agriculture will never succeed in permanently throwing it off. Trees, as fast as they are cut, grow again, and this region seems destined to remain forest-clad, and to furnish a supply of lumber, long after the original forest growth of Eastern America shall have entirely disappeared.

But this Northwest forest excels only in productiveness. It sadly lacks variety of composition, and possesses no tree of the general utility of either the white pine or the redwood. The red or yellow fir forms a very large part of the forest growth of this region; and this is undoubtedly the timber tree of the future. It grows from British Columbia to Mexico, and from the Pacific to Dakota and New Mexico; and probably largely outnumbers any of our other valuable trees. The nature, then, of the lumber which this fir yields is of general importance and interest. Its

great value cannot be doubted. It is a strong, durable, resinous wood, difficult to work, and better suited to purposes of outside construction than for domestic use. It approaches, but does not equal, in character and quality the hard pine of the South Atlantic States; but it cannot enter into competition with white pine or redwood. In certain qualities the red fir surpasses them both, although destitute of others which make these woods, all things considered, the most generally useful products of our forests. The Pacific forests contain other species of value, but, with the exception of the Port Orford cedar of the Oregon coast and the Tide Water spruce, none yield what may be called domestic woods—that is, woods suited to domestic architecture. The Pacific forests, too, contain no hard woods. No future supply of oak or ash or hickory lies hidden in these untrodden forests, which can long supply the world with its masts and bridge timbers and railroad ties, but which can neither furnish a decent axe-handle nor a wagon-spoke.

The relations of the Pacific forest to the future development and prosperity of the nation are now so important that their careful preservation and management, in view of the almost certain destruction of the forests in other parts of the country, have become a matter of wide public interest; and we shall take occasion, at an early opportunity, to discuss more in detail the questions of national import which the condition and position of these forests involve.

COPYRIGHT ADMINISTRATION.

ANY paper upon this subject should begin with the statement that copyrights are of two kinds. The first is that variety known to, and protected by, the law. The second is made possible only by the existence of the first, and is in most cases nominally a violation of the law; but this violation is not always attended with risk, and the "copyright" thus obtained affords all the protection needed for some kinds of publications. It consists in simply printing the version of "Trespassers beware, etc.," prescribed by the copyright law, and as most persons know no test for distinguishing the counterfeit coin from the real, it may pass unchallenged. It is used chiefly by the publishers of periodicals, who form the class that finds the most fault with the operation of the law, which, though loosely worded, and affording very inadequate protection to some interests (the dramatic, for instance), probably gives more general satisfaction than that of any other country. These publishers are always anxious to copyright their "titles," and find it very difficult to comprehend the fact that the law does not, in any case, authorize the copyrighting of a title, but only of a specific work.

To effect this, a title of some sort (a figure is constructively a title) is necessary, but though it may, so to speak, be the soul of the work, it has no legal existence apart from the body. To obtain *legal* copyright, therefore, every number of a periodical, every variety of a photograph, etc., must be entered; but the title may be registered as a trade-mark (at the Patent-office), and the contents, if of only temporary value, would be sufficiently protected by the scarecrow copyright described above. Though generally, as above said, in violation of the law, this is sometimes obtained by neatly evading it. This can be done when the title of the journal admits literal or symbolical illustration. The illustration may be entered as an engraving, and the scarecrow, at small expense, obtain a legal existence.

But the scarecrow copyright is extensively used by publishers who have no thought of saving their pennies, and who comply with all the formalities of the law. As the Copyright-office is only a place of record, and not, as the Patent-office is, a place in which the validity of a claim is examined, any claim, if properly presented, goes at once on record. Hence, in printing a claim, though he may know it to be a fraudulent one, a publisher does not violate the law, provided actual entry is made; and as copyright claims are generally taken at their face value, possible competitors (especially in the case of books whose first term has expired) may be effectually warned off.

There are few publishers who are not occasionally careless in dealing with the Copyright-office, and some are habitually so. Often this carelessness is due to the belief that if there is no intent to evade the law, the title to a work will hold good in spite of informalities. But this is an error. Courts have almost invariably insisted on a strict fulfilment of the statutory provisions, sometimes deciding in favor of parties whose action was morally indefensible. For the validity of a copyright title, all the requirements of the law must be complied with.

One of the conditions of a valid entry is that the title shall be entered before publication. But in fact, the entry is sometimes not made at all; oftener it is made after publication; and it is worth while for publishers to remember that the records of copyright are not a secret between the publisher and the officials, but a question about a specified entry is answered—by whomever made; the Copyright-office, like that of Patents, being an office of public record. It is probable that, if inquiry were made, the titles to many pieces of more or less valuable literary property would be found to be void. But failure to enter the title, or to enter it at the proper time, is by no means the only omission sometimes made by experienced publishers. The law requires that every book shall bear the announcement of copyright by A. B., 18—. Through inattention to this, C. D., on purchasing from A. B. his rights, substitutes his name for that of the original claimant. Under such circumstances, C. D. would evidently have no case against an infringer. A serious defect in the law, as illustrated by judicial decisions, is that it provides inadequate means of proving the completion of a copyright entry (without which the copyright is void) by the deposit of two copies. The law provides that a postmaster shall, if requested, give a receipt for copies intended to perfect copyright. But the courts have decided that this receipt is insufficient evidence of deposit. Inasmuch, however, as the object of the deposit of copies is to establish the fact of publication, and as this will be sufficiently attested by the postmaster's signature, and as, furthermore, copies are frequently lost in the mail and the copyright thereby rendered void (since it is sometimes impossible for the publisher to learn of the non-arrival and send duplicates within the time prescribed), it seems as if an act should be passed, definitely declaring what was probably the idea of the framers of the law.

In conclusion, a word or two relating to the purely business rules of the Office may not be out of place. A *printed* title is required for the copyright files, and a *separate* title for every entry. Some publishers of periodicals and similar works waste their time, when summoned to send the printed title required by law, in explaining that their titles are alike except for the number of the volume, etc. But if the variation is sufficient to require separate entry, it is great enough to make necessary a separate title. But it is never necessary, though often done, to send two copies of a title-page. The facilities for intercourse with the Copyright-office by post are seldom fully appreciated. The Post-office carries *all* copyright matter free, if covered by the printed franks which are furnished on application; and works intended to complete copyright will be franked on demand by any postmaster. Nor is there any limit of size or weight for parcels so offered.

FROM MEXICO TO ACAPULCO.—II.

ITURBIDE was a subject of discussion between the Colonel and myself as we jogged along the trail, and this naturally led to Maximilian. The Colonel had served under Escobedo in the final campaign in which Maximilian was overthrown, and had witnessed his execution at the tragic Cerro de las Campanas. "He died like a soldier," said the Colonel. "He was not afraid, though he deserved his fate, and I would not have had it otherwise." It seems the general verdict that this ill-starred prince was not without the physical fortitude traditionally a part of the inheritance of princes. But he was of a gentle character, better fitted for the arts of peace, for improving the parks, rebuilding Chapultepec, and befriending antiquarian researches, than for encountering the tigerish opposition with which he was met upon his abandonment by the French. I drew the conversation, when an opening appeared, to the present novel relation of our own country to Mexico.

"Had I held the authority," said the Colonel frankly, "I would never have granted the railroad charters which are making this great bustle. I fear the aggressions of you Americans. The conservative Mexican policy is to grant such privileges to Americans only when balanced by others to Europeans. This was the consistent policy of Juarez and Lerdo. It was Porfirio Diaz, during his Presidency, who first broke it down and brought this invasion upon us."

"We make it one of his merits," I said, "and a proof of superior enlightenment. He stepped out of the boundaries of narrow prejudice and jealousy, and allowed a beginning to be made of developing the country by those who stood ready to do it, without waiting further for those who did not care to."

"His enemies say he was bought," rejoined the Colonel, who had no love for "Don Porfirio." "He has not been wholly above corruption in his time. He made fabulous sums out of the liquidation of military arrears, for instance. He paid a million dollars for a magnificent hacienda in the State of Oaxaca. Where did that come from? It is a great weakness among us—official corruption. There are too many examples. A defaulting person in a high place is rarely punished. When I see a case of that kind treated with severity I shall begin to conceive a new hope."

"But," I argued, "the Americans have no designs in the proceedings you fear, but a mutual commercial profit. They do not want your country. What Americans have anything to gain by taking it? Who will put his hand in his pocket to pay the expenses of a war of annexation? We Americans look out for ourselves very much as individuals, and we fail to see where the profit would come in. We are large enough now to gratify our lurking vanity. Love of glory and territorial aggrandizement is not one of our national traits. The spoliation you fear would rather be at the hands of some ambitious princes, if you had such for neighbors, who could turn it to personal account."

"You will not annex us with bayonets," insisted my companion; "you will annex us with the dollar. I feel it; I know it. Your great commercial enterprises will insensibly get hold of the vitals of the country, and the rest will follow. Perhaps there may be disturbances, and your Government be called in to protect the property of these investors. There will naturally be sympathy for them at home, and they will move heaven and earth rather than lose it. A

thousand times better, then, that our country had not been developed at all!"

As I still insisted upon the unreasonableness of this notion, the Colonel continued: "Granting that you are sincere in what you say of the present attitude of your people, I feel that it is the manifest destiny of Mexico to be taken by the United States. I admit to you that in former times the Latin races ruled the world, but that in this and the coming ages the Saxon will do it. You are strong and a commercial people, and commerce is as the breath in the nostrils of modern life. Look at what you have done in California since it has ceased to be a Spanish province. I have been in San Francisco—a great, splendid city that I looked at with amazement. Yes, you will get us. It will cause the amelioration of many abuses, and our greater prosperity, without doubt; but I hope I shall never live to see the day. As a patriot, as a soldier, I would give my life fifty times over rather than consent."

"But since you concede such benefits," I ventured to say, "what is this patriotism upon which you so strongly insist? We do not want you, and have no designs upon you, but—purely for the sake of argument, and talking as enlightened persons of modern times—is it not very fantastic? Is a boundary line such an object in itself? May not a good deal that has stood for patriotism in the past be mere provincial narrowness? Supposing, as a mere speculation, that Mexico or Canada, without force, but in its own judgment of what was for the best good of its people, should desire to become a part of the Union, maintaining its organization in States and its local self-government as now, and merely sending delegates to Washington to represent it in national affairs, would you, as a Mexican citizen, feel yourself bound to resist as if it were the consummation of something scandalous and recreant? Is not the enjoyment of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness to the greatest advantage the object of a rational being? Is there a virtue in an essential Mexicanism, Americanism, or Anglicism, that it should be preserved at all hazards?"

And having asked many like questions, I endeavored further to make plain a belief that we are approaching a great cosmopolitan period when we shall all be members of a republic of nations, and when foreigners, as such, will no longer be either dreaded or despised.

"That is all very well," said the Colonel, stubbornly, "since the advantage is to fall on your side; but I tell you I would give my heart's blood rather than let it happen."

As to the virtue of the prognostication, I have no opinion; but the seriousness of the conviction about the plans of the Americans from such a source was full of interest. It is held by the bulk of the Mexican people, and it means trouble ahead for the enterprises, since it must increase with their very prosperity.

"Has any party been formed in favor of annexation?" I asked.

"There is no such party," he replied. "There are no persons who could favor it—unless, singularly enough, it might be a portion of the Church party, who, Protestant country though you are, with you could enjoy greater freedom. Here, since their suppression under the War of the Reform, there can be no convents, religious orders, or monastic schools, but in the United States, I understand, they could have as many as they wished."

The Colonel was rather fond, as above, of dwelling upon the professional soldier's point of view. He had, too, his moods of a gloom which I do not wish to speak of with disrespect. One day he was writing to his mother. "It is the only tie that binds me to life," he said. "At forty-four, as you see me, I have passed through many disappointments and chagrins. I have little pleasure in the present and no great hopes in the future. Well, that is, perhaps, a proper enough state of mind in the army. A soldier," he went on to say, "should be either a person who sets little value upon life, and looks to death as a release, or one having a supreme sense of honor, of pride in his profession, of duty to his government. He makes this contract, as it were, with the authority to which he owes allegiance. He is well paid and highly considered. In return, he must be ready to spill his blood to any extent whenever the employer chooses to demand it."

The display of childish selfishness on my companion's part of which I have spoken, was in getting up one morning and coolly riding off on my horse. He had cast his eyes upon it as we went along, judged it to be on the whole preferable to his mule, and so in this direct way took possession. I had directly bargained for it, however, and this was not to be permitted. The matter was adjusted presently, but not till it had assumed at one time almost an international aspect. It was in the coolness resulting at first from this incident that I rode on alone and entered Iguala. The expedition had stopped, after its usual day's march, before sunset, at the tropical hamlet of Platanillo. I was anxious, however, to pass the night instead in the notable little city. The twilights shut down very rapidly here, and from the estimates of casual informants I had somewhat miscalculated the distance. "Adelantito, Señor," they said after the inaccurate way of such informants—"Just a little way ahead"; "Aca, bajito, no mas—Right down there, a mere trifle, that is all." I had a distant glimpse or two of it from the pass while the sun glowed like a beacon fire on the crests of vast mountains encompassing the valley. A small lake sparkled in its vicinity, and plantations of cane showed their brighter green. Of the town, which might have been a mammoth hacienda, only a dome and a few white spots appeared from the midst of a quadrangle of foliage cut off on all sides to an even line. Then night came on, and a dark and cloudy one, though without rain. My horse slipped with me on the declivity, over rolling stones. It was no longer safe to ride him after that, and I led him most of the way, picking out the path in the dark. The distance had been very deceptive, and we had many miles to go. We passed many lonely gulches, brooks, and bits of wood. Cows had gone to sleep in upland pastures, and one occasionally loomed up a mysterious shape from the path and took herself out of the way. The rays of a clouded moon occasionally showed a white spot of the small lake, but the city seemed to have vanished out of existence. At last, however, a dim light in its dome. All this time not a house nor a cabin. The barking of dogs, and voices, became audible. It was toward nine o'clock. We came to the formal line of trees, opened a gate in it, and were in the midst of Iguala. I do not know whether the place had quite advantages enough to offset the discomfort, since what there is to be seen could easily have been seen the next day during the regular nooning on the march. There is no other tangible vestige of Iturbide yielded to inquiry than the house in which the Plan of Iguala is said to have been signed. It is perhaps the oldest, as it is one of the shabbiest, in the place. It is of one story, like most provincial Mexican houses, with the whitewash badly rubbed off its adobes, and is now the site of a small *fonda*, or restaurant, without so much as a sign.

But the town around it was charming. A row of clean white colonnades, of solid square pillars, supporting red-tiled roofs, extends around the central plaza. The windows of the better residences are closed, instead of with glass, by projecting wooden gratings formed of turned posts and painted green. The market, a little paved plaza by itself, opening from the other, is a series of double colonnades, and is light, commodious, and very attractive. I recollect having been struck in the same way—of all places in the world—by the market at the once blood-thirsty Tlascala, there a series of isolated pavilions. The church at Iguala, of a noble massive form, made gay by an azure belfry and clockface, stands in a grassy enclosure surrounded by posts and chains. Across the way is the zocalo, a little park, with its brick benches, deep grateful shade of *tamarindos* as large as elms, and arbors of sweet peas in blossom. I could conscientiously recommend such a park, such a church, and such a market to any population in the world. The heads of palm-trees star the heavier northern-looking foliage. Grass sprouts plentifully between the cobble-stones, which gives a pleasing rural air. A band played in the zocalo in the evening, though there was not much walking about. As I was attempting a hurried sketch in the portal of what proved to be a school, some very well-dressed young men and their professor came out, and asked me what it was for, and called me in a rather patronizing way "Amigo" (My friend).

Chilpancingo, three days further on, is another small city to which complimentary terms—in a somewhat lesser measure than to Iguala—might be applied. It is the capital of this rugged State of Guerrero—named after the patriot general, once, like our Marcos and Vincente Lopez, a muleteer—who concluded the convention with Iturbide. It contains an ornate Government-house, a zocalo with a music-stand; and we met there a colonel of the detachment of cavalry guarding the country, gotten up in such dapper civilian riding-dress as if for a promenade in Central Park. Population—but populations are hard to get in Mexico. I should say, at random, that either place might have about 3,000 people. At Chilpancingo, too, you may see the place in which the original Declaration of Independence of Mexico was proclaimed, in 1813, for it had to be fought for long years before the day of Iturbide. It is merely a white house with a tablet, and not of further interest. It was a wild and problematic cause, truly, when remote Chilpancingo had to be resorted to by the first constituent congress, to throw off the yoke of Spain. But how is it all done? These little bits of ornate civilization are like the enchanted places of the legends, which we have happened upon by penetrating the fastnesses of insuperable mountains. Perhaps one had better take out a commission as Adelantado of the Seven Cities at once; and yet greater surprises may await further research. Each of them lies in its miniature valley, smiling and fertile, and wagon roads extend for a little space around them; but their inhabitants can never be conceived as going over the lonesome, wild trail to either extremity to supply themselves with fashions and comforts. Candid judges from elsewhere, if asked to look at this trail, would pronounce it impassable, and probably think it a practical joke that they were asked to consider it a road. We crossed and recrossed swift, small streams, shoulder high to the animals, continually. The Colonel dangled his military boots in the water to let me see how excellently they were made; but one night he could not get them off, and the next morning he could not get them on. All one day we traversed the cañada, or gorge, of Cholitla, over a sandy track of which the flood had not yet taken possession; another day, the Cañada del Zopilote. Our old friend of New York streets, the ailanthus, was common where the other features were dreariest, and its sickening odor often filled the air insufferably. The

three transverse rivers were swollen and turbulent, as we had been told. When we came down to the wide Mescala, it was opaque with red soil, and tearing past at a speed, as it seemed, of twenty miles an hour. We were to be transported in a flat skiff guided by an oar. There was no plank to aid in embarking the horses, and one of them fell into a panic which caused a terrific combat of nigh half an hour. He was finally thrown on board with lassoed legs, more dead than alive. "Ah, what a soul you have!" (*Ah, que alma tienes!*) cried Marcos to the terrified animal, who had well-nigh kicked us all into the river. Losing all policy in his rage, he called upon me for my revolver that he might despatch such a brute, of the ownership of which he was ashamed. The Papagallo River, succeeding, we crossed in a dugout, and the animals swam.

I asked the Colonel, in my simplicity, if this were not more or less like war—the kind of travel, our foraging, half open-air way of sleeping, and the like. He smiled in disdain, and gave me a sketch of his campaigns in the day of the French usurpation, when the rightful Government had so little foothold in the country that it was called the Government of Paso del Norte, from the furthest town on the northern frontier. Eating and sleeping seemed hardly to have been the custom at all till, by an unremitting guerrilla warfare, the tide was turned. When we came to the Cajones, however, he admitted that this was a little like war. We slipped and slid all one day down the Cajones—natural, or rather most woefully unnatural, steps in the solid rock, in the midst of a dark forest. The perpendiculars are three and four feet at least, and often there are mud-holes at the bottom, and vines that aim to take the traveller under the chin. It was wonderful to see the sagacious steadiness of the pack-mules, picking their steps unaided in the most critical situations. We met peons in white cotton coming up with barrels of ardent spirits on their shoulders, and we came to a full stop to allow the passage of jingling mule-trains of goods. The water ran in the path with us, sharing by courtesy its right of way. At one place it seemed to increase on every side, so that the wood was full of its murmurs, as if the deluge had come again. It was full, too, of patches of pale-green light, full of moss-covered stones and limpid pools and delicate ferns like snow-crystal shapes turned vegetable; and white cascades showed among the trees in ghostly fashion, like apparitions of Undine.

Among the vegetable growths we saw on the way was the gum-copal, a tree not unlike the white birch. There was a tree, the *cuahuete*—if I may trust my rendering of the pronunciation of Marcos—which was smooth and bronze-like, and often of a repulsive red, as if full of blood. There was a good deal of a charming red and yellow flower on a high bush, in shape like a butterfly, and once or twice a sprig of heliotrope and a calla lily. The *amape*, found in the villages, somewhat like the chestnut, was the finest shade-tree. There was a notable absence throughout the journey of the essential tropical features. Very often one might as well have been riding in the woods of Connecticut. There was not even a rank luxuriance of growth, just as there were no serpents nor the swarms of pestiferous insects, other than a few gnats, that might have been expected. We saw once a couple of coyote wolves trotting demurely along, and again a large iguana, a harmless reptile, which I noted later gliding around an old bronze gun at the castle at Acapulco. Birds I hardly recollect at all, except a white heron or two, reflected charmingly in an upland pool one early morning, and the *tecuses*, a kind of blackbird, which Vincente pelted with small stones, by way of trying his aim. The organ-cactus, however, should be exempted from the complaint of a want of tropicalness. It abounds thickly about the gorges and on the mountain slopes. The plants, rising to twenty-five feet in height, are like the seven-branched candlestick of the Mosaic law, or, if unsubdivided, like the spears of the gods shot straight down and quivering in the earth. The fan-palm, too, must be excepted. It crops out on the bleak hillsides as common as mullein-stalks. I can never respect it in conservatories again. To see it thus at first was a kind of shock: it was like seeing some perfected belle of society turned (say) to minding sheep. For a day before reaching the coast there were cocoanut-palms. It may be remarked that nobody in the hamlets would get the fruit down from the trees except on a wholesale order or for munificent prices, which brought the cost far above what it would have been in New York. There was often a shortage of other fruits and commodities, as sugar, in this way, in or near the very places where they were growing.

It must not be represented that the Colonel was always of an oppressively serious carriage. On the contrary, he developed a vein of humor which was the more amusing from the general good faith of those at whose expense it was exercised. "Do you charge no more than this—to persons of our consideration, my good woman?" he said to a peasant, whose bill was in fact modest, though in keeping with the primitive nature of the accommodations. "It is a species of affront, as one might say, considering that I am a colonel in the army, and this gentleman, etc., etc. When travellers of our position come this way again, understand that double is the least you should take." The woman, abashed, received double her fee, and will no doubt bear the lesson in mind for the benefit of future travellers as directed. Meeting three honest-faced Indian maids with pitchers on their heads going to the spring, he thought good to say, "Good-day, Marias!" but turning to me, in an aside, as they passed on, continued: "Not that I know, from Adam, whether they are Marias or not, and perhaps we need not greatly care." Again, he praised most glaringly, to her face, the exceeding comeliness of a servant-maid who wore gold ear-rings and a necklace, and in other respects was perhaps not of more than the average dumpiness and plainness. She waited on us at table at Tierra Colorada. The Colonel desired to know her name. It was Victoria. "Well are you named Victoria," he cried with enthusiasm, implying that we succumbed to her power. "Que cara simpatica! (what a sympathetic face!)" he exclaimed frequently. The people receive this seriously, and do not suspect raillery. To each one of his compliments the maid replied meekly, "Mil gracias (a thousand thanks), Señor." "Give thanks rather to God who made you so," rejoined the Colonel piously, "and not to us, who but recognize it."

At La Venta de Peregrino the night was hot, and it still rained, after having rained all day. A garden of bananas twenty feet tall grew next to the basket-like house of canes where we stopped. We hung up our wet garments and properties under the poles of the thatched porch or pavilion till it resembled one of those very national establishments, the pawn-shops. Dogs, cats, donkeys, horses, pigs, and fowls—shooed out, when they became too familiar, with an emphatic Ooch-t!—gathered under the same shelter, as if it had been a Noah's ark. We supped on pepper-sauce, tough chicken, frijoles, tortillas, cream-cheese, and coffee without milk, spread out upon a mat on the ground. The proprietor in person, a man in an embroidered shirt and cotton drawers, whose talk was not of the wisest sort, held pitch-pine splints to light the feast.

"Now, how does it happen, hombre," inquired the Colonel, as if in a speculative way, "that a person of your fine appearance; a person of manners, intelligence, education, hospitality; a statesman, as one might say, who goes to Dos Arroyos to see who is going to be elected mayor [the man had been there that day, as he told us], with a fine house like this—how does it happen, I say, that you have not a table of any sort to serve two travellers a supper upon?"

"*Pos bien*," said the illiterate host, both pleased and flustered, scratching his head. "Tables? yes, tables, now to be sure. All that you say is very true, but there is a great scarcity of carpenters in this part of the country. *Si, escasen muncho*—Yes, they are mighty scarce, I can tell you."

Two days after this, we came down to Acapulco, a straggling town of thirty-five hundred people, with no vestiges of its antiquity but the old Spanish fort. Near the fort lay a couple of rusted rails in position on a bit of washed-out embankment, the beginning of a railroad inaugurated here with a flourish on the 5th of May, 1881. Having passed over the route, one would judge that it might be very much more than dread of American invasion which would prevent its speedy completion.

W. H. B.

CONTINENTAL VIEWS OF ENGLISH POLICY.

LONDON, October 5, 1882.

ENGLISHMEN are accustomed to remark (and the same reflection must often occur to American travellers) how much more like the great countries of Europe are to each other than any of them is to England. It is not merely because we are strangers in all of them that they seem to us to present greater contrasts to England than they do to each other, for really many points in which there is a sort of solidarity, likeness of ideas, and power of understanding one another one may notice as existing between Frenchmen, Germans, Italians, Scandinavians; whereas England remains a little world by herself, whose insularity in character, manners, and even in political ideas, has been wonderfully little affected by the facility of communication which brings so many foreigners among us and scatters our tourists over the whole of Europe. Certainly one never can open a French or German newspaper and read its comments on English affairs without being struck with the total want of insight it displays. It is not merely so much that these papers judge us severely as that they misconceive us altogether. Their praise is as likely to be misplaced as their blame. You in America, on the other hand, though of course we should often dispute your criticisms, have got the right point of view. You understand English character, and the notions which lie at the bottom of an Englishman's political doctrines, because those notions are in the main your own. We are therefore usually instructed, even if sometimes nettled, by your remarks upon us, while Continental judgments only amuse us. There is, therefore, nothing to surprise Englishmen in the misrepresentations of our policy in Egypt which abound in the Continental press. The view of England which prevailed in Europe thirty years ago represented her as a preëminently selfish and rapacious Power, sordid in her aims, which were chiefly those of extending her commerce; bold and violent in carrying them out by seizing something for herself wherever she got a chance. The acquisition of Gibraltar, of Malta, and other

colonies, as well as the conquest of India, were taken as proofs of this spirit. We were the Carthaginians of the modern world. The security which the Channel and our naval supremacy gave us, made us envied, and the envy remained even when the policy of interference and annexation seemed to have ceased. Our wealth, our impunity from revolutions, the fact that we had no conscription and a small standing army, made the Continental nations envious of us, and no doubt made us disagreeably self-complacent toward them.

From the time when the Ionian Islands were given up by us, and suffered to join the Greek Kingdom, a new view of English foreign policy began to spread on the Continent. This act of renunciation was subsequent to the development of the doctrines associated with Mr. Cobden and Mr. Bright, and was supposed to be a result of the Manchester school's teachings. There were several speakers and writers in England who had prophesied a reign of general peace from the extension of free trade, and others who condemned our aggressions upon native races in various parts of the world as inconsistent with a high view of moral and Christian duty. Although the Crimean War had reawakened the military spirit, still the tendency toward non-intervention in Continental politics seemed to grow. It was put forward as the true theory by active publicists, and in the great struggles of 1859, 1866, and 1870 England took no part. Continental observers came to think that non-intervention and the peace-at-any-price doctrine were far more powerful in England than they really were. In particular, they believed that Mr. Gladstone and the Liberal party were strongly inclined in that direction. England, they said, has grown rich and luxurious ; she has lost the aspiring spirit of former times. She would still, perhaps, fight if her commerce were in danger, but she looks upon national honor as an empty name, does not care for her old European position, and may practically be left out of sight in our European calculations. Mistaken as such a theory was, there were some things in the words of eminent Liberal statesmen to make it seem plausible. Whenever it was expressed by Continental newspapers the English Conservatives took up what they said, and used it against Mr. Gladstone's Government of 1868–74. Such accusations had something to do with making that Government unpopular, although any one who knew the real temper of the English people might have seen through them, and perceived that the growth of a moral sentiment, as applied to foreign policy, had not diminished the sense of national dignity or the willingness to support it by arms. Indeed, an acute observer might have said that there was, in the years after 1870, almost a wish to have a Continental quarrel in order that England might show she was not afraid to hold high language, and fight if necessary.

Lord Beaconsfield's conduct in the East and in Afghanistan opened the eyes of Continental politicians. They saw England again active and aggressive. They perceived that this policy met with great applause from the upper classes, and, so far as they could tell, from every one but Mr. Gladstone's followers. They concluded that England was again the old ambitious and dangerous neighbor of Mr. Pitt's days. When, however, Lord Beaconsfield did not go to war with Russia after all, they began to doubt whether he had not been imposing on them, and when the election of 1880 drove him from power, and brought in Mr. Gladstone, stronger than ever, they felt sure that England had returned to non-intervention and self-effacement. Sentimentalism, timidity, and the passion for quiet commerce were, in their view, the three influences which governed our leading statesmen, and the Opposition press in England, repeating this daily, confirmed their belief. There was consequently a disposition on the Continent, when the difficulties in Egypt became serious, to predict that England would shrink from active interference. Such a view, as it was held at Constantinople and impressed on Arabi Pasha, contributed to make the latter more obstinate and sanguine, and probably indisposed the Turks to play for a settlement. When such dreams were dispelled by the bombardment of Alexandria, the pendulum of Continental opinion swung back to the other extreme. "England," it was now said, "is, after all, the old snake, albeit in a new skin. When she proposes a conference, and talks about the concert of Europe, she is seeking to amuse us with fair words, while she steps in and takes Egypt for herself. She would have had it long ago but for the fear of French opposition; and now that France retires, she does not mean to let the opportunity slip. The expulsion of Arabi and conquest of the country will be a costly enterprise. England means to have the worth of her money, and will take it in the form of a protectorate, if not of the direct sovereignty, of the Nile Valley." It is not the interests of the bondholders, as some English opponents of the war have alleged, which Continental publicists conceive us to have in view, but partly the security of our route to India, and partly the fertile lands of Egypt, which produce some of the finest kinds of cotton, and which have been largely developed by European capital.

This assumption, that we have gone to Egypt with the design of ultimately annexing it, may be said to be common to the whole Continental press. There are, however, differences of view between the writers of different countries. The jealousy and annoyance which would otherwise be the prevailing sentiments in France are modified, and to some extent mitigated, by the desire of the various French parties to find in our conduct grounds for attack on each other. It is only a small section which has seemed to condemn our action altogether. But the Gambettists agree with the defenders of that policy of abstinence which M. de Freycinet followed, in insisting that England must not think of arranging affairs in Egypt to suit her own wishes, but, when she has conquered the country, must be content to submit its future to the arbitrament of Europe, and in particular must fully recognize the special interests of France. On this point there exists much uneasiness; but both the organs of M. Gambetta and those of his opponents have been concerned to put the best face on the matter, because each party is accused by the other of having brought about the present state of things, the one by originally drawing England on, the other by leaving her in these last months to act alone. On the whole, therefore, England has been less denounced than one might have expected from the keen jealousy which the French have always felt of her action in the East. The Italian newspapers, with less apparent reason, and greatly to our surprise, have been more bitter. Italy, as a new Power, is ambitious and self-conscious; she seems to feel it all the more necessary to put herself forward, and assert her claims to have as much influence as every one of the older arbiters of Europe, just because she is the youngest. She was disappointed at not being allowed to share in the Joint Control which was established in Egypt three or four years ago; and although her exclusion then was due at least as much to France as to England, the fact that England is acting alone in a country to which her ports lie nearest, and in which so many of her own citizens have settled, nettles her, and gives rise sometimes to complaints of England's aggressive spirit, sometimes to sharp and even spiteful criticisms upon any defects in the English arrangements, or checks which English troops have appeared to experience. Probably, as often happens, the newspapers do not fairly represent the sentiments of the Italian people, usually friendly to ourselves. Still these criticisms are significant. The German press, following the line taken up by the German Chancellor, have declared that Germany has little concern with the matter, and have been chiefly occupied in watching and commenting on our military operations. They have given us a good deal of candid advice, and express great doubts as to our disinterestedness. Austria's attitude is not less suspicious, yet not more unfriendly; public opinion there seems well pleased to see us occupied with a difficulty which will prevent us from objecting to any movements she may choose to make toward the Ægean. Assuming that we shall desire to retain Egypt, she sees how convenient it will be to have us seeking her assent, in return for which she can demand ours to her advance southward to Salonica. Finally, Russia, so far as one can judge from the Russian press, and from the diplomatic demonstrations occasionally made by her Envoy at Constantinople, is in no good humor toward us. Whether it be (as is suggested) that she seeks a sort of revenge for the interference of England between her and Turkey after the Treaty of San Stefano, or that, having her own game to play in the Turkish Empire, and desiring to annex some part of it, she finds it expedient to represent England as a disturber of the peace of the East, and to take the opportunity of re opening the Eastern Question generally—in any case she has shown a disposition to insist on the rights of the European concert, and if not to check, at least to supervise and review, the proceedings of England.

These have been, speaking generally, the sentiments of the great European countries during the last three months of suspense. Now that a rapid and complete success has been achieved by the English arms, their half-concealed acerbity and suspicion will probably become more patent. But with them there has been a remarkable change of opinion as to England's military spirit and vigor in action. The idea that the Liberal party is necessarily timid and pacific is abandoned. The reputation, or what people call the prestige, of England in the councils of Europe, stands higher at this moment than it has done since the days when Lord Palmerston's restlessness kept the Continent busy. Having made the mistake of supposing that we had become non-interventionists, the German and French press will probably now run to the other extreme, and discover in all quarters evidences of aggressive designs on the part of Mr. Gladstone. The part of his task which remains—the resettlement of Egypt and conciliation of all the jealousies that centre round her—is at least as troublesome as that which has been despatched under the leadership of Sir Garnet Wolseley. Y.

Correspondence.

THE CURE FOR REPUDIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have noticed in the *Nation*, under recent dates, articles on "How to Cure Repudiation." The concluding words of the last correspondent are: "I fear the disease is incurable, and the worst of it is the patient can never die." It has been no secret for a number of years with the unfortunate bondholders that if there be a remedy for the cure of repudiation, it will be discovered about the time these repudiating

States come to market offering their new securities for sale. And it is quite certain that day is near at hand. Under date of August 21, 1882, the State of Arkansas made a test of her credit, and gave us an example of how repudiation works under the new order of things. The Associated Press sent the following item:

"*No bids for a State loan.*—Little Rock., Ark., August 21st.—The time for receiving bids for $100,000 loan to the State of Arkansas expired to-day. *But no bids were offered.*"

It would seem that this State needs help and cannot for the present find even one penny. But how could the State of Arkansas have expected any other result? She certainly could not have supposed that capitalists at home and the aliens (as they were wont to call all Northern bondholders) had forgotten, among other things, the special acts of her Legislature, her courts, and the vote of her people, who repudiated the entire payment of her State Levee bonds, accompanied with reasons for so doing which were more infamous and trifling than repudiation itself. She has been taught the lesson that such things are not easily forgotten, and that where credit is given based on no other security than confidence in the honor and integrity of a State, it must fall in future to the lot of said State to prove by its past record and present acts that it is worthy of credit and confidence.

But these States must in the very necessity of the case soon have money or go out of sight. Right here is where this and all repudiating States will be called upon to show their hand. And the first thing that will be required of them will be that they find a way for honorably settling old scores, together with an assurance that hereafter honesty of purpose and honesty in fact are to be their governing principles. So soon as the repudiating States know their real situation and comprehend that the foregoing is to be the ultimatum, then shall we see how quickly they will find a remedy for the cure of repudiation.

ONE WHO TRUSTED THEM AND SUFFERED.

NEW YORK, October 9, 1882.

CABINET RESPONSIBILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask leave to offer one or two comments upon the letter of Mr. C. F. Adams? He seems to adopt the popular idea that there is a fundamental difference of principle between our government and the English, whereas I believe the difference is only in the practical application of the common principles upon which all popular government is based. He says that the English Ministry are responsible to the House of Commons, while our Cabinet is directly responsible to the people—but only for administration. The fact is that the English Ministry are no more responsible to the Commons than the Commons are to them; and if the House can vote out the Ministry, the latter have the power of appeal to the people by a dissolution. Both are directly responsible to the people, and it is the daily contact and friction between the executive and legislative branches which keeps the people interested and informed, and which is the permanent safeguard for either branch against being overwhelmed and suppressed by the other. A mere reference to Mr. Gladstone's Government furnishes a sufficient illustration.

In this country, Congress and the President are just the same in theory responsible to the people, but owing to the exclusion of the Executive from all voice or power of debate, whether as to legislation or administration, both branches have escaped from this responsibility—the Executive has become the mere instrument of Congress for the dispensing of offices, while Congress itself presents nothing but a chaos of lobbying and intrigue, with an apparent impossibility of coming to any practical or effective conclusion on any subject whatever. As regards the effect of excessive power in a legislature, and its illustration at this moment in France, there is an article in the London *Spectator* of Sept. 23 on the Dictatorship of the French Assembly, which might have been written as a pertinent contribution to the present discussion, and is most valuable reading, in the light of events here, for every student of American politics.

It gives one a cold shiver to hear the proposal that members of the Cabinet should be elected by Congress. It would not be difficult to demonstrate that three-fourths of all our political woes in the States and cities have arisen from the practice of separate election of executive, not to mention judicial officers, and that whether by legislatures or the people. There is nothing so destructive of good administration or good government, nothing which tends so much to despotism of the legislature cr is so fertile of anarchy, intrigue, and corruption. It will be the deepest wound ever inflicted on our Government if it forsakes the sound and simple traditions of executive appointment, and individual responsibility, for the elective and divided responsibility which is the curse of our local governments. Mr. Adams says that a cabinet which is responsible to the legislature is nothing else than the executive committee of that body. As regards the British Parliament, I repeat that the Ministry is no more responsible to it than it is to the Ministry.

It is noteworthy also, that while Parliament may turn out one Ministry, it can never put in another. The outgoing premier recommends a member of the Opposition to the Queen, who invites him to form a government, which he does with an eye quite as much to the confidence of the country as to that of the House of Commons. As to the arguments in favor of election adduced from Mr. Goldwin Smith, one may, without disrespect even to so great an authority, prefer the logic, as well as the practical results, of the experience which the English Government has worked out during two hundred years.

G. B.

BOSTON, October 9, 1882.

"ERRORS OF THE CENSUS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some of Mr. Rose's letters I have seen; one, perhaps two, have escaped me. Assuming that an official answer would be made from the Census Office, whenever Mr. Rose should have fully unfolded his budget, I have not deemed it necessary to offer any reply to his successive communications. Since, however, you call upon me, by name (in the *Nation's* issue of September 28), to respond in this matter, I cheerfully do so.

Permit me to say, first and chiefly, that, whatever be the effect accorded to Mr. Rose's attacks upon the points he has selected for attack, your conclusion, that this series of letters must needs shock greatly the confidence of the country in the Census, does not appear to me warranted by the situation.

Mr. Rose's criticisms, so far as I have seen them, do not in the remotest degree touch any one of what may be called the substantial tables of the Census—that is, the tables which give the population of towns, townships, counties, and States. They simply relate to a body of tables which appear for the first time in the Population volume, having for their purpose the distribution of the population according to certain physical features of the country; all which tables might be stricken out, yet leave the Census intact, with all the detail ever before given. Mr. Rose's title, "The Errors of the Census," is indeed suited to impress upon the minds of those who do not read his letters, that his criticisms affect the integrity of the enumeration, or the correctness of the compilation of the results, according to the traditional forms of the Census. They, in fact, only concern a body of *secondary* tables, compiled for purely scientific purposes, inaccuracies in which no more affect the Census, in the usual sense of this term, than if they had been first published ten years after the Census in a cyclopædia or a scientific magazine.

The preparation of the tables in question was committed to Mr. Henry Gannett, a geographer of repute, connected creditably with several of the Government surveys. That these tables were not prepared with all the care which it was desirable should have been given them, Mr. Rose has, it is true, conclusively shown. It is equally true that a large majority of Mr. Rose's criticisms are of the most microscopic character, altogether unsuited to the subject-matter of the tables themselves.

Alike in the nature of the case, and according to the distinct warning given by Mr. Gannett in the text preceding the tables, statements relating to the number of persons living, *e. g.*, under such or such a mean annual temperature, or at such or such an elevation above sea level, can only be rudely approximated. Neither Mr. Gannett nor myself, nor, I dare say, the present Superintendent of the Census, ever supposed that such statements could be relied upon to be exact within one per cent., or three per cent., or perhaps even five per cent. The lines of temperature belts, for example, are not staked off by surveyors. They sway forward and backward under the varying meteorological conditions of each new year. Delineations of curves of mean annual temperature, made on a basis of twenty years' observations, for example, would differ not a little from delineations made from the observations of ten years or thirty years.

Yet such generalizations of the conditions of our population are not, therefore, without value. On the contrary, they may have the highest value—an inexpressible value, indeed, to the economist, the sanitarian, the social philosopher. To show, for instance, the widely-differing aptitudes of the colored and the foreign elements of our population in respect to heat, moisture, and altitude; to show the widely-differing rates of increase of population within different isothermal or isohystal groups, or upon different hypsometric grades, is to furnish most valuable material for a philosophy of population. And the value of this material is not in the smallest degree affected by minor inaccuracies of classification. When, for example, it is stated that one-quarter of the population—12,750,000 people—live where the mean annual rainfall is from forty-five to fifty inches, the statement is just as instructive if there be doubt whether the number may not, in fact, be as high as 13,000,000, or as low as 12,500,000, as it would be were the number precisely ascertained to the last man, beyond the possibility of cavil.

It has been said that such generalizations can only be approximately just. Now, the hard answer to Mr. Rose's criticisms is that the "errors" he discovers are, with few exceptions, of a scale which brings them within—far, far within—the degree of uncertainty which belongs to the subject-matter itself.

Thus, after reading one of Mr. Rose's letters, I called the attention of the Census Office to the fact that all the territory covered by the criticisms (occupying nearly a page of the *Nation*) directed against the tables of the density of population amounted in the aggregate to less than one-twentieth of one per cent. of the territory of the United States. I dare say, if Mr. Gannett had

apprehended that he was to be followed around with such microscopic malignity, or malignant miscroscopy, he would have taken pains to remove even the ground of such criticism as this is, but, knowing the very rude nature of such generalizations, and having amply warned the reader to that effect, he probably did not imagine that his maps and tables would be subjected to a method which, if applied to blood-corpuscles or yellow-fever germs, would be truly admirable.

And it is to be further observed, as characteristic of nearly the whole list of these "Errors of the Census," that the question raised by Mr. Rose respecting this minute fraction—one-twentieth of one per cent.—of the territory of the United States, as delineated on the "density maps," is only as to its belonging to the fourth or to the fifth group—that is, to one of two contiguous groups, respecting which 500 more or 500 fewer inhabitants might throw a county upon one or the other side of the dividing line. Such is the nature of most of the errors discovered by Mr. Rose. In some cases the discrepancies between the maps and the tables on which he comments are so small as to convince me that they are due simply to defects of "registry" in printing the maps. In other cases, the discrepancies are due solely to the fact that, in making up the tables, inconsiderable fractions were properly and purposely omitted, as in the case of every generalized statement.

There is another class of so-called errors discovered by Mr. Rose, for instance in Colorado, West Virginia, and North Carolina, which are not errors in any sense. Thus, we may suppose a region, containing 10,000 square miles, having a general elevation of 2,000 feet above the sea, with occasional valleys, too small to be shown upon the scale of the hypsometric map. Those valleys may, notwithstanding, contain all or nearly all the population of the region. Rightfully, therefore, the maps will appear colored according to the general grade of the country, while in the tables the population will be classed according to the facts of its situation. This is the explanation of Mr. Rose's tremendous "find" in Colorado, to use the language of the country.

The only errors which I recall having seen in the three or four letters which I read, as being of sufficient importance to affect the proportions of the different groups for any purpose for which I can conceive of their being used, certainly for any purpose I had in contemplation in causing the tables to be prepared, are two.

One is unmistakably an error of the types in the tens of millions place in the hypsometric tables. No person of ordinary intelligence can consult the table with a view to using the figures for any purpose, without coming squarely upon the fact that this is a typographical error, while one has only to perform an operation in simple addition, such as a ten-year-old boy could perform in three minutes, to obtain the true total. Mr. Rose, however, makes this the occasion for some majestic and altogether withering sneers about the "approximate" accuracy of the Census.

The second error is clearly one of compilation in the Census Office. In preparing the table of population according to mean annual temperature, the figures for Missouri were pushed one place too far toward the left, thus causing them to be added into a temperature group lower by one grade than that in which they should have been placed. The figures being large, the error becomes noticeable, although the change of a degree in the temperature of Missouri might make the table right; and I don't suppose that, as a matter of fact, we know the mean annual temperature of Missouri within one degree, or within two degrees, or even three.

This error is, notwithstanding, a real and a serious one. It ought not to have been committed, even considering the enormous mass of figures by which it is surrounded—the tens of thousands of sums which are rightly set. Its occurrence is fairly a subject of criticism and complaint, if one is disposed to criticise and complain.

While, however, it is an error, it is only one error. The reader of Mr. Rose's communications would think it was not one error, but many. All the variations are played upon it of which it is arithmetically susceptible. In this way any one error occurring in an extensive series of tables might be multiplied indefinitely for controversial purposes. There is really no reason why Mr. Rose, at least so long as he can get a publisher, should ever stop bringing to light "Errors of the Census" due to this unlucky displacement of the population of Missouri by one point in the tables of Mean Annual Temperature.—Respectfully,

FRANCIS A. WALKER.

BOSTON, October 3, 1882.

[The common acceptation of the term "Census" covers all tables which the Bureau issues under that name; so that General Walker's criticism of our title for the letters seems hardly called for. We must also say for Mr. Rose that, although his criticisms happened to concern Mr. Gannett's work principally, there is no ground for supposing them to be in any sense personal or "malignant." Our own interest in the matter, we need hardly add, is purely scientific.—ED. NATION.]

BULLYRAG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have lately seen, in speeches of Congressmen and in other documents, the word "bullirag." On referring to the dictionaries, I find that Worcester pronounces the verb to be "local and low," and Webster (edition of 1875) also calls it "low," but derives it regularly from "*bully*, to insult, and *rag*, to scold." The word means, according to Webster, "to insult in a bullying manner."

In my own boyhood, twenty-five years ago, I remember the word "bulrag" as in common colloquial use in Northern New York, in the sense of "to talk provokingly," having evident reference to the shaking of a red rag at a bull. In that sense, and with the orthography I have given, it strikes me that "bulrag" is a word well worth preserving, and of probably legitimate descent. Skeats, I think, pays no attention to any form of the word; but if my idea of the matter is correct, ought it not to take the form in print that it has so long held in spoken language, thus divesting itself of a superfluous and misleading syllable? THERON W. HAIGHT.

WAUKESHA, Wis., October 11, 1882.

[This word, variously recorded by lexicographers as *ballarag, ballirag, ballyrag, ballywrag, bullyrag,* and *bullrag,* is in vulgar use all over England and in the north of Ireland. In the form preferred by our correspondent (Oxfordshire only) it signifies, according to the glossary of the English Dialect Society, simply 'to scold'; and this is the almost universal acceptation, with 'bullying' sometimes thrown in. It is the prime meaning—'to scold or reproach,' 'to bully and scold'—even in Cumberland, where alone the word is given a sense approaching our correspondent's—viz., 'to rally contemptuously.' But there the spelling is *bullyrag* and *ballyrag.* In the East Cornwall Glossary (*s. v. ballywrag*) it is remarked that "Barnes, in the glossary appended to his 'Poems of Rural Life,' in the Dorset dialect, suggests a derivation from A. S. *bealu,* evil, and *wregan,* to accuse."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. announce that they will have ready next month volume i. of an entirely new and fully revised edition of Bancroft's 'History of the United States,' in six volumes, octavo; also the second volume of Bolles's 'Financial History of the United States,' from 1789 to 1860. Other works in press are: 'Sir Roger de Coverley,' with illustrations by C. O. Murray; 'Homespun Stories,' by Ascot R. Hope; 'Facts and Phases of Animal Life'; 'Stellar Theology and Masonic Astronomy'; and Nicoll's 'Landmarks of English History.'

Harper & Bros. will shortly publish 'Eras and Characters of History,' by the Rev. W. R. Williams.

Among the announcements of the *Century* magazine for the year which begins with the current (November) number, are the following serial tales and history: "A Sea Change," by Mr. Howells; "The Point of View," by Henry James, jr.; "The Creoles of Louisiana," by George W. Cable; "The Led-Horse Claim," by Mary Hallock Foote, whose first long story we believe this is; and Edward Eggleston's "Life in the Thirteen Colonies."

The Century Co. send us a page extracted from the first "illustrated juvenile" ever printed in the Arabic language or in Syria—viz., the Rev. Henry Harris Jessup's Arabic version of poems and rhymes from *St. Nicholas,* brought out at Beirut. The illustrations are borrowed from the same source, or, rather, were placed at Mr. Harris's disposal by the publishers.

Charles Higham, 27A Farringdon Street, London, E. C., solicits subscriptions to 'Bibliotheca Novæ Ecclesiæ,' or, 'A Bibliography of the Literature of Emanuel Swedenborg and of the New Church,' by the Rev. J. R. Boyle. It contemplates "a description of every book, pamphlet, or tract which has been published, to the present day, in connection with Swedenborg or the New Church, either in England, America, the Colonies, or the Continent of Europe," with short biographical notices of authors, wherever possible. It is based on the compiler's private collection, and will, it is estimated, embrace 6,000 titles. The book will be elegantly manufactured.

No. 3 of the Library of Cornell University continues its important list of the mathematical works in the collection, and gives the first part of a bibliographical list of the "Living Authors of Iceland." The latter was compiled three years ago by Mr. Bogi Melsted, a student of the Icelandic College at Reykiavik, and Professor Fiske has at no little pains enlarged it to date, indicated the deaths of authors that have occurred meantime, and added as far as possible the avocation and residence of each person whose works are recorded. The full list, we understand, will include 205 names (many mere contributors to periodical literature being omitted), and this number is, as Professor Fiske justly remarks, "astonishingly large for a population of less than 75,000." Among the Notes, students of early printing will find an interesting ascription to Gerardus de Elten of a folio 'Declaratio quædam modi,' etc., probably printed in 1480 at Cologne by Arnold ter Hoernen.

Mr. Samuel S. Green, librarian of the Worcester (Mass.) Public Library, reports to the September number of the *Library Journal* the steps

taken by Congress at its last session toward a rational and economic distribution of public documents hereafter. By a joint resolution, "423 copies not only of the Congressional set of public documents, but also of all documents ordered to be printed by Congress," will be placed at the disposal of the Interior Department in the interest of incorporated libraries, colleges, boards of trade, etc. Provision was also made for distributing the Census volumes and the official records of the Rebellion.

Congress having refused to meet the expense of publishing the *Bulletin* of the National Board of Health, the Board have accepted the offer of the *Sanitary Engineer* to print for them the most important information heretofore published in the *Bulletin*.

A partial list of the writings of the late Lewis H. Morgan is appended to a biographical sketch furnished by Mr. F. W. Putnam to the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (vol. xvii., May, 1882). As a memorial of his two daughters who died young, Dr. Morgan left his entire and considerable property in trust to the University of Rochester for the establishment of a college for women in that city. This bequest takes effect upon the decease of his widow and only son.

Mr. Albert S. Gatschet's brief paper on the "Phonetics of the Káyowē Language," read in August, 1881, at Cincinnati, before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and now just printed, possesses general interest. It illustrates from this "rattle-brained" tribe (as they are designated in the gesture-language of their neighbors) a characteristic of all Indian languages, viz.: "the constant permutation or interchangeability of the sounds which are produced by the same vocal organ. Thus, to take an example easy for our types, "táki, *good;* tá-aki, tó-iki, tó-igi, toíki." In Mr. Gatschet's experience, "an Indian pronounces almost every word of his tongue in six, ten, or twelve different ways." Hence the endless diversities in attempts at notation. Moreover, "Indians do not conform themselves in their daily conversation to the orthography laid down in the religious books printed for them. The Creek Indians, for whom books were printed in a uniform orthography over forty years ago, speak with the same phonetic freedom as before, and constantly permute the related vowels and consonants with each other." As the numerous spellings of Ketchwyo's name testify, Mr. Gatschet's remarks have an application beyond the languages of this continent.

The 'Jean Ingelow Birthday Book,' published by Roberts Bros., inclines towards the larger size of this already voluminous class, and every page is red-lined. A steel portrait of Miss Ingelow faces the title. The same house have issued a pretty little volume of selections from Cervantes ('Wit and Wisdom of Don Quixote'), the short and the long fairly mixed, preceded by a biographical sketch signed Emma Thompson; and two smaller pocket volumes, containing respectively Plato's 'Phædo' and 'Apology and Crito,' both in Professor's Jowett's translation.

C. T. Eben's 'Comparative German Primer, Containing Lists of German and English Words of Common Origin, and More or Less Identical in Form and Sound' (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), is a compilation of rules, "observations," and one hundred "miscellaneous remarks," not without intrinsic value, and bearing the marks of industry and intelligence, but of a decidedly forbidding character for beginners. There is a curious lack of perspective shown in the introduction, in an elementary work of this kind, of such conjectural philology as that of "remark" No. 51: "The noun *Schurke* (scoundrel) is presumably related to the English *shark* and *sharker;* possibly also to the verb *to shirk*." The popularization of comparative philology is a very delicate task, and calls for greater carefulness than is evinced in such statements as that "*wholesome* and *heilsam* are perfectly identical" (in meaning). The word *Racker*, as the German equivalent of "wretch," is stigmatized as a "rather vulgar" provincialism, whereas *schmeissen* (to throw) is apparently sanctioned as unobjectionable.

'A Practical German Grammar for High Schools and Colleges,' by Prof. Wesley C. Sawyer (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.), will be found useful in the hands of a competent teacher who supplements its concise rules with appropriate exercises and reading matter—the grammar being sparing of both. General accuracy is the chief merit of this modest work, which is typographically very attractive. But few blemishes betray that German is not the author's native language. On page 106 we find the rule that the pronoun follows the sex (and not the grammatical gender) in "Ein Mädchen *die* etwas von sich hält," and "Welches Weib *die* zehn Groschen hat." The contrary rule generally holds good in the best writers. The plural "Annan" (p. 59) is practically never used, nor is "der wievielste" sufficiently common to justify its adoption in preference to "der wievielte." "Selbstliebe ist *einem jeden* Menschen gemein" (p. 39) is un-German.

Prof. James A. Harrison's 'French Syntax' (Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co.), based on Eduard Mätzner's 'Französische Grammatik,' is a thorough performance. It would have been safer, in our judgment, to pass over the pronunciation, always a delicate subject for foreigners. Thus, on p. 20 we are told that *a* is sounded alike in *mâle* and *aimâmes*. On the same page, by the way, deference might have been shown to the Academy's latest dictionary by giving *piège* the grave accent. The index at the end of the book will prove invaluable to students, who are supposed, we ought to remark, to have studied or be studying Latin.

From V. G. Fischer, Washington, D. C., we have the second edition of the Catalogue of the Vienna International Art Exhibition, which opened on April 1, and will hereafter regularly be held every four years. The 188 autographic illustrations seem to us rather more carefully done than those for the Salon Catalogue. America is represented, so far as we have noticed, only by specimens of the work of our best wood engravers.

Vol. viii., No. 2 of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute contains a paper by Commander John R. Bartlett, U. S. N., on the results of the *Blake's* summer cruise in the Gulf Stream. It is accompanied by lines of soundings.

The Philadelphia Society of Etchers will give a first Exhibition of Modern Etchings ("original works by modern painter-etchers, of all countries and schools"), at the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, from December 27, 1882, to February 3, 1883, inclusive. Works from this city as well as from Philadelphia will be collected and returned free of charge, the dates of collection for New York being December 11-13. The Secretary of the Society is Mr. J. Neely, jr., 1334 Chestnut St.

The growth of the Italian element in New York city has long been a matter of daily observation, but one is surprised to find the Italian colony ready for a handbook ('Guido Manuale ad uso dell' Italiano in New York') such as comes to us from the compilers, the brothers Metelli, of the circulating library at 135 Bleecker Street. This plump volume, well supplied with advertisements, conveys in simple terms all the information necessary to Italian immigrants. The United States Constitution; the Government; the tariff; the commercial and extradition treaties with Italy; the laws of the mother country applicable to Italians residing abroad who do not forfeit their citizenship; the laws of the State of New York concerning partnerships, rents, divorce, etc.; the requirements for naturalization; the buildings, schools, churches, and charitable institutions of the metropolis—such is a part of the contents of the 'Guide.' Eighteen (not very harmonious) Italian provident and other associations are enumerated, two of these being in New Jersey. The Italians here have three day and one night schools, with more than 2,000 pupils. They have two daily and two weekly journals. They have plenty of good restaurants if no showy hotels. A special chapter on the Italian colony (which numbered 16,223 in 1880) defends this class of our population against popular prejudice, only reproving them for their abstinence from citizenship and politics. A directory is added, of about 1,400 names, representing nearly half the population by heads of families. This commendable publication will be renewed yearly, with improvements.

A handbook for restless Americans desirous of crossing the Rio Grande is Mr. Lorenzo Castro's 'The Republic of Mexico in 1882' (New York: Thompson & Moreau), an honest and modest work, of which the occasionally unidiomatic style and illogical arrangement will readily be forgiven. A sketch of the Constitution (modified as to the succession to the Presidency while this book was on the press), brief accounts of the several States, the tariff, the naturalization laws, and miscellaneous statistics, are coupled with fifty-one pages devoted to mines, ten to railroads, and forty-nine to itineraries and distances. A large folding map of Mexico, revised to date, completes the utility of this manual.

Westermann & Co. have received Part 6 of Heinrich Düntzer's illustrated edition of Goethe's works, already described in these columns.

The second volume of M. Leroy-Beaulieu's 'L'Empire des Tsars' is shortly to appear.

Maisonneuve, Paris, has begun publication of a little *Almanach des Traditions Populaires*, which folk-lorists will eagerly adopt, especially as the first volume contains their addresses and lists of their works; or if not, the editor, M. Rolland, should be notified.

In our News Summary for September 14 the death and career of Earl Grey were recorded, whereas it was Sir George Grey who was reported by cable as having died. The error originated with one of the morning papers of this city, whose accuracy is commonly to be relied upon.

—The narrative of the *Jeannette*, by Lieut. J. W. Danenhower, was published some time since in the New York *Herald*, from notes dictated to the *Herald* correspondent at Irkutsk. It excited very general interest, and was soon out of print. Yielding to the requests of those who desired the story in more attractive form, the author has issued, through Osgood & Co., a revised edition of it, neatly printed, with a portrait, an illustration of the *Jeannette* in the ice, and a small map of the route. It does not pretend to do more than relate the writer's experiences, and the details of the finding of De Long and his party are not considered as coming within its scope. It is, of course, impracticable, until the official details are made public, to form any just estimate of the contributions to knowledge made by the expedition, or to judge fairly its methods. The chief scientific novelty that appears in the narrative is the evidence of complete dependence of the motion of the ice upon the winds in the region traversed. This is in accordance with the views of Payer and Weyprecht, but the striking nature of the corroboration has hardly attracted the attention it deserves. The narrative is told in a straightforward, sensible way, and impresses the reader

strongly with the cheerfulness of the author's disposition, which endured without souring, in addition to the privation, danger, and discomfort of the journey, those harder trials which followed in the train of the blindness by which he was afflicted.

—We have received from the Chief Signal-office of the United States Army two pamphlets full of charts very clearly and attractively draughted, portraying, the one, the isothermal lines in the United States for each month in the year—to which the only objection is its pretence of completeness in continuing the lines over mountain-chains where no observations have been taken; and the other, the supposititious isobars for each month during several years. We call these isobars supposititious because they summarize facts which have no existence, and reduce to an absurdity the hypothesis of "correction for elevation." There are two meteorological phenomena which will always elude accurate recording, and yet whose real or supposed importance is so great that they will always be pretended to be recorded; and these are, the rainfall and the baric pressure. To the inanity of the current notions of "correction" we have repeatedly called attention in these columns. Some of the grosser objections to them may be classed under three heads: First, storms have not only lateral boundaries, but also boundaries above and below them, so that when you "correct for elevation" you can "correct" out of a storm into one. Secondly, your elevated station is not, like a lantern on a tower, removed from disturbing surface influences, but is organically related to an incline; and inclines produce disturbances and phenomena of their own. Thirdly, not only have no two hypothesizers been able to agree upon a scheme of corrections, but not even have the United States correctors adhered to a consistent one, but have experimented with several arrangements of widely contrary principles, and decide between them on grounds which must be whimsical and which reason in a circle. But the first-mentioned of these groups of charts is substantially correct, at least as regards dry lowland regions, and is interesting from its condensed exposition of climatic laws. Most striking, of course, is the parallelism of the isotherms to mountain ranges and to ocean coast-lines, except in April and October; with the heat increasing by gradients inland during five months, and decreasing inland during five. The gradients are steepest just north of the Gulf of California, a region having close analogies, climatically, with the valley of the Jordan in Southern Syria.

—Though it obviously omits numerous details, the twenty-sixth annual report of the English Civil-Service Commissioners, lately issued, takes up, with its Appendices, no less than 783 pages. The staff of examiners employed by the Commission consists of a Director of Examinations, three permanent Assistant Examiners, and about 160 Occasional Examiners, including many of the most distinguished scholars in the kingdom. During 1881, the total number of cases dealt with amounted to 24,243, as against 20,452 in 1880; the increase being mainly due to the introduction of open competition for the situations of telegraph-learner and female clerk in the Post-office. Out of the forenamed aggregate of 24,243 cases, 18,511 were connected with the Home Civil Service; the remaining 5,732 being distributed as follows: Home services, 1,621; Indian services, 286; Military services, 3,756; Naval services, 69. With exclusion of examinations for the Indian, Military, and Naval services, the principal competitions held in 1881 were 69 in number, at which 10,375 candidates competed for 1,670 appointments. The post of female telegraph-learner is conspicuously coveted: for forty appointments to this situation there were as many as 448 candidates last year, while only 934 persons offered themselves for 345 appointments for the situation of male telegraph-learner. Almost as popular with young women as the telegraph is the Postal service. Out of 747 candidates for female clerkships in the London Post-offices, 525 failed at the preliminary test, five withdrew after passing it, and 217 competed for 76 appointments. The ambition evinced for a soldier's life is noticeable. The candidates for the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, or for commissions in the Army, were 1,265, the appointments vacant being 244; and the candidates for the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich were 384, the appointments offered being 80. In the fulness of time it has been discovered that the Hindûstânî or Urdû is "not the true native language of any part of" India; and a change has been introduced accordingly, with reference to the selected candidates for the Indian Civil Service. In future, those among them who are destined for the Northwestern Provinces of Hindostan are to give their chief attention to Hindî. This innovation, though extremely distasteful to Indian civilians of the old school, whose injudicious predilections for Urdû and neglect of Hindî one hardly expected to see practically exploded in our generation, has been dictated, as facts abundantly testify, by plain, unprejudiced common-sense. By the estimate of the Civil-Service Commissioners, the fees payable by examinees will henceforth be about £13,000 annually.

—A copy has recently been received of the Proceedings of the International Congress of Electricians, which was held in Paris in September, 1881, in connection with the exhibition of electrical instruments and inventions. The Congress was assembled by invitation of the French Government; and M. Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs, presided. The most distinguished physicists of Europe were in attendance, and a few from distant lands. Prof. G. F. Barker, Prof. Rowland, Dr. C. Herz, Captain Heap, of the United States Army, and Lieutenant MacLean, of the United States Navy, with the American Minister to France, appear as delegates from this country. The 400 pages devoted to the proceedings of the Congress include the history of the assembly, the papers, the debates, and the conclusions. It gives the text of M. Mascart's speech, reviewing the results obtained by the Conference, and the reasons therefor. It concludes with a brief address from M. Dumas, the French physicist, on the significance of the proposal adopted by the Congress to fix the units of electric measurement. Professor Rowland's paper on atmospheric electricity is also given. Three international commissions were agreed upon, and the French Government was requested to invite the Governments of other nations to unite in constituting them. When formed, these commissions are to consider (1) the redetermination of the value of the *ohm;* (2) the observation of atmospheric electricity, the efficacy of different systems of *paratonnerres,* the study of terrestrial currents on telegraphic lines, and the establishment of a system of international telemeteorography; (3) the determination of a standard of light. The Commissioners who have been appointed in accordance with this request, are about to assemble in Paris. Prof. John Trowbridge, of Harvard University, and Prof. H. A. Rowland, of Johns Hopkins University, sailed last Saturday, having been designated as Commissioners by the Department of State, in accordance with a provision made by the last Congress of the United States.

—The word *paratonnerres* appears to be used by the French for all safety appliances against lightning — lightning-rods, lightning-arresters, etc.—and, like parasol, would be a convenient word in English. A similar term is *paragrêles,* hail-preventers. The physicists have been quite felicitous in some of the new terms of their vocabulary—Ohm, Volt, Farad, Coulomb, Ampère—all of which are brief international words, capable of very exact limitations, and suggestive of the names of the great investigators in science whose theoretical work underlies the practical applications now so familiar to every one.

—The Paris *Temps* publishes a sketch of Ernest Bersot by his executor, Edm. Scherer, which is to be prefixed to Bersot's forthcoming posthumous work, 'Études et Pensées' (Hachette). As this work is not likely to reach many American readers, we translate an interesting letter of Bersot's, written February 15, 1860:

"Monday, I lunched at M. de Falloux's. Montalembert, Ampère, the Abbé Cazales, ex-Representative, and Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire were there. We lunched gayly, amid bursts of fury from Montalembert, who is excessively passionate and very interesting in his passion. . . . After lunch we set M. Ampère going about Italy and Rome. He lives in that country. About Tuscany, from which he came here two months ago, he assures us that it is decidedly against Austria, and willing to endure everything rather than Austrian rule. We knew it before. But the most curious thing was his conversation about Rome in that *salon.* He analyzed Roman society for us—the nobility null, of a nullity thirty degrees below zero; no ideas, no feelings, no will—nothing, pure nothing, absolute nothing. It no longer counts even in the Church, to which each family always used to furnish a Prelate or a Cardinal. The *bourgeoisie* has spirit, but no political intelligence; a single sentiment—hatred of the government of the priests, with Mazziniism here and there. Then, besides hatred, there is superstition. For about six years it has been imagined that the Pope has the evil eye, that he can cast spells. Not long since he was in a shop; as soon as he went out the frightened husband looked at his wife and cried, 'We are done for!' The wife answered, 'I made horns under my cloak' (they make horns with the little finger and the forefinger). We said to Ampère, 'But why has not the Pope reformed anything?' 'Reforms! People think they are easy, and the Emperor, in his letter to Edgar Ney, demands that our Civil Code be imported into the Roman State unchanged. It is not a matter of one abuse or several abuses at Rome. Everything is abuse, and the abuses interlace so closely that they must be reformed all at once, and the reformer would have nearly everybody against him. A Roman may suffer by thirty abuses, but there's sure to be a thirty-first which gives him his living, and he won't suffer that one to be touched. Rossi tried to touch them, and he was assassinated. To effect anything would require thirty years of energetic Popes and Ministers ready to be assassinated. As for Roman justice, it's a wonderful thing. A man is accused; he carries money to an officer of the Court, and the matter dies. There is no security for money which is stolen from you; nor for life which is attacked even at seven in the evening; nor for the family, for they steal children in the name of the law.' There's the abstract of Ampère's conversation; you can judge of the effect. My meal was very amusing."

—Bersot says, "We knew all this before"—ten, twenty years ago; but the evils of a form of government that has passed away are forgotten, and there have been symptoms that the temporal power is regretted in certain quarters, and that certain persons would not be sorry to see it reëstablished at Rome or elsewhere. That is a consummation not much to be feared in the present temper of the world. Still, it is not altogether useless to remind people now and then what "temporal power" means. And it is well to show where political and judicial corruption can lead a great country if they are not resisted at the outset.

—Two Venetian journals, *Il Veneto Cristiano* and *Fra Paolo Sarpi,* were "reproved, condemned, and anathematized" on September 4, and all their writers, and all who trust and favor them, whoever they may be, were declared to incur

the greater excommunication, and the printers, sellers, and readers declared guilty of a grave fault.

—No. 37 of the *Gegenwart* contains a curious article by Prof. R. von Ihering on "The Æsthetics of Eating and Drinking." The distinguished jurist thinks that three principles have guided the development or shaping of our present table manners: the suppression of the brute element, the cultivation of an appearance of moderation, and the change from communism to individualism. The German language has different words for the processes of eating and drinking by animals and human beings, and this difference is based on an actual distinction in the things themselves. Animals eat hastily and continuously, man slowly and with conversational pauses between the courses; animals lie or stand, man sits; animals use their fore-feet and mouth directly, man uses knife, fork, and spoon, which, however, have been introduced very gradually and against much opposition. The second point is not so much moderation as the semblance of moderation, for if we are honest we must confess that the opposite of moderation is the aim of our pleasures at table. It is for æsthetic reasons alone that we have gradually reduced the size of our glasses, and bring on the dishes in successive courses instead of placing them all in an imposing array on the table; and the same is true of the substitution of the habit of sitting, in place of the Roman and Oriental custom of lying, at the table, which gives the semblance of immoderation. Thirdly, we find that individualism has taken the place of communism. Our ancestors used the same bench (*Bank*, whence *Bankett*, banquet), whereas we have chairs; they used the table-cloth to wipe their hands, we have napkins; they ate from the same dish and drank from the same glass or bumper, while we have each our own. According to this writer, the habit of touching the glasses on drinking a toast symbolizes the former unity of the cup.

VAN HORNE'S LIFE OF GENERAL THOMAS.

The Life of Major-General George H. Thomas. By Thomas B. Van Horne, U.S.A., author of 'History of Army of the Cumberland.' With portrait and maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

THE place of General Thomas among the officers of the national armies in the late war has been regarded as a very secure and very honorable one. His patriotism, courage, perseverance, judgment, and military intelligence all ranked high. He has, besides, enjoyed the reputation of sincere modesty, and of being so far from self-seeking or restless ambition that he preferred a secondary place rather than a chief command of great armies, where the crown is apt to have as many thorns as laurels. It has long been thought one of the most enviable of things to have a character and repute that would make one, in the public opinion, worthy of the chief places without bearing the burdens and assuming the severe responsibilities belonging to them. This was Thomas's position for more than three years of the war; but when, in the final campaign of the great struggle, a responsible separate command was thrust upon him, the successful outcome of it, ending as it did with the signal defeat of Hood at Nashville, was so connected with criticisms by his superiors as to the dilatoriness of the earlier parts of his movements, that his ardent friends have made it the subject of one of the liveliest controversies of the period.

From the 12th of November to the 15th of December, 1864, General Thomas remained on the defensive against the Confederate army under Hood. He himself was at Nashville, and his only active forces in the field were commanded by General Schofield, who was slowly forced back from the southern border of Tennessee to the capital of the State. On the 30th of November, the sanguinary battle of Franklin was fought by Schofield's troops, and on the next day they retired to Nashville, where they met five divisions which Thomas concentrated there, besides the garrison of the town. The army thus gathered was that with which the battle of Nashville was fought two weeks later, and was not sensibly increased in the meantime. The danger that Hood would turn the position and march to the Ohio, as Bragg had done in 1862, and the fact that the greater part of middle Tennessee was given up to the enemy to be stripped of its supplies and have its young men forced into the Confederate army, while the railway system was wrecked in all directions, made the Administration at Washington and General Grant urgent and even imperative that Thomas should assume the aggressive at once. His assigned reason for delay was that he wanted to complete the mounting of his cavalry corps, so as to be superior in that arm to his estimate of Hood's mounted force, as he confessedly was in infantry. The reason did not seem sufficient, and after nearly a fortnight of reiterated exhortations and orders, Thomas was on the point of being relieved from his command, when he gave battle successfully, and the defeat of Hood gave a happy ending to the unpleasant situation. Honors and compliments were showered on the successful General, and, to all outward seeming, the griefs which the preceding correspondence had caused were buried and forgotten. To leave the matter there should have been satisfactory to General Thomas, and we may presume that it was. There had been nothing in the correspondence which was personally unkind. Grant had said to him: "I have as much confidence in your conducting the battle rightly as I have in any other officer, but it has seemed to me that you have been slow, and I have had no explanation of affairs to convince me otherwise." Sherman had written to Grant: "I know full well that General Thomas is slow in mind and in action, but he is judicious and brave, and the troops feel great confidence in him." The one criticism was, that a lack of that natural aggressiveness which leads a commander to seize and keep the initiative had delayed the early movements of the campaign, and postponed a battle beyond what was necessary. There had been no denial of mental ability, of physical or moral courage; the whole offence consisted in the one word "slow."

The debate which the principals in it would gladly have let drop has been persistently, and often excitedly, continued by those assuming to be their champions, until this biography of Thomas by Chaplain Van Horne caps the climax of indiscretion not only by reviving and insisting upon all the old personal issues in their least pleasant form, but by adding fresh ones which will inevitably bring new combatants into the field. He has with great pains collected and displayed in his pages the criticisms upon his hero which have given offence, overlooking the danger that anything short of a most demonstrative refutation of them would have an effect akin to an admission of their justice. He has overestimated his own power of answer, and has contented himself with general and sweeping assertions when the only successful completion of his task would be found in a full analysis of the situation, and a detailed examination of numbers which should be proof against the most searching inquiry. He condemns the military plans of every officer to whom Thomas was subordinate, from Buell to Grant, and makes in each case a contrast intended to be favorable to Thomas. He repudiates the theory that Thomas was modestly content with a secondary position, and insists that he constantly protested against the failure to intrust him with a chief command, until he took refuge in a surly and discontented silence, writing to Halleck during his service under Rosecrans: "I have made my last protest while the war lasts. You may hereafter put a stick over me if you choose to do so. I will take care, however, to so manage my command, whatever it may be, as not to be involved in the mistakes of the stick."

In like manner, the common and flattering opinion that the refusal to take Buell's command before the battle of Perryville in 1862 was only due to diffidence as to his own powers, combined with friendship and respect for Buell, is rudely shattered by the quotation of letters to Halleck in which his own embarrassment at taking command of an army on what he thought was the eve of a battle is made to count for much in his motives, his language being so strong as to declare it "unjust to myself," and placing him "in a situation to be disgraced." It does not seem to have occurred to Chaplain Van Horne that such phrases are more powerful than pages of argument to prove that Thomas shrank from responsibility, and lacked the proud confidence of ability to grasp and handle an army which the emergency offered to him. The point, however, with which we are now dealing is the strange misconception of what constitutes friendship for a deceased worthy, which enables the author to think that, in thus presenting him, he is doing honor to his memory. The strongest language of formal praise neither compensates for nor annuls the mischievous effect of what is thus given to the world as fact which cannot be disputed. The only question which others have raised is, whether Thomas had the spontaneity of action which responds instantaneously to every demand, or needed time to study the situation and make prolonged preparation before acting. His biographer forces upon us unwelcome doubts whether his modesty, his kindliness, and his self-forgetfulness were what we had all supposed them to be; and while the book lacks the closeness and cogency of argument needed to meet imputations of deficiency already made, it is unfortunate in suggesting grave criticisms which have not before been broached.

No better illustration can be given of the manner in which Chaplain Van Horne makes his narrative of facts contradict his conclusions from them than is found in the story of the battle of Perryville. It occurred, as will be remembered, a few days after Thomas had declined to relieve Buell of the command of the army; and partly, no doubt, in recognition of this, Buell had announced Thomas in general orders as second in command. The army was composed of three corps under Generals McCook, Gilbert, and Crittenden. Near Perryville Bragg so concentrated the Confederate army as to attack McCook, who was the left of Buell's army, and who was separated from Gilbert in the centre by a stream and a valley. Van Horne says:

"Three divisions had attacked the left of an army of eight divisions in line of battle, and yet one of these attacking divisions had wedged itself between six of these eight divisions on one side and two on the other, and, turning its back upon the six, had moved upon the flank of the other two. And while the conflict on the left of the national army was waxing hotter and hotter, not an order was given for two hours that directed support to the two isolated divisions. The fact that three divisions attacked an army of eight, and escaped severe punishment or capture, proves that grave errors were committed by responsible commanders in General Buell's army, and that a great opportunity was lost."

This seems clear and conclusive, but how does it affect General Thomas? We are told that Buell was three or four miles in the rear, behind intervening hills, so that he did not hear the noise of the battle. In fact, he was suffering from injuries received in being thrown by a vicious horse, and was nearly disabled. General Thomas was with Crittenden's corps, and on the line of battle. It was a time when an officer of quick decision and of bold and prompt action, seizing with firm grasp the forces in hand, could have used the glorious "opportunity for the capture or annihilation of Bragg's forces," as Van Horne himself calls it. The Chaplain says that "Crittenden had been urgent that his corps should advance against the enemy; but General Thomas had refused permission, for the assigned reason that he did not know the plans of the commanding general." It was a time to make plans and to execute them on the instant, and, had the second in command done it, there would have been no occasion for complaints that when Buell was a second time relieved, Rosecrans and not Thomas was assigned to the command of the army. Van Horne, a few pages later, echoes the general admiration for Colonel Miller's assumption of responsibility at Stone River, when he, "without orders from his immediate commander, and against the orders of another general of division, crossed the river in the face of the enemy, and in a brilliant charge drove Breckinridge's forces in rout far toward Murfreesboro." He does not seem to see that this was the sort of initiative that, by his showing of the facts, Thomas should have used at Perryville, and that the omission to use it was exactly the deficiency for which he has been criticised. The biographer's statement of the case is a stronger, because more circumstantial, proof of the mental slowness referred to than any one else has made.

In the treatment of the events of the week following the battle of Franklin, the same incongruity between facts and conclusions is noticeable. In opening his fourteenth chapter the author tells us that "on the first day of December General Thomas had in hand at Nashville all the troops available for battle, except a part of his cavalry that had been sent North to be remounted." That his army was decidedly superior in strength to Hood's is also admitted. Schofield had just given Hood a bloody repulse at Franklin which made it the opportunity to assume the aggressive, attacking the Confederates with the combined national army, of which one-half had administered the terrible lesson of the battle of the 30th of November. The President and General Grant exhorted and ordered an advance. As we have already stated, the only reason assigned by General Thomas for delay was his wish to add to his mounted force. He said that he was ready to fight on the 9th of December, but the icy storm which had then set in was the cause of further delay. Chaplain Van Horne treats it as if this had been the only delay Thomas desired, and as if he had succeeded in remounting his dismounted cavalry by that time. But the truth is, that the returns in the Adjutant-General's Office show that he reported no more mounted men on the 10th of December than on the 30th of November. The successful battle was, therefore, fought at last in obedience to the orders from Washington, and not because the preparation which General Thomas wished had been completed. The biographer's rhetoric lacks substantial basis when he asserts that "he preferred the loss of command to fighting before he had made preparation to crush Hood's army." The icy condition of the ground had intervened as a new obstacle, but the material "preparation" is not shown to have been better on the 15th than on the 1st of December. Chaplain Van Horne's talk of the need of giving the "semblance of unity to this heterogeneous mass" of Thomas's army, is an excuse which Thomas did not himself urge, and which, like many other of the biographer's assertions, is unfortunate, since the troops fought at last under the same organization which they had on the first of the month. The facts which are given all support the conclusion that the obedience to orders which gave battle on the 15th would have been equally easy a fortnight sooner, and that it would have been as feasible to attack Hood from the position of the Brentwood hills as soon as he had put the Harpeth River at his back, as it was to assail him afterward in his lines about Nashville.

The concluding chapters show a spirit toward General Schofield which is so little accounted for by any facts narrated as to make it another serious fault in the book. The correspondence between the two officers through the preceding part of the campaign exhibits only a mutual good understanding, and the most earnest efforts on the part of the subordinate to meet his commander's views. Schofield had carried out to the utmost Thomas's wish to gain time. He had made the retreat of his inferior force before Hood so slow that, with strange inconsequence, Van Horne makes it a reproach that he ran too great a risk at Spring Hill, where he gained a day by uncommon tenacity, and still brought off his little army safely. The day so gained was that which alone enabled Thomas to get Stedman's division to Nashville. Overtaken at Franklin, Schofield had punished Hood so severely, and with so small loss to himself, as to make the Confederate advance to Nashville, in the opinion of Beauregard, a wholly unjustifiable movement. When the icy storm after the 8th of December made movements so difficult, Schofield had sustained his superior in the decision to wait for a thaw, when the command of the whole army was on the point of being transferred to him.

In the face of these facts, which Chaplain Van Horne's narrative sufficiently reveals, he asserts that prior to a conference of officers held by Thomas on the day before the battle of Nashville, "and ever afterward, he regarded General Schofield as unfriendly to himself." Nothing could justify such an assertion except conclusive evidence to support it; for without it, the biographer would prove unworthy jealousy on the part of the superior, instead of anything wrong on the part of the subordinate. As, therefore, we look through the book in vain for proof of an act or a word on Schofield's part which was not of the heartiest subordination and friendship, we are forced to conclude again that the author has done his hero great injustice, and attributed to him sentiments and motives that General Thomas would himself have repelled.

After the war was over, we are told that General Schofield was assigned to a district which General Thomas desired for himself, and that the latter protested against a preference shown his junior by President Grant. But it also appears that General Schofield, on learning of General Thomas's wish, himself requested that it might be complied with. In this incident we still look in vain for evidence of unfriendliness on Schofield's part. Some five years after the close of the war, however, we are informed that a communication was printed in the New York *Tribune* criticising General Thomas's conduct of the Nashville campaign. This, Mr. Van Horne asserts, was believed by General Thomas to be attributable, "directly or indirectly," to General Schofield. Still later, in 1880, General Schofield addressed a letter to the Society of the Army of the Cumberland, in which, referring to Van Horne's 'History of the Army of the Cumberland,' he complained of what seemed a systematic ignoring of his position as commander of the army in the field from Pulaski to Nashville. The careful reader of Chaplain Van Horne's present book will be likely to see a much more close connection between these last-named facts and the charge of unfriendliness to General Thomas than will be found in anything narrated as occurring during the war, and will be likely to find the author obnoxious to the charge of retroactive unfriendliness on his own part, by which he has been led to a judgment of Schofield's motives and conduct in 1864 which his own narrative sufficiently refutes. In this, as in the other cases noted, he manages to injure General Thomas by attributing to him feelings in that campaign which, upon the evidence of their own correspondence, would be grossly unjust to General Schofield.

The most cursory examination of the story of the Nashville campaign as told in the present volume shows a laborious effort to depreciate the services of General Schofield. The biography is nowhere a critical examination of the campaigns touched upon; but in this last its omissions, its errors, and its glosses are multiplied. That it will be the end of controversy would be absurd to suppose. The various officers who are so freely attacked or belittled will have their say, and the weakness of many of the positions taken by Mr. Van Horne, sufficiently evident as they are in his own book, will be so exposed as necessarily to react against the reputation which he has tried to exalt.

One of the omissions is so noticeable as to demand special mention. As it was the author's avowed purpose "to give the well-defined reasons for his belief" that injustice had been done General Thomas, we naturally look for a careful and exact marshalling of the forces and means at his command during the period of a month prior to the battle of Nashville. The question between him and the War Department was, whether it was reasonable to expect greater activity from him and to look for better results. But we look in vain for the figures. There is a table in the appendix entitled "Extracts" from the morning reports, but this gives no statement of the forces in Tennessee prior to the 10th of December, and on the last-mentioned date gives only the troops alleged to be in line at Nashville. There is nowhere any account (that we have found) of the other forces in Tennessee, which General Thomas's official returns show to have been more than 26,000 men. Neither is there any reference to the fact that the same official returns show a force of nearly or quite 65,000 men in his command in Tennessee from the 20th to the 30th of November. To explain satisfactorily why these were not concentrated, what garrisons were necessarily kept at different posts, and the reasons for so doing, is certainly part of any "well-defined reasons" for insisting that the best possible course was pursued. But no such explanation and no such exhibits are given. We have abundance of superlative, if not extravagant, assertions of the absolute wisdom and vigor of whatever General Thomas did, and of the consummate character of his generalship, but this vital point in the whole argument is quietly ignored. If Chaplain Van Horne's opinion were conclusive of the matter, we might as well have stopped with the preface as to have read the volume; but since proof was promised, we can do no less than notice that it is signally absent in so important a place.

THE FOURTEENTH VOLUME OF THE BRITANNICA.

Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth edition. Vol. XIV. Kaolin—Lons-le-Saulnier. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THIS volume, like its predecessors, contains a considerable amount of matter sufficiently interesting and intelligible to be appreciated by all classes of readers, and perhaps a scarcely less considerable amount that will be found digestible by the special student only. The list of contributors comprises the names of a host of men of recognized eminence in the fields of letters and of science, but the number of really striking articles is comparatively limited. We notice in the department of Biography, Keats and Landor, both by Algernon Swinburne; Leonardo da Vinci (seven pages), by Prof. Sidney Colvin; Liebig (whose death is accidentally placed in the opening sentence in the year 1837, instead of in 1873), by Prof. Crum Brown; Leibnitz (six pages), by W. R. Sorley; Lessing, by James Sime; Locke (eleven pages), by Prof. A. C. Fraser; and Longfellow, by Thomas Davidson. Mr. John Bigelow and Col. John G. Nicolay furnish the biographies of La Fayette and Lincoln respectively. Among the more important geographical contributions are those on Kashmir, by Gen. Maclagan; Kurdistan, by Sir Henry Rawlinson; and Lhasa, by Col. Henry Yule. The complete account of London covers thirty-four pages. In the department of science—natural, physical, and mechanical—the contributions especially deserving of mention are Lichens, by the Rev. J. M. Crombie; Lighthouse, by Thomas Stevenson; Lizard, by Dr. Günther, of the British Museum; and Light, by Prof. P. G. Tait. It is interesting to note, that in this last article, which is the *pièce de résistance* of the volume, and which covers thirty-seven pages, the name of Tyndall does not occur a single time—a peculiarity that likewise distinguishes the article on Heat, by Sir William Thomson, in vol. xi. of the same work. It would certainly appear as though this ludicrous omission were the outcome of the famous controversy, Tait and Thomson *v.* Tyndall, fought some twenty years ago over the respective claims of Joule and Mayer to the honor of having discovered the principle of the conservation of energy. All, or nearly all, of the ornithological subjects are treated by Prof. Newton, of Cambridge; and the principal ones in mammalogy, such as Lemur, Lion, and Llama, by Prof. Flower. Mr. Glaisher, of the Meteorological Bureau, contributes Logarithms. Latin Language, by Prof. Wilkins, covers sixteen pages; Law, by Prof. Robertson, thirteen; and Logic, by Prof. Adamson, twenty-three.

The subject of Libraries has been well treated, in forty-two pages, by Messrs. Tedder and Thomas, both of whom have been secretaries of the Library Association of the United Kingdom. The statistics of the chief libraries of the world, with which it closes, are the most satisfactory portion. They are brought down to the latest time, and the authors' success in previous efforts of this kind makes it certain that they are trustworthy. Perhaps their work will repress for a time the erratic exuberance of the newspapers in this regard. Every one who is interested in the subject must have noticed the continual appearance of items on the number of volumes in the chief libraries, founded on the statistics sometimes of the last decade, sometimes of the last century, and sometimes of a distant future. At the risk of starting a new family of such paragraphs, and seeing statements which are true in 1882 repeated in 1892 or in 1902, when they will have been entirely falsified by the prodigious growth of libraries, we have prepared from the eighth and the ninth editions of the 'Encyclopædia' a comparative table of the number of libraries exceeding 100,000 at the two periods:

	1857.		1882.	
	No. of libraries.	Volumes in hundred thousands.	No. of libraries.	Volumes in hundred thousands.
Great Britain	6	1,413	12	3,296
France	8	1,801	15	4,528
Germany	19	4,289	45	11,349
Austria	4	780	7	1,744
Italy	8	2,431	25	4,162
America	0	0	12	2,305
The rest of the world	9	1,950	31	6,518
	54	12,664	147	33,902

It will be seen that France, though it has not gained so much as England in the number of libraries, has gained more in the number of volumes. The large increase in Italy probably comes from the conversion of monastic into public libraries, in which process several have often been united. America is all gain, and "the rest of the world" has gained more than the average.

The ten principal libraries were, in

1857.	Vols.	1882.	Vols.
Imperial Library, Paris	815,000	Imperial Library, Paris	2,290,000
British Museum, London	562,000	British Museum, London	1,500,000
Imperial Library, St. Petersburg	519,500	Imperial Library, St. Petersburg	1,000,000
Royal Library, Berlin	500,000	Royal Library, Munich	1,000,000
Royal Library, Munich	480,000	Royal Library, Berlin	(?) 750,000
Royal Library, Copenhagen	408,000	University Libr'y, Strassburg	513,000
Imperial Library, Vienna	365,000	University Libr'y, Leipzig	500,000
University Libr'y, Göttingen	360,000	Grand-duc'l Lib'y, Darmstadt	500,000
University Libr'y, Breslau	350,000	Royal Library, Copenhagen	482,000
Royal Library, Dresden	305,000	Imperial Library, Vienna	440,000

It will be seen that Munich and Berlin have changed places, and that Strassburg, Leipzig, and Darmstadt appear for the first time in the list of 1882, and crowd down Copenhagen and those below it.

The historical portion is as good as the statistical, although it suffers from the want of space inevitable in an encyclopædia. But the part devoted to Library management has lost most in this way, the manuscript, we have heard, having been cut down one half. As a result, the reader finds so much treated insufficiently, he so often is stopped just as he seemed to be coming to the root of the matter; that he is tempted to wish that library economy had been left out altogether, and the space saved added to history. No one is to blame. The 'Encyclopædia' could not afford more room; the subject cannot be treated in so little room. And when we see that in the previous edition Library architecture had only two pages out of sixty-one, and Library management only one and a half, it would be very ungracious to complain of the five and a half pages which Messrs. Tedder and Thomas have crammed full of valuable facts, including the latest discoveries and referring to the best sources of information. But for a complete treatise we must wait till Mr. W. E. A. Axon issues his library guide, which has been so long in preparation. That will appear, we hope, as soon as the English Library Association have reached as definite conclusions on classification as they have on cataloguing.

In common with the earlier volumes of the series, the present one shows the ill effects arising from publication without revision. Completeness, orthographic consistency, and correctness can scarcely be claimed for the 'Britannica.' Among the biographical omissions we notice the Australian traveller Leichhardt (perhaps intentionally omitted, on the strength of the sensational reports recently circulated as to his actual existence as a "wild man of the woods"), the African traveller and distinguished ornithologist Levaillant (there is no reference to a possible Vaillant), and the painter Koekkoek. George Eliot, whose death took place too late for insertion under "E," should have found a place under "L," but, strange to say, she is omitted. And, what must appear still more singular, not the remotest reference is made to her, either in name or person, in the article devoted to George Henry Lewes. Is this writer possibly an "illusion" in the eyes of Mr. James Sully? In the biographical notice of Sir Edwin Landseer we fail to notice any reference to the famous lions of Trafalgar Square, with which the name of the artist, as sculptor, was so long unpleasantly identified.

Geographical blemishes appear to be less numerous in the volume before us than in some of the earlier ones—a circumstance due, probably, more to the character of the subjects treated than to any special attainments on the part of the geographical contributors. Kinchinjunga, under its various orthographic forms, is completely wanting, whereas considerable space is devoted to Kilimanjaro. We likewise note the absence of Lochs Katrine and Lomond, both under their own names and "Loch," although we have a Como (in vol. vi.), and in the present volume a reference from Lago Maggiore to Maggiore. In the article on the Kuen-Lun Mountains (by "R. S.," presumably Richard Strachey) the summits of the Karakorum are stated to rise above 28,000 feet, but at the present time only one peak, Dapsang, is known to attain to that elevation. Lodz, the most rapidly-developed town in Russian Poland, is still credited with only 50,000 inhabitants (census of 1872), whereas numerous estimates made within the last few years have placed the population at from 80,000 to over 100,000 souls. As a specimen of *definite* historico-geographical information, may be cited the last statement under Kars, to the effect that "the fortress was again stormed by the Russians in the war of 1877-78." A piece of perplexing orthography is shown in the placing of Hungarian towns. We have the German Kaschau instead of the Hungarian Kassa, Leutschau instead of Löcse, and so on; yet in the bodies of these very same articles the references are more generally made to the Hungarian form first. Thus, Erlau appears as Eger, under Kaschau; Kaschau as Kassa, under Leutschau; Raab as Györ, under Kisfaludy (Károly); and Zemplin as Zemplén (only), under Kazinczy. In the last-named notice, only the one form Kassa is used, although beside it we have Eperies. In the article Lake, Mr. J. Y. Buchanan furnishes a considerable amount of valuable physiographical information; but the purely geographical data are very meagre, and in several instances decidedly erroneous. For instance, the maximum breadth of Lake Superior is given at 100 miles, instead of about 160; its area is stated to be "more than double" that of any other of the northern lakes, whereas, as a matter of fact, the areas of both Lakes Michigan and Huron, as compared with Superior, stand pretty much in the ratio of 2 to 3. The maximum depth given for Lake Baikal, 4,080 feet, is very much below the 12,000 to 13,000 now very generally accepted by both geographers and geologists. Nor is it exactly correct to state that the lake is situated "on the upper waters of the Lena," meaning thereby the Lower Angara, a tributary of the Yenisei. As examples of lakes of great elevation, we have Koko-Nor, 10,500 feet, and Titicaca, 12,500 ft.; but no men-

tion is made of the chain of lakes occupying the Thibetan plateau, at altitudes ranging from 14,000 to 16,000 feet, and of which the Tengri-Nor (15,190 feet) is the most prominent feature. In the article Lebanon, the author—Prof. Socin, associate editor with Baedeker of 'Palestine and Syria,' of the "Baedeker Series"—volunteers a considerable amount of geological information; but a novice would probably be somewhat puzzled to understand how, if the "rocks belong to the Middle Chalk system, and fall into four subdivisions," the "latest member" can be the "Eocene nummulite"; nor is the looseness of description at all lessened by the remark, further on, that Miocene and Pliocene deposits are also met with in various sections of the region. It may be noted here that "Limestone" is despatched in a very few words under Lime, and that "Limulus" finds no place either as such or as King-Crab; nor is there any reference to Crustacea.

SOME RECENT ELEMENTARY ASTRONOMIES.

Astronomy for Schools and General Readers. By Isaac Sharpless, Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy, Haverford College, and G. M. Philips, Principal State Normal School, West Chester, Pa. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

The Heavens Above: A Popular Handbook of Astronomy. By J. A. Gillet, Professor of Physics in the Normal College of the City of New York, and W. J. Rolfe, formerly Head Master of the High School, Cambridge, Mass. New York and Chicago: Potter, Ainsworth & Co.

Easy Star Lessons. By Richard A. Proctor. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

School Atlas of Astronomy. Comprising in twenty-one plates a Complete Series of Illustrations of the Heavenly Bodies. By Alex. Keith Johnston, LL.D., etc., etc., Geographer to the Queen. With an Elementary Survey of the Heavens, by Robert Grant, LL.D., F.R.S., Professor of Astronomy and Director of the Observatory in the University of Glasgow. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Professor Sharpless and Mr. Philips have put together a very presentable astronomy, but certain parts give evidence of crudeness and unfamiliarity with book-making which are not pleasant. The book shows in many ways that the authors have thoroughly familiarized themselves with the best recent works on astronomy. Some of the more difficult points in astronomy are well elucidated—the explanation of the opposite tide is particularly effective. By all odds the best feature is the frequent endeavor to engage the attention of the student in the matter of observations with the naked eye and with small telescopes: this might well have been attempted even more extensively. The simple phenomena of variable stars are well treated, and should enlist many observers. In describing the watch for meteors, attention should have been directed to the worth of observations of the time occupied in the flight of a meteor over a given arc of the heavens. The illustrations are well chosen, and, with the exception of a few worthless ones, excellent. Without systematic search, a few important inaccuracies are apparent. At page 121, the revolution of the earth and *sun* about their common centre of gravity is spoken of—meaning the earth and moon; page 223, the statement of the number of miles at which a foot-rule would subtend an arc of one second seems to need some emendation; page 268, Römer is said to be a German astronomer; page 167, it will give rise to a misapprehension to say that the outer satellite of Jupiter is generally eclipsed at every revolution, when the true state of the case is that it is eclipsed at every revolution during quite exactly three years, and then fails to be eclipsed during the same period following, and so on; page 163, the opposition of Jupiter is said to occur only once in twelve years; and it is only giving further currency to a popular misapprehension to say (page 26) that the nautical almanacs are issued from the national observatories, when only two or three of the minor publications of this sort are so issued, and all the more important ones have no connection whatever with the observatories under the auspices of the several governments. We should scarcely expect to find a book of this character open to grammatical criticism, but we might cite several instances in point. Aside from an occasional mis-reference, typographical errors of any account are not abundant. Rutherfurd is spelled wrong wherever it occurs; Seagrove should be Seagrave, and Commons's Common's; Humboldt is spelled in different ways on the same page. For the length of the tail of the great comet of 1881, 20° is nearer than 40°; and for *Pisces Austrinus* doubtless *Piscis Austrinus* is meant. With the correction of such errors, and the addition of a fuller index for convenience of general reference, the book may, in another edition, be made to rank among the best treatises for the use of elementary classes.

Of a much higher order is 'The Heavens Above,' by Professor Gillet and Professor Rolfe. The sections devoted to the sun, the spectroscope and the spectrum analysis, the moon, and comets are very full and well written. The authors could not have done better than draw so freely from Professor Young's 'Sun,' in making up the chapters relating to that body, but his views of the sun-spot periodicity should have been given also. Very rarely is an elementary scientific work issued with illustrations equal to those in this book, and the authors are quite correct in believing them unsurpassed in number, freshness, and beauty. Nor is that all, for they have been selected from such sources as carry with them a very desirable authority. The book would have been better if set in type a little larger, treating some of the topics less fully, if necessary to keep its size within a given limit. The pages relating to superior and inferior planets are too technical for a popular handbook, and the distinction between these planets, as regards their apparent motion, might better have been left with the simple and general statement that any planet, when in the part of its orbit nearest the earth, retrogrades, and when in the part furthest from the earth, advances. The book is better adapted to the purposes of the general reader than to class instruction, and the authors have thought well enough of their work to provide an index with very copious entries. By an important oversight, the sun's parallax is printed (page 148) "eighty-eight seconds"—or ten times its true magnitude. The book would have been quite as good if the twenty pages on the constellations had been omitted. The figures are unobjectionable in themselves, but they do not supply the place of more elaborate star-maps, and very few people will take the trouble to trace out star-configurations from them.

If one have a mind to learn the constellations, he could not do better than begin with such a book as Mr. Proctor's 'Easy Star Lessons.' He very rightly observes that no one can be said thoroughly to know the constellations until he is able to recognize them readily in all the varied aspects they present, and positions in which they are seen, at the different seasons of the year; and bearing in mind the difficulties and inconveniences of the ordinary method of memorizing the constellations, Mr. Proctor has drawn a series of forty-eight maps, arranged in sets of four for each month, showing what stars can be seen toward the north, toward the south, toward the east, and toward the west at a certain convenient hour every night in the year—the hour varying, of course, night by night. This affords an excellent way to emphasize the remembrance of star-configurations. The star-maps are carefully executed and in good taste, and printed in a tint which shows dark blue on direct light. It is a good thing to have drawn on all these maps the imaginary lines of the celestial sphere: the improbable directions in which so important a circle as the ecliptic lies, at some seasons of the year, become thereby thoroughly familiar. Had the literary part of the book been as well and appropriately executed as is the mechanical, the 'Easy Star Lessons' would have been better worthy of praise. Poetical quotations abound with apparently no other intent than that of impressing youthful readers with the notion that Mr. Proctor has some time made the acquaintance of the best authors. The out-of-door tracing of the constellations, and the vexatious attempts at comparing them with maps of any kind, will be found to inspire anything but sympathy with poetic imagery. Nor is a book of this elementary sort a suitable place to indulge adverse criticism: it is scarcely wise here, and surely in poor taste, to poke fun at Admiral Smyth; and we should have been better pleased with a more meagre showing of the special spite Mr. Proctor seems to entertain against Hevelius. There is no astronomer but recognizes the systematic unsystem of constellation and star names as faulty; but it is not much of a venture to say that anything different will never meet with universal adoption. However, after all his ridicule of a thing generally regarded as irremediable, one must confess to somewhat of curiousness to see what the new Proctor-constructed heavens would be.

Dr. Keith Johnston's 'School Atlas' is an old astronomy in new boards. The plates of the atlas have been carefully prepared with scientific accuracy, and nothing has been spared to make the prints perfect and precise. The representation of the zodiacal light is the only unfaithful print in the book, being about as much brighter than the thing itself as the electric arc outshines the wax taper. This is not at all different, however, from the way it is usually represented. The star-maps and star-clusters would be much more effective if put on a background of dark, instead of light, blue. The prefixed treatise on astronomy, by Dr. Grant—rather elaborate for a mere explanation of the accompanying plates—was doubtless very correct at the time of its original writing; but that time is now so long ago that it would have paid the publishers well to turn over the work to some competent person for revision previous to the recent American issue. Instead of that, all the constants of the older astronomy remain unchanged; less than half the present number of small planets are given, with nothing, of course, said about Peters as one of the chief discoverers of these bodies; Mars is dismissed with not a word about satellites; and the late researches on the solar parallax, the results from recent total solar eclipses, the discovery of oxygen in the sun, the new stars of 1866 and 1876, etc., etc. —all count for nought so far as this astronomy is concerned.

George Ripley. By Octavius Brooks Frothingham. [American Men of Letters Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo, pp. 321.

"It is not claimed," says Mr. Frothingham of the subject of his biography, "that he was a profound scholar, an original thinker even in his favorite department of philosophy, nor yet an accomplished man in the usual sense of the word. But it is claimed that he possessed the literary spirit in a remarkable degree; that his mind was singularly calm, even, capacious, and exact;

that he was a man of rare intelligence, and master of a pure style of English."

Mr. Ripley sprang from the family of Benjamin Franklin. His parents were poor, but they made a great effort and sent the boy to boarding-school, and afterward to college. His letters home do not give a pleasant idea of him at that time, as they are cold and egotistic, and without the healthy boyish fun natural to his age. He plans for no one but himself. He wants to go to Yale rather than Harvard, although he knows of the better literary facilities of the latter institution, because, he says, "the temptations incident to a college, we have reason to think, are less at Yale than at Cambridge." His father, however, thought differently, and sent him to Harvard, but he took a very solemn, not to say priggish, view of life there. When a frolic got his class into a scrape, he was one of the few who kept out of it. He studied hard, but he wrote to his sister that "a confinement to abstruse studies chills the ardor of feeling which is so necessary to the cultivation of the more kindly and tender affections." He graduated first in his class, and a little later we find him recurring to the grace with which he had "figured among the literati of Cambridge." He became engaged, and wrote to his sister that "a just regard to prudence does not forbid us to cherish an attachment which has long been the secret of our hearts," and requested her "to expound all the circumstances" to his parents. His sister's letter he speaks of as "an auspicious event," and alludes to the blessings of a kind Providence given to his own active, personal, patient efforts. It would be unjust, however, to judge the man by these amusing youthful lucubrations, the formalism of which was largely due to his time: for he soon outgrew this early narrowness and egotism.

Unitarianism was the topic of the day, and at Harvard Ripley became fully imbued with its spirit—both its virtues and its failings. He was soon settled over a new society in Boston, and his slender figure was regularly seen

"wearing in summer the flowing silk robe, in winter the dark-blue cloak, of the profession, walking with measured step from his residence in Rowe Place toward the meeting-house in Purchase Street. The face was shaven clean, the brown hair curled in close, crisp ringlets; the face was pale as if with thought. Gold-rimmed spectacles concealed the black eyes. The head was alternately bent and raised."

He could not have much resembled the New York editor of later years. He soon became intimate with Theodore Parker, but

"they were very different men. One was engrossed in books; the other was full of action. One was contemplative, . . . quiet, thoughtful; the other was impetuous. One was silent; the other was outspoken. One was cautious to the verge of timidity; the other was bold to the verge of rashness. One was a thinker, taking no part in agitation, political or social; the other was a reformer, eager to apply his ideas to laws and institutions. But their faith in one another was constant."

Mr. Ripley had little of Parker's personal influence. His sermons were neither brilliant nor enthusiastic. His creed was founded on rational investigation, and not on a revival of religious zeal; and he naturally found it hard to interest people in his quiet discussion of abstract doctrines which were not essential to salvation. The extreme sensitiveness of the time forbade him to speak in the pulpit of the questions of communism and slavery, on which he felt most strongly. He was chilled and hampered by restraints that he could not break through, and his ministry of nearly fourteen years was not a successful one. His letter of resignation is a remarkably clear statement of the difficulties which Unitarianism had to meet. It is written in a simple, impartial style, rising at the close to eloquence, as he tells his people that he cannot behold the degradation of one part of the community and the indifference of the other "without the sad conviction that the spirit of Christ has well-nigh disappeared from our churches, and that the fearful doom awaits us, 'Inasmuch as ye have not done it unto one of the least of these, ye have not done it unto me.'" Under the influence of these feelings he naturally threw himself soon after into the socialism of the day, and became the head of the Brook Farm Community.

Mr. Frothingham tells us a good deal about this experiment, dwelling upon its practical side and its freedom from communistic extremes. The whole thing has a dilettante air to us, like Dresden-china shepherdesses, but it was sober earnest to the Ripleys. Mrs. Ripley, a woman of rare intelligence, exhausted her strength in the laundry, while her husband milked the cows, an occupation which he thought "eminently favorable to contemplation, particularly when the cow's tail was looped up behind." The inevitable failure turned Mr. Ripley adrift in middle life, disillusioned and in debt—even his library swept away. In the revulsion of feeling, his wife, who had not long to live, went over to Catholicism, but such a change was impossible for the judicial mind of Mr. Ripley. His liberalism was a fundamental element in his character, and, although he was satisfied that one embodiment of it was impossible, he retained its principles all through his life.

He soon obtained work on the *Tribune*, but it was for a time a severe struggle for bare existence. Five dollars every other week was the scant reward of his first exertions, which soon, however, became ten dollars a week, and at last a fair income. He was the first of the notable literary critics of the daily press. He was one of the editors of the 'American Cyclopædia,' and he was engaged as editor or critic in many other works. His was no creative genius, no aspiring imagination, but he understood the limits of his own powers, and made the most of them. He had the austerity and love of humanity of New England's earlier days, stripped of her theological narrowness. The failure of the religious and socialistic phases of his early life was due more to the age than to himself; the success of the latter part of it was wholly his own; and it is pleasant to think that his declining years were brightened by the happy disposition and social powers of his second wife.

Political History of Recent Times, 1816–1875, with special reference to Germany. By Wilhelm Müller, Professor in Tübingen. Revised and enlarged by the author. Translated, with an Appendix covering the period from 1876 to 1881, by the Rev. John P. Peters, Ph.D. Harper & Bros. 1882.

THIS comprehensive volume is a translation of the third edition of Prof. Müller's 'Politische Geschichte der neuesten Zeit,' with not inconsiderable changes, and an addition drawn almost exclusively from the same author's annual publication on the 'Politische Geschichte der Gegenwart,' of which fifteen volumes have appeared. The space allotted to Germany in the original is somewhat abridged, that allotted to England and one or two other states slightly enlarged, and the history of the United States entirely omitted. In the addition the American writer has "followed his own discretion in his selection and mode of presentation"—very wisely, we believe; for Prof. Müller, whose historical impartiality deserves the greater commendation the more remote the period of which he writes, is not an altogether trustworthy guide through the political history of the most recent time, which in his year-books he treats more like an ardent German nationalist and wilful partisan of Bismarck than like an independent historian. Wilhelm Müller himself would never have penned remarks like the following on the Prussian royal rescript of January, 1882:

"This extraordinary rescript, affecting primarily Prussia and secondarily the Empire, faithfully reflected the reactionary policy of the Chancellor. Officials and private individuals were decorated for activity in assisting Government candidates or inventing monarchical theories. . . . The native press scarcely ventured to comment upon the rescript, and various foreign papers which criticised it too freely were confiscated. The press censorship was so exercised as to bring attacks on the Government policy under the head of libels of the sovereign or his ministers."

The Professor is fair enough when speaking of Frederic William IV., of whom he neatly narrates how, in March, 1848, curbed by the revolution, he "descended from his heavenly heights and became like one of us"; or even of the merciless courts-martial held under the auspices of his brother William on the captured leaders of the Baden insurrection of 1849; but in those years the King of Prussia still spurned the crown of united Germany, William had not yet fought at Sadowa or Sedan, and Bismarck was far from being the arbiter of the destinies of Europe before whom German liberalism must bow in reverence. Prof. Müller's liberalism indulges freely in pictures of earlier reactions, especially non-German, as in the following sketch of things in the Kingdom of Sardinia, on the return of the legitimate King after the downfall of Napoleon I.:

"By a royal edict all French laws and institutions, whatever they might be, were at once abolished, and in their stead was sought out, like a wonder-working relic, the Constitution of 1770, with its intolerance, its caste distinctions, its wheel and quartering; and by its tangle of antiquated laws an incomparable chaos was introduced. Suits which had been decided before the French courts of final appeal were reopened, and business thus made a prey of a depressing uncertainty. Cloisters which had been turned into factories were given back to the Capuchins; famine was remedied by processions and crowns of thorns. The Jesuits again gained possession of the schools, and the most talented professors of the University of Turin had to give up their positions. In the grand opera-house, the Queen, who was her husband's master, permitted only the nobility to attend the representations, and to them places were assigned according to the length of their pedigrees. In Turin . . . the soldiers of 1800 were called back, as though the commanders could regulate the very calendar. They even wanted to tear down the splendid bridge which Napoleon had built over the Po at Turin, and no passes were given for the road over Mont Cenis, in order, forsooth, that this Napoleonic work might fall into decay. The department officials, in their Francophobia, threw the furniture of their predecessors out of the windows and the royal gardener was too good a Legitimist not to root out and destroy all French plants in the botanical gardens."

The extract may also serve to show our readers the plain and easy way in which the author presents historical facts, grouping them so as to make them tell their own lesson, and avoiding dogmatism and the inculcation *ex cathedra* of political maxims and doctrines. The various sections of the work are not entirely even and symmetrical, and some portions are perhaps slightly overladen with details, while others could still be improved by amplification; but every part is pleasantly readable, lucid, and wholly free from rhetorical bombast and unmeaning phrases, such as generally disfigure histories written, as this is, for general use. If we add that the knowledge of the author is ample for his task, his method and arrangement correct, and his judgments generally sound and fair, it will hardly be necessary to add that we consider the publication before us a great service

rendered to the American public. As shown in a prefatory note, to President White, of Cornell University, belongs the merit of originating the publication, and he also seems to have aided the translator in his labor. In selecting Müller's book as one "which should give to thoughtful students a view, large but concise, of the political history of Continental Europe in the nineteenth century," he certainly did the right thing; and the work of translating, abridging, and completing has also been executed with ability and literary fidelity, although it is not free from blemishes.

The translator's transliteration of foreign names, such as cannot be rendered in their vernacular form, is, it is true, better than in many a similar translation or compilation from the German or French, but it is still very defective. We find the German forms *Medschid*, *Tundscha*, and *Dobrudscha* changed into "Medshid," "Tundsha," and "Dobrudsha," but not into the correct English Medjid, Tunja, and Dobrudja. Kulja appears both in its correct form (p. 485) and as Kuldsha (p. 575); Russia's Chancellor as Gortchakoff, correctly, in one section, and as Gortschakoff in another; Khosrev as *Ch*osrew, and Vorontzoff as *W*oronzow. Mixed German and English forms appear in "Karzoff," "Nachimoff," and "*Ch*arkoff." The *ch* which in the last two names represents the German guttural, approximately expressed by *kh* in English, is used in its English value in "*Ch*ernayeff" (for Tchernayeff) and "Cherkassky," while elsewhere we find "*Tch*erkesses," etc. We also find "*S*assulitch" (for Zassulitch), "Kasanlik," "*S*abalkanski," "Menzikoff" (for Mens*h*ikoff), and the strange form "Chettinye," a transliteration of the Italian *Cetigne*, as the name of the capital of Montenegro. The names of the Poles Wysocki and Dwernicki are disfigured by the dropping of the *c*, which in Polish has the value of *tz*. These errors may be misprints, of which there are many, especially in the chapter on the war of 1866, where we find "Trantenau" (for Trautenau), "Brannau," "Reinerg" (Reinerz), "Nicholsburg" (Nikolsburg), Iglav (Iglau), etc., some of the blunders being repeated many times. A worse blunder is "Brunswick" (p. 499) for Braunsberg, or "Temesman" for Temesvár.

On page 158 "Capudan Pasha" appears as a proper name, which it is not, and on page 142 the value of "20,000,000 Polish gulden" is magnified almost fourfold by making its equivalent to be "between nine and ten million dollars." We must also point out the very capricious and indiscriminate use of German, French, and other names in Swiss geography—witness page 169, where we see side by side "Aargau" and "Thurgovia," "St. Gallen" and "Soleure," "Switz" and "Ausser-Schwyz," "Basle city" and "Basle-landschaft," while page 492 has "Basel," and, instead of "Soleure," "Solothurn." Of Germanisms, we notice the constant use of "robbers" and "robbery," in speaking of brigands and brigandage in Italy, and of "nuntius" for *nuncio*, and such expressions or phrases as "over-president of Prussia" (p. 166), "then it rained political notes" (p. 170), "102 voices in favor" (p. 465), or "the Left stormed the Ministry with appeals" (p. 476). To hasty abridgment we must ascribe a tissue of chronological blunders in the account of "the meeting of Emperor William with Francis Joseph, in Ischl and Salzburg, in 1871," and "the meeting of the three Emperors . . . in Berlin, in September" of the following (not "of that") year, which, again, "was followed by return visits from the German Emperor in St. Petersburg and Vienna," and "complemented by a visit from Victor Emmanuel," but not "toward the close of the same month," and not even in either 1871 or 1872. Prof. Müller's chronology is, with very rare exceptions, correct, though the dates given are numerous. An index of the principal dates has been supplied by the translator, as well as a general index of matters and a complete index of persons—additions which further enhance the great value of the work.

English Studies; or, Essays in English History and Literature. By the late J. S. Brewer, M.A., Preacher at the Rolls, Professor of English Literature and Modern History in King's College, London. London: John Murray.

To Mr. Brewer must be assigned a rank of conspicuous eminence among recent investigators who, as editors and commentators, have assisted in rendering generally accessible materials for English history which they have been the first to put in print. Even his labors in connection with the 'Letters and Papers of the Reign of Henry VIII.' would have distinguished him honorably in his favorite line of research, and yet the bulky volumes so entitled bear witness to only a fraction of his prodigious industry. In the list of his numerous publications occur the works of Gerald of Barri, the inedited remains of Roger Bacon, the 'Monumenta Franciscana'; and the 'Registrum Malmburiense,' to all of which, what with his varied learning and his critical scholarship, he was admirably qualified to do full justice. As a writer of Latin, he has had few equals in modern times, while his 'Nicomachean Ethics, with English Notes,' which appeared as long ago as 1836, attests his proficiency as a Grecian.

By collecting in a permanent form some of his minor and occasional prolusions, his friend the Rev. Prof. Wace has manifested an esteem for comparative trifles in which, probably, not very many will participate. Mr. Brewer is certainly not seen at his best in his contributions to the *Quarterly* and *National* Reviews and in his lectures, pleasant enough as they mostly are to wile away a few of one's spare hours. At the same time, there is too frequent call on his readers—unless they be Englishmen, and rather obsolescent Englishmen—to summon up all their forbearance, if they would not be repulsed by his effusive homage to crowned heads, good, bad, and indifferent, and by his acid scorn of republicans and Nonconformists. Of course, he regards Mr. J. R. Green, the historian, with horror well-nigh unmitigated. His two articles on Shakspere will, we imagine, be preferred to everything that precedes and follows them, though the lecture on "Ancient London" would be scanted of its due if not particularized as meritorious.

Yet, even when he discourses on Shakspere, his straitened sympathies and his enthusiasm land him, here and there, in conclusions which stand but ill with equity or reasonableness. Referring to the poet's reserve touching a future state of retribution, he more than hints a conviction that he was, therein, "like Bacon, unconsciously exhibiting the Calvinistic tendency, the downward and disorganizing progress, of his age, by substituting man for God, as the great centre of this universe, as the sole and engrossing subject of human interest." Elsewhere, in the exaggerant tone of that debasing hero-worship which so specially discredits our age, he asserts of Shakspere that "none but he [*sic*] could have conceived how a spirit would or should talk." Of the degree in which he could express himself recklessly there is another illustration where he says: "To Bacon it was enough that any theory, any opinion, any fact should be generally accepted, to be unceremoniously rejected." But did Bacon deny that two and two make four? Did he repudiate Christianity? And did not he cling to geocentricism, which was still prevailingly current in his day, ridiculing Copernicus and his adherents as "those carmen which drive the earth about"? Nor can we find anything better than a silly sacrifice of truth to antithesis in the remark that "the world is pretty fairly divided between the men who have brains and no facts, and the men who have facts and no brains." Somewhat characteristically, for a native of Great Britain, he predicates of his countrymen their "national love for fair play," and also their "intense curiosity and thirst for seeing things and men from all points of view and in all aspects"; and he speaks of them as "preferring to look at things as they are, even in their nakedness and weakness, to any theories or notions or systems about them."

As a college professor of English literature, Mr. Brewer ought to have employed his mother-tongue in a way not open to obvious exception; and his use of it has repeatedly been eulogized by critics. At most, however, it can be conceded, in his favor, only that he was not more slipshod and wordy than, for instance, Mr. Freeman or Mr. Froude. His "builded," "doubtlessly," "hodiernal," "hunger-starved," and "unbark," to which may be added "the poet's *immature* death," and "to *that* degree," for "to *such a* degree," are surely out of place in good modern prose. "Allude," for "refer," is, further, a vulgarism into which he trespassed; and he seems to have thought that "exponent" signifies "explanation, solution, or key." Out of thirty or forty sentences in his Essays which we have marked as objectionable on some ground or other, it will suffice to transcribe half-a-dozen: "He was as remorselessly and effectually crushed, and with as little consideration and afterthought, *as the king of the forest might tread* upon an insect" (p. 137). "The most accessible *person* in her kingdom, *her ears*, like her palace, were open to all comers" (p. 145). "Thus, within a very brief space, English literature, as represented by the drama, experienced a sudden and entire transformation, *such as no other period affords the like*" (p. 224). "*Like* the Greeks, also, the sun was the chief object of their national worship" (p. 389). "We may see how their pride, or presumption, or tyranny, *have* been followed by punishment" (p. 398). "Would he not be *liable* to neglect the most important mechanism for its apparent insignificance?" (p. 403). Can it be that we have an exemplary stylist in a writer whose pages abound with such English as has just been quoted?

Christenthum, Volksglaube, und Volksbrauch. Geschichtliche Entwickelung ihres Vorstellungsinhaltes. Von Julius Lippert. Berlin: Hofmann. 1882.

In this volume Professor Lippert presents the third in a series of studies upon the origin of religious beliefs and observances. In the first of these studies his aim was to illustrate the development of such ideas from an original soul-worship in the case of the Jews, and in the second to apply the same hypothesis to the civilized races of Europe—the Lithuanians, Slavs, Germans, Greeks, and Romans. And now his purpose is to show that the religious conceptions of Christianity as expressed in its traditional ceremonies, and also in those observances whose origin is later, are derived from conceptions previously existing in the religions it displaced. His point of view is that of opposition to the two theories of an origin in philosophical speculation and in mythological conceptions. His thesis, which all three volumes are designed to prove, is that all religions, no matter how various

in their present form, are more or less complete developments from one and the same original idea of soul-worship.

"By means of the same logical process, the Zulu has come to the same fundamental ideas as the Greek, only, in conformity with the progress of his social and intellectual life, he came earlier to a standstill in the collection and combination of the elements of these ideas."

Although Lippert stoutly maintains that his method has been a purely inductive one, still one is forced to the belief that the inductive process was suggested and guided by a preconceived theory. The conclusions here reached are such, we venture to say, as no one without this particular bee in his bonnet would ever have arrived at. A mass of interesting material is accumulated—that no one can deny—but, with all this, the thesis that Christianity had nothing essentially its own to offer by which the spirit of all that it borrowed from earlier beliefs was modified and made fruitful, is not proved.

The Modern Appliances of Electricity. By E. Hospitalier. Translated and enlarged by Julius Maier, Ph.D., Science Master Cheltenham College. D. Appleton & Co.

THIS treatise has the faults of most of the recent French works on the application of electricity. The matter contained in it is poorly digested, and valuable space is given to elaborate illustrations where smaller cuts, and even diagrams, would have answered. The Brush machine, for instance, has two full-page illustrations of its external appearance. Moreover, the machine is fully described twice in the book. To the uninitiated these illustrations give no idea of the actual construction of the machine. The exuberance of illustration is most strikingly shown in the pictures of the photophone. Another and more serious fault consists in the descriptions of apparatus which, on careful examination, would be shown to be unworthy of extended notice, or even notice at all. Some of this apparatus never performed satisfactorily the work for which it was intended. Long extracts, also, are made from *Engineering* and from *Nature*, where short abstracts would have sufficed. Notwithstanding these defects, the reader will find here much that is not contained in other treatises.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alcott, Louisa M. Proverb Stories. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Alcott, Louisa M. Aunt Jo's Scrap-Bag, An Old-Fashioned Thanksgiving, etc. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
A Transplanted Rose: a Story of New York Society. Harper & Bros.
Baldwin, J. The Story of Siegfried. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Beard, D. C. What to Do and How to Do It. The American Boy's Handy Book. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Blaisdell, E. W. The Hidden Record: a Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1 25.
Bulfinch, T. The Age of Fable; or, Beauties of Mythology. Revised by E. E. Hale. Boston: S. W. Tilton & Co. $2 50.
Conway, M. D. Travels in South Kensington. With Notes on Decorative Art and Architecture in England. Harper & Bros.
Cummins, Miss M. S. Nobody. Robert Carter & Bros.
Eastern Question; or, An Outline of Mohammedanism. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Farrar, F. W. The Early Days of Christianity. In two vols. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. $5.
Fenn, G. M. Off to the Wilds. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1 75.
Fisher, G. P. The Christian Religion. Charles Scribner's Sons. 30 cents.
Folkard, C. W. Potable Water: Methods of Detecting Impurities. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Guenon on Milch Cows. Orange Judd Co. $1.
Hallam's and May's Constitutional Histories of England. Each in two vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $5.
Hardaway, W. A. Essentials of Vaccination, and its Influence in the Prevention of Smallpox. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.
Hays, Mrs. W. J. A Domestic Heroine: a Story for Girls. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Hayward, Almira L. Chimes and Rhymes for Holiday Times. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. $1.
Holland, H. S. Logic and Life, with Other Sermons. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Howells, W. D. A Modern Instance. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Jean Ingelow Birthday Book. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Kinns, S. The Harmony of the Bible with Science. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. $3.
Kürschner, J. Deutsche National-Literatur. 1. Stuttgart: Spemann; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 50 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. cliv. July-September, 1882. Boston: Littell & Co.
Macdonald, G. Weighed and Wanting. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Marsh, George P. Works. 3 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.
Proctor, R. A. Easy Star Lessons. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.
Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1880. Washington.
Russell, W. Orthophony; or, Vocal Culture. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Saintsbury, G. A Short History of French Literature. Macmillan & Co. $2 25.
Sawyer, Prof. W. C. Practical German Grammar. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Scudder, H. E. The Bodley Grandchildren and their Journey through Holland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Shoemaker, Mrs. J. W. The Elocutionist's Annual, No. 10. Philadelphia: National School of Elocution and Oratory. 25 cents.
Stephen, L. Swift. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros.
Stern—Meras. Étude Progressive de la Langue Française. Henry Holt & Co.
Stockton, F. R. Ting-a-Ling. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Stoddard, W. O. The Talking Leaves: An Indian Story. Harper & Bros.
Trollope, A. Kept in the Dark. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Van Horne, T. B. The Life of Major-General George H. Thomas. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Verne, J. The Giant Raft. Part 2. The Cryptogram. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Waldo, L. Multiplication and Division Table. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Walpole, C. G. A Short History of the Kingdom of Ireland. Harper & Bros.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 26, 1882.

The Week.

THE Attorney-General, as the result of his investigation of the Star-route bribery charges, has, it is said, made up his mind to arrest Dickson, the foreman, Brown, one of the jury, Fall, at one time an employee of the Department, and Shaw, who is charged with having approached one of the jurors. There is no question that persons formerly connected with the Department are gravely implicated in the charges; but then the very plausible theory on the other side is that men like Fall got positions in the Department for the express purpose of making it appear as if those in charge of the investigation were engaged in an attempt to corrupt the jury. The ease with which irresponsible men get positions at Washington makes work of this kind much easier than it would be if changes were not frequent and arbitrary. There is, of course, something monstrous in the idea that the Star-route conspirators could ever have expected to make people believe that Messrs. MacVeagh, James, and Brewster were engaged in a corrupt conspiracy against them; but it must be remembered that this was not necessary. All that they actually needed was to throw a cloud of doubt about the verdict; this they certainly have succeeded in doing, by what means remains to be proved.

The activity of the Prohibitionists in Pennsylvania and Ohio seems to be increasing, and there is evidently to be in both these States this winter a powerful agitation in favor of a constitutional amendment prohibiting the manufacture, importation, or sale of alcoholic drinks. The excitement of the women in Ohio on this subject is now said to be reviving, and they promise a vigorous campaign. Curiously enough, however, one finds nowhere in their speeches or documents any indication of concern about the means of executing the prohibitory law in case they get it passed, and this in the very presence of the disastrous failure in Ohio, during the last winter, to execute a very much milder measure than the one they propose. This apparent indifference to the question of means—which is, in the temperance field, as abundant experience has shown, the main question—gives the agitation an almost childish air. They know that an act of the Legislature or constitutional amendment without a far more powerful and vigilant police than any one has as yet proposed or talked of, will be of really no use to them whatever. They know that if voted, the majority in its favor will be largely composed of persons who will rely on its not being executed, and will chuckle over its failure, and yet they do not say a word about the machinery by which these hypocrites are to be disappointed.

Whittaker, the young impostor who, two years ago, got West Point put "on its trial," and extracted so many terrible articles from some of our contemporaries about "caste," and cruelty, and prejudice, after having been found guilty by two military courts, and expelled from the Academy, took, like so many of the recent escaped criminals and notorious reprobates, to lecturing. He seems to have failed on the platform, and has now actually gone back to South Carolina and turned Bourbon, and, what is funnier than all, is received with respect by the white man's press in that State. The Charleston *News and Courier* "commends to the white and colored people of the State" a very impudent letter from him, which it publishes, advising the colored people to abandon the "Radicals," whom he abuses, and to whom he says he "owes nothing," and join their true friends, the Democrats. The *News and Courier* says it "shall watch Cadet Whittaker's career with interest, and with hopeful curiosity." This, we must say, is a queer occupation for a white man, not on the police force, to propose for himself. All the instruction to be got from Whittaker's career can be found in the report of his trial at West Point.

The verdict rendered on Thursday in the suit of Miss Prescott against the American News Company will not be likely to do very much for the vindication of the sanctity of private character unless it is followed by a prosecution of Harvier, who was the author of the libel. The News Company will have to pay a heavy sum for having circulated the newspaper containing the libel, but, as it circulates thousands of newspapers, and cannot possibly know what is contained in them, the rule of law which makes it responsible for their contents makes it practically responsible for the general tone of the press—a matter over which it has no control. Still, there is no doubt about the rule of law, and as news companies must go on selling newspapers of all sorts, published, too, in many cases, by perfectly irresponsible men, the only way in which they can protect themselves is by prosecuting to the extent of the law any one who gets them into trouble of this kind. The elevation of the drama through dramatic journalism as at present practised is likely to be a slow process at the best, but the more Harviers there are in jail the more rapidly will it proceed. The News Company made a glaring mistake in attempting to justify—that is, in reaffirming a libel which they did not originally put forth, and which they only circulated as common carriers. For this mistake they are now called upon to pay $12,500—a greater sum, we think, than was ever actually collected in any libel suit in this country. Juries have scant sympathy with plaintiffs who bring suits for libel against parties who are only technically guilty, as the News Company was in this case. If the defendant had admitted the circulation of the paper containing the libel, and proved, as it could easily have done, that it was free from "express malice," and rested there, it is not likely that the verdict would have been for more than six cents damages. Justification in such cases is always dangerous, and especially so where a woman's reputation is involved.

Frank James, in surrendering to the Governor of Missouri, announced that it was his intention, if pardoned, to reform, and do what he could to help in the enforcement of the laws he had so long been engaged in violating. The Governor said, in reply, that he must be tried first, as he could not be pardoned in advance of conviction. As Frank has committed a number of murders of the most unprovoked kind, it is fair to assume that a trial would result in a conviction, and that the question whether he shall be hung or pardoned will shortly arise. Now, all penologists are agreed that in the case of habitual criminals everything depends on the occupation which the criminal selects after being allowed to return to society, and that regular employment at some steady industry is essential as a guarantee of complete reformation. The story, therefore, that Frank proposes to go upon the stage cannot but cause alarm to the friends and well-wishers of the young man, as well as to society at large. The Ford boys, who murdered Frank's brother Jesse, immediately went upon the stage, so far as to exhibit themselves at a museum in this city, and it is some such dramatic career as this, no doubt, which Frank now contemplates. It would, we feel confident, be full of peril and temptation to him, and there is no saying how soon the excitement of museum life would arouse in him those predatory and homicidal instincts which he has had such difficulty in overcoming. He may imagine that his case is like that of a professional beauty doing *Rosalind*, or an agnostic coming out as *Hamlet*, but the difference is very great.

Western papers complain of the acts of vandalism constantly committed by visitors of the Yellowstone Park. It is said that several of the magnificent geysers have been greatly injured if not totally destroyed by people who thrust the trunks of trees into the apertures for the purpose of seeing the water force them out again, and that in this way—the logs sticking fast in the subterranean channels—the spouting of some geysers has been entirely stopped. It is also said that sportsmen, especially Englishmen, visiting the Park, amuse themselves by indiscriminately and needlessly slaughtering the game there, leaving the carcasses on the ground. These complaints are undoubtedly in a great measure well founded. In addition to the destruction of the geysers and the slaughtering of the game, the park is suffering much from forest fires set by mischievous or careless tourists. Of late years the Interior Department, under whose care the Yellowstone Park is placed by law, has made various efforts to prevent, or at least limit, this vandalism. Congress was asked to provide funds for the organization of a park police, and for such other measures as would be required to protect the game in the park, which outside of it is rapidly disappearing. But, in Congress, very little interest was taken in the subject. All things considered, it would probably be best to put the park under the supervision of the War Department, with authority to establish a small military post within the limits of it. A small

force of mounted men could be used as park police, at least provisionally, and an intelligent officer in command might efficiently serve as Superintendent of Public Works in laying out bridle paths and building roads and bridges. Something of this kind should be done soon, for the work of destruction in the most interesting part of our mountain regions is evidently going on at a rapid rate. The Yellowstone Park was set apart as a great pleasure-ground for the enjoyment and instruction of the American people. No country in the world can boast of anything like it. It should certainly not be permitted to go to waste and ruin.

The *Sun* reports a scene said to have recently been witnessed in the General Land Office at Washington. The Commissioner, Mr. McFarland, touches his bell and sends for a certain clerk who is "credited to Virginia." The clerk appears and the meaning of the summons is at once revealed to him. "I am sorry to have to say to you that your place is wanted," says the Commissioner. And to the unfortunate clerk's question why his place is wanted, the Commissioner replies: "I do not know why. You are faithful, competent, and satisfactory, and I am willing to give you an endorsement to that effect. But Senator Mahone wants the place for a friend. You will have to surrender it, for I am powerless in this matter." This is the tale told by our contemporary. It exhibits the spoils system with its finest flower —the Senatorial boss—in the highest state of development. Senator Mahone, the chief of the progressive Repudiationists in Virginia, "wants a place for a friend." Mahone is engaged in a political fight in his State, and he wants to encourage his followers by the distribution of rewards. Whether that "friend" is mentally and morally fit to perform the duties of the place "wanted" for him is a matter of no consequence: he must be appointed. And, in order to make room for him, another man must be removed. That other man is a "faithful, competent, and satisfactory" public servant. But that is a matter of no consequence: he must go. And the chief of the bureau in which this outrage is perpetrated stands by and says regretfully: "I do not know why this must be. I am powerless in this matter." Is there a sensible man in the country who will not admit that such scandals must be put an end to? Ex-Senator Simon Cameron thinks that civil-service reform is all nonsense, and that the spoils system as it now exists is all right, for it "gives poor young men a chance." Here is an illustration: it gives Boss Mahone's political favorite a chance. But where is the chance of the "faithful, competent, and satisfactory" clerk who must yield his place to the favorite of the boss? And where is the chance of the public service?

There is one thing about the Butler campaign in Massachusetts this year as to which the meetings and speeches leave no room for doubt, and that is that everybody enjoys it thoroughly, and no one more than the General himself. He evidently does not expect to be elected; but he has been off on a yacht voyage and come back full of good health and good spirits, feeling, as he said himself in his Faneuil Hall speech, "exceedingly happy." High spirits are always contagious, and his followers have caught them from him, and fairly bubble over with delight whenever he addresses them. It is not often that a candidate can have such a thoroughly good time as he is now having, for generally he is oppressed with a sense of the responsibility of his position; but nobody, from the General down, feels any more responsibility for this campaign than the celebrated General Boum did in Gerolstein for those which he conducted. The General is, in fact, probably the only man in the United States who can say just what he likes on any subject without any fear of the consequences, and is actually doing it. He poked a great deal of fun at the press the other night at Faneuil Hall, suggesting that if the editors of all newspapers would consult each other before writing their editorials there would be less "diversity of opinion" among them; then he touched in a jocular way on polygamy, and hinted, to the great delight of his audience, that there was a good deal of that sort of thing in Massachusetts; then, returning to the newspapers, he gave some illustrations of their diversities of opinion, showing how one editor declared that his letter of acceptance was very shrewd, another that it was very weak, another that it was very audacious, and another that it was not audacious at all; all of which, he said, looked as if he must resemble John the Baptist, who was declared by the Pharisees of his time first to be possessed by a devil because he neither ate nor drank, and then to be a wine-bibber and glutton because he did both. Ben, however, takes it all much more comfortably than John ever did, for he says in his cheerful way, "Now, my friends, don't you think I had a right to enjoy this?" Branching off from this on civil-service reform, the merry old man suggested that it "never would have been necessary" if parties had "changed once in four years"—a sentiment which called out loud cries of "Good, good," from the audience—because, he added, "changing the officers as often as you change the President" would have been "sufficient for reform."

It is hardly necessary to mention that the General is in favor of "protection to American labor," which he proposes to secure by means of "an economical revenue tariff." He gave a delightful account of his own experience as a manufacturer of bunting. The Secretary of the Navy, at the close of the war, once asked him whether bunting could be made in the United States. He said that he would "go home and see"; so off he went with two young men to Lowell, and in a short time brought back the best bunting in the world. Immediately a heavy duty was put on this, at whose request he does not say, but probably that of the two young men; and this stimulated the bunting industry so much that the business was overdone, and finally, if he had not given it up and "gone into dress goods for ladies," he would have failed. Now, he says, what is bunting? Is it a luxury or a necessity? Why, it is a necessity to the war-worn soldier who goes to the front to meet the enemy, but "to the stay-at-home politician who never did go to war, and never would, it is a positive luxury, and ought to be taxed." And then tremendous bursts of applause made old Faneuil Hall ring again, and the General retired, whether on one leg or two is not mentioned in the report.

It has been an uneventful week in the financial world. The New York banks further increased their reserve, and money was in abundant supply. Foreign exchange first advanced and then declined to the opening rates. The Treasury disbursements exceeded the receipts; and early in the week another call was issued by the Treasury for the redemption of $15,000,000 of extended 3½ per cent. bonds. At the Stock Exchange the tone of the market was uncertain and variable, personal influences having overruled considerations which should directly affect prices, such as increased railroad tonnage and higher rates thereon. General trade continues to be fairly good, but is not up to the expectations formed early in the season.

Some of the self-constituted leaders of the workingmen have assured them that high tariffs and high wages go hand in hand; that as long as the present scale of duties is maintained work will be steady and pay large; and that if there should be a reduction of rates they would be deprived of employment, or the compensation for it would be cut down to the starvation point. Here is a case which may test this argument. The Dolphin Mill, at Paterson, having reduced wages five per cent., and the hours of work from ten to nine, the hands, 900 in number, struck on Friday. The company immediately improved the opportunity to resolve to stop the mill for three months on the ground that the market is overstocked with goods of their manufacture—hemp carpets, manila matting, and twine. The puzzled workingman may ask how high duties guarantee him steady employment and liberal wages in this particular case. This event, happily, has occurred in time for the Tariff Commissioners to consider and explain it in their report.

The *Phrenological Journal* calls attention to the fact that women have not yet secured the right to whistle. It thinks that they ought to have this right on several grounds. The practice of whistling tends to promote cheerfulness in the whistler, and also to strengthen the lungs. Women need cheerfulness and good lungs just as much as men do, and, therefore, the question is, as the *Journal* says, why should not women whistle "as they rock the cradle or perform their household duties?" This is a question which is not easy to answer. The right to whistle is one of those which can hardly be secured by legislation, and the only way for women to secure it, if they want it, is to persist in whistling until their right to do so is recognized. But then, as a rule, men, for some reason, do not like women who whistle, and therefore what the Darwinians call the law of sexual selection would interfere with the success of the movement. The reason that enlightened women do not now whistle more is undoubtedly that, in their present oppressed condition, they have no cause

for cheerfulness, and, far from whistling, can only groan, because this and other rights are denied them by the tyrant, man.

The growing use by the press of titles derived from occupations seems thus far to have escaped the attention of philologists, but we hope they will not let it go unnoticed any longer. With "Squire" and "Lawyer" as titles everybody has long been familiar; but the reporter's use of such designations is much more extensive. After every railroad accident, for instance, Conductor Smith and Brakeman Jones are brought forward to tell their stories, while it is becoming common to learn from the files of Editor Tompkins that Broker Robinson has failed or made an assignment under which Assignee Simpson takes charge of his property. There seems no reason why Bootblack Brown and Lamplighter Thompson should not be added to the list, because the social level of the occupation has evidently nothing to do with the matter. In early times it is well known that names were derived from occupations—the Smiths were originally smiths, the Brewers brewers, and so on. But these newspaper titles cannot grow into names, because the persons to whom they are applied already have names, and therefore it is difficult to see why they should be used, except for the purpose of temporary identification. Smith is called Conductor Smith, because for the time being he is the conductor about whom an investigation is going on, and so Brakeman Jones is the Jones for the time being who cheerfully explains that the cause of the accident was his habitual negligence of his duty. This sort of title may be often used in politics, as in the case of Mr. French, whom we have seen referred to as "Proxy" French. So we might have Bogus-Contractor Smith and Star-route Thief Brown, Blackmailer Harris, Safe-Burglar Tompkins, etc. This would serve to keep the occupations of all classes of citizens before the public, and would be an aid in making the census returns more accurate.

The Irish Land Leaguers are about to go through one of their severest ordeals in having to convince people that the sum of $1,250,000, which the Treasurer received, was honestly spent. The Irish Tory papers have begun to charge malversation and defalcation against the persons having the handling of it, and especially Mr. Egan, the Treasurer, who, in order to avoid arrest under the Coercion Bill, transferred himself to Paris; and while there the "landlord press" told the usual campaign stories about his mode of life, which they described as one of unbridled sensual indulgence. He is, however, a business man of good standing in Dublin, and derides the attacks on him, and boldly asks for an audit of his accounts, and is vouched for by such undoubtedly (on money matters) trustworthy authorities as Messrs. McCarthy and Davitt. We presume he will not have much difficulty in showing that he sent all the money he got to Ireland, except the balance now in hand; but it is also likely that it will be impossible to show that it was properly handled by the branch societies which disbursed it, and, indeed, we doubt whether the attempt will be made. No such fund was probably ever administered with care or economy. The machinery of distribution has to be hastily organized, and is sure to contain a good many careless and impulsive and incompetent, even if not dishonest or needy, agents.

The trouble with all the Irish patriotic funds subscribed both in this country and in Ireland is, that they come almost exclusively from the pockets of very poor and ignorant people, so that the temptation to cheat or mismanage on the part of the holders of the money would, even if they were men of higher character and position than they usually are, be almost irresistible. In fact, the difficulty there is in keeping them straight is very much like the difficulty there is in finding honest Indian agents. The virtue of the Indian agent is very often insufficient to resist the strain put on it by the fact that the Indians know so little of arithmetic and book-keeping, and in like manner the Irish trustees and treasurers are led astray by the fact that their subscribers are seldom intelligent enough to call them to account or watch over them. This was the secret of the enormous malversation practised in the Fenian funds, and it is the secret, too, of poor Archbishop Purcell's bankruptcy as a custodian of savings. What tempted him into keeping no books, and into ignorance of the amount of his liabilities, is precisely what tempts the trustees of skirmishing and other funds into playing ducks and drakes with the money which the donors fondly expect to shake the British Empire to its centre. Of course, it is easy to laugh at the gullibility of the subscribers, but it must be said for them that it is doubtful whether men and women so poor and ignorant as they are could be found in any other race who would so freely part with their earnings for the promotion of a cause which appealed to their imagination only, and the triumph of which, even if it came in their lifetime, could bring them no material gain. There is sometimes a certain nobleness in being duped, and the poor Irish of this country may fairly claim credit for it. Nor can Americans be very hard on their credulity, when we see the license enjoyed by Hubbell's Committee, not only in raising money by intimidation, but in raising money of which they do not pretend to render any public account. He is now so unblushing as to sell for cost the books and documents for which, he said, he levied assessments on the Government officeholders—a piece of impudence for which, we think, the annals of Irish skirmishing furnish no parallel, not even in the case of the ram, on which, though it figures on the accounts for $20,000, $8,000 was really spent.

There is more news of the False Prophet's operations in Sudan, which seems to come in part from a trustworthy source, Dr. Schweinfurth, the well-known African traveller. What he says apparently is that the Prophet is making progress, and will probably soon be in possession of Khartum (which is, however, over 1,000 miles from Cairo by the river), having driven the Egyptian troops out of the provinces south of the city. The details furnished from other sources are of the usual terrible character. He has fought "seven sanguinary pitched battles" with the Egyptians, killing eight thousand of them and driving the rest into Khartum. He has little ways with his prisoners, it is said, which are not nice, such as pouring boiling tallow into their eyes and ears. This is pretty bad, but what is worse is that he has a corps of "Man-eaters," who eat "those who refuse to believe in him." A great change must, however, have taken place in the spiritual condition of the people of Sudan if many of them give the Man-eaters the trouble of devouring them through unwillingness to believe in a prophet of any kind. And what digestions the Man-eaters must have to be able to assimilate an unbeliever eaten, not because he is savory and tender, but to punish him for the hardness of his heart. The Egyptian troops, too, who fought "seven sanguinary pitched battles" before they gave in, must be a very different body of men from their brethren who were massacred by King John of Abyssinia, in the same region, and ran away so readily from the British in Lower Egypt. The truth probably is that there were but few troops left up in Sudan by Arabi, and these of very inferior quality, and that the Prophet chose the right moment to attack them, and that he has been driving them as fast as he could follow them down the river with a force of stout blacks, who have been having a good time among the prisoners and stragglers. It is not unlikely now that he will take Khartum and give Baker Pasha a chance of showing the quality of his new army by a little expedition up the Nile. Baker Pasha's brother, Sir Samuel, knows all about that region, and may be the person chosen to measure himself against the Prophet and the Man-eaters.

The French Ministry has adopted M. de Freycinet's treaty with Tunis, which it had dropped, under the pressure of the odium excited by the Tunisian expedition, when it was found how much it was costing and how much trouble it was likely to entail. The now peaceable French public was considerably alarmed by the prospect which the expedition opened up of a Mussulman rising against France, not in Tunis only, but in Algiers and along the frontier. Its fears were deepened by the Egyptian revolt, and the stories which were carefully circulated from Constantinople that this was but part of a widespread Mohammedan revival, which was to roll back the tide of Christian aggression. The ease with which Arabi has been overthrown, and the pricking of the fanaticism bubble which was thus effected, have apparently restored French courage, and the Cabinet are ready to resume business on the old basis—that is, to take charge of the Government of Tunis, which is substantially what the treaty provides for. The financial administration passes wholly into their hands, and they make the Bey an annual allowance, and allow him to police the country under the superintendence of the French Minister, who will play the part of the British Resident at the courts of the native princes in India.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 18, to TUESDAY, October 24, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A CABINET meeting was held at Washington on Friday afternoon, at which all the members of the Cabinet, with the exception of Attorney-General Brewster, were present. No questions of importance are said to have been considered. The political situation in New York and Pennsylvania was informally discussed. President Arthur is reported to have remarked that he supposed it was well understood that no force or pressure should be used to compel payment of political assessments, but that he did not suppose there was any objection to the occasional presence in the departments of persons collecting voluntary contributions. The President did not designate the officers selected to fill the vacancies in the Army caused by the retirement of General McDowell, and it is understood that the promotions will not be made for several days yet.

Senator Mahone is said to be carrying the "boss system" to the highest pitch of perfection in Virginia, and to be using the power of patronage, with the consent of the Administration, in the most unscrupulous way. Two instances have been reported in the newspapers of late: in one case the Postmaster of a small town in Franklin County, Virginia, replied to Hubbell's demand for an assessment of $20 with a $20 Confederate note. This was reported to Mahone, who not only dismissed the Postmaster, but, as he was supported in his views in regard to assessments by the people of the village, had the post-office in that place discontinued. In another case, Mrs. Pine, Postmistress at Manassas, Virginia, was removed, notwithstanding the fact that special agents of the Post-office Department who have examined the office have reported that it was managed with great efficiency, because her brother dared to run for Congress against one of Mahone's creatures. The removal caused a great outcry from the people of the place, and the matter was referred directly to President Arthur, who, on Friday, approved Mrs. Pine's removal.

A Republican mass meeting was held in Albany on Thursday, at which a letter from Secretary Folger was read, in which, after highly praising his opponent, Mr. Cleveland, he says that "there is one difference which goes to the root of the matter when we are brought to view as public men and put forward to act in public affairs. He is a Democrat. I am a Republican. . . . The very qualities of character that make him a man of principle bind him to the ways of the party which has set him up as its exponent, and to a repetition of its deeds, if he is placed in a place of power wherein he may show forth in his acts the indwelling political faith that is in him." Mr. Folger then attempts to show that the business interests of the country fear the return of the Democrats to power, and, as an instance, that on the 11th of October, the day following the Ohio election, "there was a shrinkage of value in the greatest properties of the country of over $40,000,000," caused by a dread of the result of Democratic control in the House of Representatives.

Mr. James G. Blaine has written a letter to the Chairman of the Republican State Committee of Delaware, regretting that the condition of his health will prevent him from fulfilling his engagements to speak in the campaign in that State; and advising, for the remainder of the campaign, that Republicans everywhere should bend their energies to securing a majority in the next House of Representatives. He says that "whatever causes of just discontent may exist with State nominations unfairly and injuriously thrust upon the party, and whatever means may be taken to resent such wrongs and repel such indignities, it is evidently the duty of all true Republicans to use every honorable effort to hold control of the popular branch of Congress."

On Saturday John N. Dolph (Republican) was elected United States Senator from Oregon. He received fifty-one votes. Mr. Dolph is a partner of Mr. Mitchell, who was the most prominent candidate for the office.

In the United States Circuit Court, at Portland, Oregon, on Tuesday, the 17th, Judge Deady called the attention of the Grand Jury to the law in regard to political assessments, and instructed them that if any violation of the law was found, it was their duty to indict the offender.

The Mormons held a political meeting at Ogden, Utah, on Saturday night. George Q. Cannon denounced the men who are attempting to despoil the Mormons of their constitutional rights, and a vote of confidence in Cannon was unanimously carried with great enthusiasm. Judge Van Zile, the Liberal candidate for Delegate to Congress, and other Liberal speakers are making a thorough canvass. They are reported as having "large and attentive but not sympathetic audiences."

The Citizens' movement in New York city, which threatened to be a failure, owing to the arbitrary action of the Committee, took a new lease of life during the week, and Mr. Allan Campbell was nominated for Mayor. On Tuesday evening the Committee of Fifty of the movement met and nominated a full city ticket.

Dr. Hamilton has at last filed his claim for services during President Garfield's illness. It is for $25,000. Dr. Bliss's claim is for the same amount, and Dr. Agnew's is $14,700. Congress only appropriated $35,000 to be paid to the physicians, and their claims thus far amount to $85,000, with Dr. Boynton yet to hear from.

The opinion of Attorney-General Brewster upon the paper presented to the President last June, in support of an application for the appointment of a commission to consider the mental condition of the assassin Guiteau, and asking for a reprieve pending such investigation, has been given to the press. The Attorney-General said that he could not recommend such a reprieve; that the case had been thoroughly and fairly tried, and the evidence was overwhelmingly against the prisoner upon the point of insanity. Further than this, the Attorney-General maintains that the application has no legal status, and concludes by saying that "to investigate in unusual if not irregular way a fact that has been solemnly determined by the constituted authorities of the law," would establish a dangerous precedent, and ought not to be done.

An inquiry into the alleged insanity of Frances M. Scoville, sister of the assassin Guiteau, was begun in the Cook County Court on Thursday, on complaint of her husband.

The Quartermaster-General of the Army has submitted to the Secretary of War his report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882. The amount available during the year was $13,628,681. The total disbursements were $12,446,442, leaving a balance on hand of $1,182,239. The responsibilities and magnitude of the service are described, and an appeal made for additional force. The opening of the ranks for promotion and appointment, and the enlistment of past quartermaster-sergeants, are recommended.

General Hazen, Chief Signal Officer of the Army, has completed his annual report, in which he says that the Signal Service has greatly increased its usefulness since last year, in spite of greater difficulties than have been experienced since the organization of the weather service. Although the work of the corps has grown, he says there are fewer officers to perform it, and for the fiscal year 1883 there is $55,000 less for observation and report of storms than was actually expended in 1880, 1881 or 1882. The report shows the insufficiency of the force employed to do the work required, and a strong appeal is made for an additional force in order to meet the actual requirements of the service.

The sixty days appointed by law for filing with the Secretary of the Navy plans and specifications for the new steel war vessels provided for at the last session of Congress have expired, and only one plan has been received.

The Spanish-American Claims Commission held a session on Monday afternoon at Washington. All of the more important claims to be decided involve the question of citizenship, and no action will be taken upon them until the negotiations now pending between the United States Government and Spain shall terminate in an agreement as to what shall be accepted by the court as conclusive evidence of American citizenship.

Arthur W. Roudier, the Venezuelan Consul at Boston, announces that July 24, 1883, the centenary of Simon Bolivar, liberator of Venezuela, New Granada, Ecuador, and Peru, and the founder of the Republic of Bolivia, has been declared a national holiday by the Government of Venezuela. The day will be celebrated by the opening of a railway, the unveiling of a statue to George Washington, and an exhibition, to which all inventors, manufacturers, and citizens of the United States who may wish to display their products, are welcome.

A meeting of Friends was held in Chester, Penn., on Sunday, to celebrate the two hundredth anniversary of the landing of William Penn. The exercises were interesting and were conducted in a plain, unostentatious way. Addresses were delivered, and an early poem by John G. Whittier was read. On Monday the formal celebration commenced. 200,000 visitors were present and all places of business were closed. Among the guests were Governor Hoyt, of Pennsylvania, and the mayors of many cities in Pennsylvania, Delaware, and New Jersey. Each bell in the city was tolled two hundred times in the morning. The exercises began with a representation of the landing of William Penn from an old-fashioned yawl-boat at the foot of Penn Street, the exact spot where Penn first landed 200 years ago, after which a meeting was organized and speeches were delivered and poems read. In the afternoon there was a civic, industrial, and military parade, in which 6,000 persons participated. On Tuesday the festivities in Philadelphia were begun on a much greater scale. The streets were profusely decorated and crowded with people.

A complimentary dinner was given to Mr. Henry George, the author of 'Progress and Poverty,' at Delmonico's, in New York, on Saturday night. Mr. Algernon S. Sullivan presided, and about 100 persons were present. Mr. George made a speech, in which he explained and defended his theory of the nationalization of land.

Mrs. Langtry, the celebrated "professional beauty" and actress, arrived in New York on Monday. She will make a six months' theatrical tour of the United States.

A bloody affray took place in Knoxville, Tenn., on Thursday, in which Gen. Joseph A. Mabry, Joseph A. Mabry, jr., and Major Thomas O'Connor were killed. The cause of the difficulty was an old feud about the transfer of some property from Mabry to O'Connor, which resulted finally in Mabry's sending word to O'Connor that he would "kill him on sight." On Thursday afternoon O'Connor was standing in the doorway of the Mechanics' National Bank, of Knoxville, of which he was President, when he saw Mabry walking past on the other side of the street, so he stepped into the bank, got a shot-gun, and fired at Mabry, killing him instantly. At this moment Joseph A. Mabry, jr., son of the General, came running down the street with a pistol with which he shot and killed O'Connor, but before dying O'Connor managed to shoot and kill him. A number of bystanders were wounded by buckshot from O'Connor's gun.

The parties to the affray being "well-known men" and "prominent citizens," the affair caused a ripple of excitement in Knoxville's cultured community.

A memorial meeting was held at the St. Louis Merchants' Exchange, on Thursday afternoon, at which it was unanimously decided to give a testimonial benefit to the family of Col. A. W. Slayback, in the form of a matinée benefit, to take place on Thursday next, the seats for which were then sold, bringing very high prices.

FOREIGN.

Parliament reassembled on Tuesday. Previous to the assembling of the House of Commons the advanced Irish members held a meeting. They were chiefly occupied in arranging petitions referring to the imprisonment of Mr. E. Dwyer Gray. In the House of Commons Lord Randolph Churchill made a speech in which he contended that the present sitting was irregular, after the Appropriation Bill had received the Royal assent. He made a long historical review, and pointed out, amid the cheers of the Tories, that the House of Commons had ever been jealous of monarchical or ministerial tyranny. He moved an adjournment of the House in order to protest against an autumn session. Mr. Gladstone, in reply, said he was glad to see the House and Lord Randolph Churchill again. He contended that the precedents cited by Lord Randolph Churchill were inapplicable, and declared that the House had full power to take its present course. Lord Randolph Churchill, he said, had small knowledge of Parliament if he thought the Government would be upset by a vote of want of confidence on an appropriation bill.

Mr. Gladstone made a statement in regard to the rules of procedure. As to the first rule, he said the Government would adhere to its main proposal, and would propose as a second rule that motions for adjournment could only be made by leave after questions were finished and the order of the day begun. The motion for granting leave should be put forthwith on more than forty members supporting it by rising in their places. He also gave notice of a further addition to the rules, according to which motions to bring in bills, and bills which have passed in Committee, shall not be subject to the rule precluding any opposed business being taken up after 12:30 A.M. This will in a great measure frustrate obstructive blocking of bills.

Mr. Gladstone called attention to the committal of Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, and moved the appointment of a committee in his case. In regard to Egypt, Mr. Gladstone said that the Government were less fettered in respect to their policy now than they were six months ago, but they would hold out no expectation of laying down a scheme for the approval of the House during the limited time at their disposal. If, however, the Opposition wished to attack their policy, the Government would arrange to bring forward an issue.

In the House of Lords Earl Granville gave notice that he would on Thursday next move a vote of thanks to the commander, officers and men of the British Army in Egypt. He would then propose that the House adjourn till November 10.

A despatch from London says that a letter from Clifford Lloyd has been published stating that at his recommendation Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, in consequence of the improved condition of the country, had revoked the proclamation of Loughrea and the neighboring districts.

Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, in a speech at Selkirk, Scotland, on Friday evening, said that the resident magistrates in Ireland in their last reports were singularly unanimous in stating that the relations between landlord and tenant were improving, that rents were being fairly paid, and that intimidation was decreasing. Mr. Trevelyan said that another subject for thankfulness was the fact that it is now nearly six months since there has been a collision between the constabulary and the people in the Irish provinces.

Justin McCarthy and Michael Davitt have declared that the charge which has been published, that there is a total of nearly £100,000 of the Land League fund which is unaccounted for in the statements of accounts, is utterly unfounded; and further, that the allegation is a reiteration of charges which have been circulated in the interest of the landlord party ever since the Land League was organized.

Messrs. Healy, Brennan, and Harrington have been appointed honorary secretaries, and Messrs. Biggar and Webb treasurers, of the Irish National League.

The Household Cavalry returned to London from Egypt on Thursday, and were welcomed with great enthusiasm by the large crowd assembled to receive them. On Friday they marched through London to the Albany Barracks, and their reception along the whole route, which was over six miles long, was enthusiastic to a remarkable degree. On their arrival at the barracks they were received by the Prince and Princess of Wales.

The Egyptian Ministry have finally agreed to permit Messrs. Broadley and Eve and the Hon. Mark Francis Napier to defend Arabi, on the condition that the witnesses in the case shall undergo a preliminary examination. The trial is not expected to take place until after the festival of Bairam. On Sunday it was telegraphed that the Ministry had ratified the agreement between the Government counsel and Messrs. Broadley and Napier in regard to the course of procedure in the trial. Mr. Broadley declares that all the elements of a fair trial have been secured, the conditions being more favorable to the defence than those allowed by English courts-martial. The counsel for the defence are to have access to Arabi, the right of recalling witnesses for the prosecution for cross-examination, of calling witnesses for the defence, and of examining the evidence given during the preliminary examination. The counsel also expect that the Egyptian Government will appoint several additional members on the court-martial who will be able to speak English. Very little documentary evidence has been adduced in the examination of the rebel prisoners beyond a file of Arabi Pasha's official journal, published in Cairo during the campaign. Arabi has admitted nothing, and has not imitated his colleagues in attempting to throw the blame on others. He stated to his counsel on Sunday that he had been ill treated and twice spat upon, but that since October 10 he had been well treated, owing to the intervention of Sir Edward Malet.

Arabi Pasha's correspondence for the last two years was seized on Tuesday morning and deposited with Sir Edward Malet, the British Consul-General. It includes voluminous correspondence with Constantinople and the minutes of the secret sittings of the Barudi Cabinet.

The Egyptian Council of Ministers has adopted the preliminary scheme of Baker Pasha for the reorganization of the Egyptian Army. The field officers of one-half the regiments, battalions, batteries, etc., are to be British, and the other half Egyptians. The other officers, from the rank of captain downward, are to be selected from the Egyptians, Albanians, and others already in the service of the Khedive. The staff will consist of an equal number of British and Egyptians. The expense of the Army will be £368,000 a year, and it will number 10,900 men. Baker Pasha thinks that one of the advantages of his scheme will be a healthy emulation between the regiments commanded by British officers and those commanded by native officers. The gendarmerie will be officered by Egyptians, but will have two British inspectors.

Recruiting for the new Egyptian Army has begun. The total effective strength will be twelve battalions of infantry, two of mounted infantry, two of garrison artillery, two squadrons of cavalry each 400 strong, six batteries of artillery with 100 men and 4 guns to each, 100 engineers, a transport and ambulance corps of 300 men, and two regiments of gendarmerie of 700 men each. There is under consideration a proposal for the importation of coolies to replace natives as army servants.

The correspondent of the London *Daily News* at Cairo says that the Egyptian Ministry are representing that the reports of a renewal of disturbances in Sudan are unfounded, while the truth is that they have been in possession of messages in regard to the disturbances for the last three days. The Sudan movement has no connection with the Arab rising. The London *Times* despatch from Cairo, on Monday, says that Professor Schweinfurth has declared that the situation in Sudan dwarfs Arabi's revolt into insignificance, and that last June 6,000 Egyptian soldiers were surrounded by the troops of the False Prophet and massacred.

The Porte has sent a note to Lord Dufferin, announcing its readiness to negotiate a settlement of the Egyptian question.

The preliminary elections for members of the Prussian Diet have resulted, as far as can be estimated, in the choice of 2,900 electors belonging to the Progressist and Secessionist groups, against 750 Conservatives and anti-Progressists. Nearly two-thirds of the voters in Berlin abstained from voting. In all the great towns where Catholics do not predominate the elections resulted in favor of the Liberals, who have gained 30 seats in the Diet from the Free Conservatives and Nationalists. The Conservatives and Centre retain their positions intact. No one party will have a majority in the new Chamber. In order to obtain a majority it will be necessary for the Government to enter into an alliance with the Clericals and Conservatives.

There was a serious riot in Lyons, France, on Sunday, caused by the municipality having suppressed the subvention to the opera. The police were unable to cope with the crowd. Bombs were exploded in a crowded restaurant, shattering furniture, and seriously injuring three persons. This riot, together with the troubles which recently occurred at Montceau-les-Mines, and a threatened strike of 20,000 employees in the furniture trade in the Faubourg St. Antoine, in Paris, have caused some uneasiness in France.

A despatch to the London *Times* from Paris says that the Government has resuscitated the treaty concluded between the Bey of Tunis and M. de Freycinet. It will be submitted to the Chambers for ratification. By the treaty France undertakes to redeem the Tunisian debt, and to provide the Bey with a civil list of £28,000 yearly, and with £52,000 a year as the future allowances to the Princes.

King Milan, of Servia, was fired at in the Cathedral at Belgrade on Monday. His assailant was a woman, the widow of a man who was executed with several other rioters in 1878, by order of King Milan. It is suspected that the attempt was not merely attributable to revenge, but partly to political motives. After the attempt the Queen, who was with the King in the Cathedral, fainted, and was carried in an unconscious condition to the palace. The crowd attempted to lynch the assassin.

Negotiations in Spain between the old Republicans and Marshal Serrano, for the formation of a monarchical Liberal party, still meet with great difficulties, owing to the want of accord with regard to the reform of the Constitution. It is thought that an arrangement will be difficult unless Señor Sagasta consents to abandon the Carlists, whom Marshal Serrano considers an insuperable obstacle to the proposed reforms.

A great typhoon devastated Manila, the capital of the Philippine Islands, on Friday. A large portion of the city was destroyed, and business entirely suspended. There was great destruction of shipping.

MR. HERBERT SPENCER ON AMERICAN CIVILIZATION.

MR. HERBERT SPENCER, who has been so long tantalizing the newspapers by his silence —which the condition of his health, we regret to say, made imperative—has at last produced an interview, containing some of his impressions of American politics and society. Anything, however brief, on such a topic from such a source, is, of course, in the highest degree interesting; but the value of the observations he has made on the present occasion is mainly corroborative. That is to say, he has been struck chiefly by things which have struck other philosophic travellers before him —the national respect for inventiveness, the growth of the boss system in politics, the impossibility of preventing a paper constitution from working in unforeseen directions, the excessive good-nature of the American temperament, which, by leading men to be careless about their own rights, leads them also to be careless about the rights of other people, and is illustrated by the intrusions of the newspapers on private life, and by the overwhelming power of corporations. Mr. Spencer holds that—

> "Free institutions can be properly worked only by men each of whom is jealous of his own rights and also sympathetically jealous of the rights of others—will neither himself aggress on his neighbors, in small things or great, nor tolerate aggression on them by others. The Republican form of government is the highest form of government; but because of this it requires the highest type of human nature—a type nowhere at present existing. We have not grown up to it, nor have you."

About the future of the country, he holds the old-fashioned — we might almost say Fourth-of-July—view. The nation will be vast and triumphant, and will, after a long process of evolution, reach a high form, and produce a civilization "grander than any the world has known."

Mr. Spencer, in saying that America, mainly through the boss system, is "showing on a larger scale than ever before that paper constitutions will not work as they are intended to work," and that "constitutions are not made but grow," both overestimates the extent to which the American Constitution is paper and misconceives the nature of the boss system. The truth is, that the Constitution never was a paper Constitution in the strict sense of the term, because its interpretation was left to the courts, or in other words, its growth under the hands of the judges was provided for and expected. It was at most an outline, which the Legislature was, under the supervision of the courts, to fill in to suit the changing needs of the country. There is no good reason for supposing that the framers of the Federal Constitution intended anything more than a good framework of Federal Government. They undoubtedly expected constitutional growth in various directions not specified in the instrument, and were far from believing that they constructed a finality, even within the limited sphere of their jurisdiction. Both the Federal and the State constitutions differ from the paper constitution which Mr. Spencer has in mind, in that they contain some sort of provision for their own revision and amendment, and are frequently revised or amended. In fact, all American constitutions might fairly be called journals in which the varying phases of public opinion on rights and duties are from time to time recorded. Their function is to prevent, within certain limited periods, violent changes by the Legislature, and by no means to provide a cast-iron system of government. The constitutions of every State contain a history of public opinion within that State upon all great questions of polity.

It is a great pity that Mr. Spencer's health should not have permitted him to examine the boss system, by which he has evidently been much impressed, more thoroughly, both because he would have become better acquainted with its real nature, and because his opinions as to the possibility of extirpating it permanently from a democratic society would have been very interesting and valuable. He has plainly misunderstood the relations of the boss to the voters when he talks of "20,000 citizens going to the polls, led by a boss." He apparently imagines the American boss to be more of a demagogue of the Greek type than he really is—that is, more of a specious rhetorician, swaying large crowds by his blandishments and promises. Nothing could well be further removed from this type than an American boss like Cameron or Conkling is. These men have no following from the multitude properly so called, as the Old-World demagogues have always had. Nor is their connection with the growth of the American Constitution at all certain. They are distinctly a product of the working of party government on a great scale through universal suffrage. The American people's chief political occupation of a constructive kind during the last forty years, has been the organization of universal suffrage for party purposes, or, in other words, the creation of machinery for providing party candidates. The nominating convention or caucus, made up of local delegates, is the result of this work. It is this rather than the Constitution which has "grown into something different from that intended." It was intended to be, and was in the beginning, a strictly representative party assembly, elected for a strictly defined and easily discharged duty. But in practice it imposed double political work on a community which has for three generations been growing more and more busy, and the result has been that the election of the conventions has fallen into the hands of a few who are easily "manipulated," as the phrase goes, by the clever intriguers to whom we give the name of bosses, and who drive the voters to the polls, not in their own names, but in that of the party. The whole process of the growth and degeneration of the nominating convention is most interesting—perhaps the most interesting phenomenon of American politics to-day; but its connection with the development of the Constitution, if any there be, is very remote indeed.

Mr. Spencer's observations on "the universal delusion as to education as a panacea for political evils" are not marked by his usual accuracy of expression. We doubt very much whether even the most deluded admirer of education as a political agent has ever considered it a panacea, or anything more than a help in raising the standard of morality. That it diminishes crimes of violence, there is, we think, no question, and that it also increases the restraining power of public opinion with regard to other crimes, there is just as little. There is no timid owner of property or industrious man who would not sooner settle in a well-taught than in an ignorant community, if for no other reason, for the very important one that the force of persuasion—or the results which may be achieved by reasoning—are vastly greater in the former than in the latter. Moreover, in judging any improving agency, we are bound to take into account the *milieu* in which it works. Every such agency creates its own dangers, and education is no exception to the rule. Navigation increases the number of deaths by drowning, railroads the number of deaths by crushing and bruising. Education, too, increases the amount of certain kinds of knavery, which in an ignorant community would be rare or unknown. But, like the police, a large part of its work must be preventive, and therefore unseen.

We touch a lighter topic when we come to consider Mr. Spencer's remarks on the American willingness to put up with petty annoyances, or permit small trespasses or invasions of personal rights or comforts, "because it would be troublesome, or profitless, or unpopular to oppose, which leads to the habit of acquiescence in wrong and the decay of free institutions." This is one of the first things that every English traveller in America, from the time of Captain Basil Hall and Mrs. Kemble to the present day, has noticed, and the truth of the criticism is now pretty generally recognized by Americans. The more Americans travel abroad, the more they see that in other countries people secure their rights by insisting on them individually, by complaining, and making themselves disagreeable to those who interfere with their comfort, while here people, as a rule, adopt exactly the opposite course, and if anything occurs which they feel they have a right to resent, look out of the window or down at the floor, or smile at the opposite wall, rather than do anything.

The *Tribune*, in an article on this subject, admits that Mr. Spencer is right in his assertion, but does not believe that the unwillingness to grumble involves any real danger to free institutions, because it thinks that when the small annoyances of life assume serious dimensions, the people will "rise in their might" and overthrow them. With regard to grievances which affect people in large masses, this may be true; but it is only these which a "rising" can deal with, while it is individual grumbling which Mr. Spencer thinks ought to be encouraged. In that little cosmos which typifies and illustrates American civilization most perfectly—the horse-car—we may see every day excellent illustrations of the unwillingness to grumble which is so characteristic an American trait.

Mr. Curtis, in one of his pleasant papers in the "Easy Chair" of *Harper's*, recently called attention to the fact that if a man got into a car and deposited a huge basket on the floor, no one would remonstrate or insist on having it removed: the passengers would all step over it, and submit to being crowded by it, rather than make any trouble. So, if a passenger makes himself disagreeable by indecent or drunken behavior, the chances are ten

to one against his fellow-passengers remonstrating or insisting on the conductor's removing him from the car. There seem to be hardly any people who object to the presence of the one-armed beggar who is allowed the free use of the horse-car for the sale of his Song or Life, while in railroad cars the boy who does not merely offer for sale, but deposits upon the person of the passenger, his prize-candy package and other wares, is not remonstrated with. Humorists always refer to crying children as one of the most serious discomforts of life. Yet what an infinite toleration of children in cars of every sort and on journeys of every length do we see all the time! Mrs. Kemble mentions, in her recently-published memoirs, an inconvenience of American hotel life which she had frequent occasion to resent, yet which few Americans fail to submit to without a murmur—the practice of "doubling up" the occupants of beds.

If Mr. Herbert Spencer will go to any American hotel, he will find on every hand abundance of illustrations of the American unwillingness to grumble. We have seldom seen a hotel clerk grumbled at on the score of rooms or service, and never successfully; and in the case of waiters, it is the rarest thing to hear any one complain of the grossest inattention. We have ourselves seen a waiter in a sea-side restaurant display considerable indignation at complaints made of the badness of the fare, and inquire whether the complainant had come there to "quarrel with him." In fact, it may be said that, as a rule, anybody who complains or grumbles in the United States at any of those little petty annoyances which come from the disregard of duty on one side and right on the other excites some surprise, because it is obscurely felt by those who witness the spectacle that he is adding to his own discomfort without the prospect of improving his position, and is consequently an unpractical, foolish person, or else an Englishman, or some other variety of foreigner.

It is obvious that a social trait of this kind will not be affected by the people "rising in their might." They cannot "rise in their might" against the passenger with the big basket, or the depositor of prize-packages, or the gentlemanly hotel-clerk, or even the horse-car conductor; no popular movement can be got up on the subject, and, moreover, there is no indication that any popular rising is contemplated. In fact, individual grumbling of the kind that English observers wish to have cultivated is in a great measure anti-popular, as it is based on a feeling of the importance of the assertion of individual rights, even when they come into conflict with the prejudices or customs of the majority. Now, we believe that a vast majority of Americans do not protest against the sort of discomfort and inconveniences that humorists like Mark Twain laugh at, and philosophers like Mr. Spencer complain of, simply because they do not really mind them, because for the vast majority of Americans life, on the whole, has, in the past forty or fifty years, grown so much easier and pleasanter and more luxurious than it was in the old pioneer period, that they are perfectly contented with it.

To the "average man," who constitutes the majority everywhere, life in the United States is a sort of paradise, and the average man is in a position to sympathize with and exculpate rather than to criticise the gentlemanly hotel-clerk, the horse-car conductor, and the prize-package depositor. The annoyances which Mr. Spencer and other critics have in mind are rather those felt by the educated, luxurious, and cultured class, which is a small, though growing, one in the United States. In other countries, owing to a variety of social causes, this class has hitherto had its own way. In the United States it has not; it has had to "conform" to the ways and prejudices of the average man, and has consequently had to submit to all those annoyances and invasions of right which the average man does not regard as such or trouble himself about. The spread of luxury in the United States will undoubtedly lead to more and more grumbling; but to grumble well, we must first learn to grumble individually, and not trust to a popular "rising" to do the work for us.

THE INFLUENCE OF HOMICIDE ON SOUTHERN PROGRESS.

THE Southern papers contain every day longings for white immigrants to help them to solve the political problem created by the size of the negro vote. They now complain that they cannot secure laborers at Castle Garden here, owing to the stories that are told the newly-arrived Europeans of the way in which laborers are regarded in their part of the country. Nor is there any such resort to the South on the part of Northern capitalists, business men, and farmers as one might expect, considering the attractions the South offers both to the manufacturer and the agriculturist. Men prefer encountering the long winters of the far Northwest to going down to the South, with all its advantages of climate and soil and nearness to the great centres of civilization. The South is growing in population and wealth, undoubtedly, but it is not growing in what may be called the American ratio, which is made up both of the natural increase and the increase through immigration.

That a very considerable share in keeping settlers and capital away from the South must be ascribed to the part played by manslaughter in Southern life, we think no candid person can deny. The best class of settlers are men of peaceful habits, who above all things seek security, and will go nowhere where it is not to be found. Nothing can be better calculated to drive away this class than the continuing Southern habit of settling business disputes by unpunished murder. Two years ago one of the most prominent business men in Georgia was murdered by his partner in an ordinary commercial venture, because they differed in the settlement. In South Carolina, last year, a lawyer was killed almost in cold blood by a practised duellist and notorious ruffian, who found fault with his manner of conducting a case in court. In Knoxville, Tenn., last January, Don Lusby killed Will Mabry. The result of this was that some months later another Mabry and his father killed Lusby and his father in a court of law, *coram judice*, so to speak, and went unpunished. We commented on this at the time. Within the past week Mabry, the father, quarrelled with one O'Connor about a business transaction, and announced his intention of killing him in the old-fashioned way. O'Connor, thereupon, anticipated him by slaughtering him in cold blood, in the public street, in the presence of a crowd. While engaged in this little transaction he was himself shot by the younger Mabry, whom he afterward managed to kill. The result was they all three lay dead, and Knoxville was thrown into a "great tumult of excitement." O'Connor, we are surprised to learn, was only a major, and not a colonel. Old Mabry, however, was a general, and we presume young Mabry was at least a captain. There were three nephews of O'Connor, probably all majors, in an adjacent building, one of whom handed him his "second gun" when Mabry, junior, appeared on the scene. Of course they are all prominent business men in the place, and much esteemed. Major O'Connor was rich and enterprising, and General Mabry poor and unsuccessful, and had to allow mortgages to be foreclosed through inability to pay his notes. So O'Connor had to be killed.

It must be remembered, too, that these cases of what may be called business homicide are only heard of through the newspapers when they occur among local notables in the large towns. Many such murders, we venture to assert, take place on farms and in small villages every year of which we never hear at all. The story is in nearly every case the same. You have a difference with a neighbor, one of the unavoidable and constantly recurring differences of civilized life, about a boundary, about a debt, about courtship, about cattle, about a horse, about a joint note, about a mortgage, about a lawsuit. At the North it would lead, possibly, to a coolness, an abusive correspondence, or to litigation. At the South it is very likely to result, especially if your neighbor has been "drinking a good deal," in his concluding that he must kill you. He announces this to your other neighbors, who are much interested, and tell you of it, not that you may have him arrested and tried, or bound over to keep the peace, but that you may get your weapons ready for the impending fray. There is no more expectation among them that you should seek the protection of the police than if you lived in a village in Ashanteeland. By and by you meet your foe, and you have a public fight with him—it may be on a crowded street—which is as ferocious and shameless, and as much enjoyed as a spectacle by the bystanders, as a dog fight by a party of Sixth Ward roughs. Both parties are perhaps killed on the spot. If one survives, there is a mock trial; the prisoner proves malice prepense on his own part, and is promptly acquitted.

In fact, a murder trial at the South, unless the crime has been committed for the purpose of robbery, is very apt to take the nature of a proceeding in bankruptcy. The defendant shows that he committed it as a necessary incident of his business, and the jury then treat the death of the victim as the equivalent of a surrender of a debtor's assets. The murdered man cannot be restored to life, and where is the use of keeping the murderer in jail? Moreover, several of the jurors are

probably murderers themselves, and all feel that they may have to murder any day as a condition of their residence in the locality. In fact, the curse and shame of the South is the constant presence in the minds of the males of all classes, from childhood up, of homicide as one of the probable contingencies of ordinary social life. At the North no man above the ruffian class of the cities thinks of it as anything but an extremely remote and absolutely dreadful possibility arising out of the necessity of self-defence against criminals. It is in these parts unthinkable among decent people as a probable social or commercial contingency. Until the Southern mind can rid itself of this "damned spot," Southerners may rest assured that rapid and healthy progress at the South will be impossible.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN CLAIMS MUDDLE.

The letter of Mr. Frelinghuysen to Colonel Suydam, the counsel for the United States before the Spanish-American Claims Commission, ought to remove all difficulty in the way of proceeding with the business of that body, in which there has been a deadlock for some months. This deadlock was brought about by a difference of opinion between Mr. Blaine and Count Loewenhaupt, the umpire, as to the effect to be accorded to the naturalization papers presented by American claimants. The agreement entered into between the two Governments in 1871 (for it was a convention between the State Departments of the two countries, and not a treaty) provided for a settlement of claims of American citizens on account of wrongs committed by the Spanish authorities in the island of Cuba, and the question of the citizenship of claimants was a difficult one to dispose of, because it had been a common practice for Cubans to get American papers, exactly as Irish subjects of Great Britain have been doing lately, to protect themselves when within the island, though really living very little in this country, and many of these were improperly or fraudulently issued by the courts of this State during the Ring period. To guard against imposture, the agreement provided that in the case of any claim the Spanish Government might "traverse the allegation of American citizenship," and that thereupon "competent and sufficient proof thereof" would be required.

Now, it is obvious that the Spanish Government might traverse the allegation of American citizenship on a variety of grounds. It might, of course, be maintained that the papers had been issued by a court without jurisdiction, but as to this there has been no difference of opinion, and it need not be discussed. Again, it might be contended that the papers had been obtained fraudulently, or, in the third place, that some error of fact or law had been committed by the court granting them. As to the question of fraud there can be no doubt, and there is no evidence that there ever was any doubt in the mind of any one connected with the arbitration, that it was the duty of the tribunal to inquire into the allegation of fraud, if made. To put the matter on the lowest ground, no government could afford to insist that the question of fraud could not be inquired into, because it would itself have to submit to the same rule in the case of claims made against it by citizens of foreign governments; and as there is no limit to the manufacture of fraudulent claims, the whole business of international arbitration would be reduced to a farce.

As to objections on the score of error, the case is very different; for granting the tribunal the right to inquire into such objections really makes it a court of review or appeal on all naturalization papers presented. There is only one class of claims in which such an appeal would on ordinary principles be allowable, and that is where the Spanish Government insisted that the decision of the naturalizing court was in conflict with some rule of international law or some treaty provision. In such a case, presented in an international tribunal, the decision of the local court must give way.

These principles, when once stated, seem very simple, and when in the Buzzi case the umpire showed that he proposed to go behind the naturalization papers presented, and institute a reinquiry into the facts on which they were based, it would have been very proper for Mr. Blaine to call the attention of the American counsel to the importance of an understanding as to the exact meaning of the agreement. Instead of doing this, he wrote a very confused letter on the subject, in which, without taking any notice of the different grounds on which naturalization might be objected to, he refused to allow the arbitration to proceed, because he could not "recognize the power of the Commission to denationalize an American citizen." There was, of course, a great deal more in his letter than this, but nowhere in it can be found a word to show that Mr. Blaine understood that there was any difference between the question of fraud and any other question, or that he contemplated it as possible that under any circumstances the tribunal could possibly inquire into the validity of papers presented to it. The nearest approach which he made to a presentation of the legal questions raised by the Buzzi decision was contained in the following passage: "The principle upon which the decision of the Buzzi case rests, stated simply and briefly, is this—that the Commission has a right to go behind the certificate of naturalization to decide, not whether the court which issued it was of competent jurisdiction, but whether it rightly administered that jurisdiction; not whether a certificate of naturalization has been granted to the claimant, but whether it has been properly granted; in short, that the Commission is a court of appeal, with a right to review a duly rendered judgment of the courts of the United States." This did not advance the matter in the least, and it was accordingly left to Mr. Frelinghuysen to clear up the confusion introduced into the subject by Mr. Blaine's letter, and set the arbitration going again. This his letter to Colonel Suydam will probably accomplish. The gist of it is contained in the following paragraph, to which the Spanish Government can hardly raise any well-founded objection:

"The true rule to govern the Commission is, that when an allegation of naturalization is traversed, and the allegation is established prima-facie by the production of a certificate of naturalization, or by other competent and sufficient proof, it can only be impeached by showing that the court which granted it was without jurisdiction, or by showing, in conformity with the adjudications of the courts of the United States on that topic, that fraud, consisting of intentional and dishonest misrepresentation or suppression of material facts by the party obtaining the judgment, was practised upon it, or that the naturalization was granted in violation of a treaty stipulation, or of a rule of international law."

It will be seen that this letter disposes finally of the singular notion—the appearance of which in the field of American diplomacy seems to have been due to Mr. Blaine's bungling interference with the Commission—that fraudulent naturalization papers are just as good for the purpose of making claims against foreign governments as any others.

THE PROPOSED NEW NATIONAL LIBRARY.

On the 11th of December next, by special appointment, the bill providing for a new fire-proof building in Washington for the National Library comes up for discussion in the House, and the matter is one of such importance and general interest, that it is highly desirable that members of Congress should be fully informed upon the various points involved. The plan of the proposed building is one that is strongly disapproved of by the great majority of the librarians of the country. It is enormously costly, the estimates ranging from seven to ten millions of dollars, and the greater part of this cost is due to ornamental work. The criticisms of Mr. Poole, of the Chicago Public Library, who has given special study to library construction, are summed up as follows: (1) The plan adopted will make a show building, not practically adapted to the uses of a library; (2) the building will be needlessly extravagant, a vast amount of space being wasted; (3) the arrangement for storing the books is the worst that could be devised, the books being placed in alcoves five stories high, where the bindings in the upper stories are sure to be injured by heat.

Certainly in view of these objections made by competent librarians — objections which Mr. Poole tells us are made also by Mr. Spofford, the present Librarian of Congress—there should be no hesitation in abandoning the plan adopted by the Library Committee, and requiring a new one possessing the characteristics of convenience, security, simplicity, and economy. No doubt the nation is willing to expend eight millions of dollars for a library building if it is necessary; but if two millions will provide a building in every respect superior to the one proposed, excepting only that it will not make so great a show, there can be little doubt that the latter plan should be preferred.

In considering the merits of the proposed building there comes up an exceedingly important question, and one which as yet has received little public discussion—viz., *What is to be placed in it?* Mr. Spofford thinks that it should contain all the special collections of books belonging to the Government in Washington, including such as the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, of the Army, of the Patent-office, the Bureau of Geology, the Naval Observatory, etc., etc.—allowing each department or bureau to retain only a few books necessary for its immediate work. The arguments in favor of this view may be stated as follows: (1) The National Library of the United States should be as complete as possible in all its departments. It starts at a disadvantage with other great national collections by reason of its youth, for it requires time as well as money to form a great library. By sweeping in all these special collections it will at once be greatly en-

larged, and seem something like the big Library which such a big country should possess. (2) If the National Library is to be made complete in all departments, to allow the special libraries to go on would be uneconomical, since it would necessitate the purchase by the Government of two or more copies of each work. (3) For such a great and popular institution as the National Library is intended to be, there will never be any difficulty in obtaining any amount of appropriations desired, whereas the smaller special libraries will have a constant struggle to obtain the funds necessary to keep them complete. (4) It is desirable that the whole of the National Collection of books should be under the management of a skilled librarian, like Mr. Spofford, to secure uniformity, economy, proper cataloguing, etc.

At first sight these seem strong reasons for merging all the special collections in the great National Library that is to be. But there is another side to this question. To illustrate this, let us take the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A. This Library, which has been formed during the last seventeen years, is now the largest and best practical working collection of its kind in the world. Its present value and prosperity are largely due to the deep interest which the physicians of this country have taken in making it as complete as possible, and this interest has been aroused and kept up because they have felt that it was their special library, under the direction of a skilled physician, who knows what they want and supplies it. Is this interest likely to continue if this collection is merged in the general one? Certainly not. Are not the prosperity, popularity, and practical value of this library under its present management the best possible reasons for continuing it under that management? None of the great national libraries of Europe, with all their advantages of age, ample funds, and skilled librarians, have a collection of medical books equal to this, and none of them are used by physicians to any extent. Physicians in London do not go to the British Museum for books—they use the libraries of the College of Surgeons and the Medico-Chirurgical Society. In Paris they go to the library of the Faculty of Medicine, or of the Academy of Medicine, not to the National Library.

Now take each of the reasons above advanced for merging the special libraries, and see what may be said on the other side.

(1) The fact that the National Library should be large and complete does not involve the keeping it all under one management, or in the same building. Nor is the convenience to a very few inquirers of having all the special libraries under one roof so great as to counterbalance the inconvenience to a much greater number of visitors who wish to see them in connection with the museums, laboratories, etc., pertaining to the same division of science to which they belong. By all means let the books in the Surgeon-General's Library be counted as belonging to the National Library and helping to swell its numbers; but to do this it is not in the least necessary to destroy its identity.

(2) The duplicate question is easily settled. The main branch of the National Library has no need to purchase the special professional and technical works which belong to the special collections. For some years the Library of Congress has purchased no medical books, and no inconvenience whatever has resulted. It is true that the Surgeon-General's Library has been compelled to purchase a few American medical books not presented by their authors, while the Library of Congress has received two copies of these same books by copyright; but the remedy for this is simply to place one of the copyright copies of all medical books in the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office.

(3) It will be quite as easy to obtain funds for a well-managed and popular special library as it is for the National Library; and it is far easier for the special libraries to keep constantly complete their collection of that vast body of ephemeral literature pertaining to each branch, which never comes into the book-trade at all, and is only to be had by the personal interest and good will of the writers.

(4) No one man has the knowledge or the ability to supervise all branches of literature. The necessity of employing specialists is as great in this as in other departments. We have great respect for Mr. Spofford's abilities, but we certainly do not believe that he can manage the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office any better than it is managed now. He will necessarily place the work under some subordinate, and the consequences will certainly be extremely unsatisfactory to the physicians of the country, who are the persons chiefly interested.

To us it seems clear that the Law Library of the nation, the Medical Library, the Astronomical Library, the Library of Physics, Chemistry, and Mechanics, and the Library of Natural History, should each be under separate and skilled management, separately catalogued, and in the buildings which contain the museum, etc., to which they naturally belong. If, however, it be decided that all the libraries shall be placed in one building, then that building should, without question, be so arranged that each special library will be separate from the others, and preserve its own independence. This could be done in the building proposed by Mr. Poole, but it would be out of the question in a building on the plan accepted by the Library Committee. Before Congress meets, its members should be made acquainted with the views of scientific and professional men on the merits of the plan of merging all the Washington libraries into one, and also as to the propriety of wasting six millions of dollars in absolutely useless ornament upon a Library Building.

A NEIGHBORLY VISIT ACROSS THE RHINE.

DOES any one remember how interesting were the accounts of travellers in the South during the first decade after Lee's surrender? The French look with a similar curiosity upon Germany, and especially the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. A Monsieur *** (possibly M. Gustave Fischbach?), who has a good eye, has sent the result of a week's travel there to the *Revue Politique*. He is not too prejudiced for agreeable reading, though one must make some allowances. He is yet a little sore. For instance, *Kladderadatsch* lately had a cut of a Prussian lieutenant chucking an Alsatian soubrette under the chin with the legend, "Zur Germanisirung." This harmless joke M. *** calls "cruellement malséante." The Germans are doing everything to reconcile the Alsatians to their rule. With this generation they do not expect to succeed, but the next, they hope, will be half, and the third wholly, German. Why should it not be so? They are only reversing what the French did two and a half centuries ago. Among the improvements at Strassburg, he notes the destruction of the old city walls, which were too confining and made the town unhealthy, and the building of new suburbs and handsome promenades. Great pains especially have been taken with the university. Its library in ten years has grown from nothing to half-a-million; rich endowments attract learned professors from all parts of Germany; it is one of the three or four scientific centres of the Empire. Great efforts are made to attract young Alsatians into the army and the public offices. Those who will consent to give up their French leanings—to desert, as their countrymen think it—are sure of advancement; but they lose a country in getting a career. Their old friends leave them alone with the German colony. M. *** tells a story of a young German upon whom invitations and attentions of all sorts were showered by the Governor and his wife, to his great surprise, till it was discovered that he was not an Alsatian, when they suddenly ceased.

From Alsace M. *** went to Bayreuth, where he found few external indications of the Wagner festival, except the booksellers' windows filled with Wagnerian and anti Wagnerian pamphlets, scores of the opera, and busts and photographs of the composer; some windows where Wagner cravats were for sale; and in one place a flaming advertisement of "liqueur Klingsor"—Hochheimer rebaptized in honor of the sorcerer in "Parsifal." Of the spectators at the representation, he notes that the majority were of the German middle class on their vacation journeys—few French, no English. While waiting for the overture to begin, the public cast a last glance over the book of the opera, watched the notabilities enter, enjoyed the magnificent panorama of the city and the pleasing undulations of the neighboring country, or, less poetically, drained a final beer-glass; for the representation lasts from four o'clock till ten, with only two intermissions of forty minutes—hardly enough to supply a Bavarian with beer and sausages. M. *** objects to the narrow and uncomfortable seats, but likes the concealment of the orchestra, because it was first suggested by Grétry. The music, now loud, now soft, coming one does not know whence, has a mysterious effect which is very agreeable. The musicians like it, too, for they can play in their shirt-sleeves, and in "Parsifal" their task is long and (physically) fatiguing. The concentration of light upon the stage alone is well enough in a theatre to which one certainly does not go for amusement, but it would never do in an ordinary opera-house, where the ladies in the stalls and boxes are, and wish to be, as much a part of the show as the salaried actresses on the stage. Offenbach once said to M. ***: "La musique, c'est une algèbre"; and this definition, he thinks, applies to "Parsifal" and the Nibelungen. He speaks of Wagner's "charlatanisme indéniable," but, being unable to deny his success and popularity, he ventures on the following amusing explanation: "The success of these plays, I believe, is due to three principal causes: the excellence of the *mise-en-scène* and the execution, the exaltation of the national sentiment of the Germans, and the mystico-metaphysical tendency of their minds."

M. *** found the railway stalls well supplied with the worst French pornographic literature—the works of Zola, Huysmans, Vast-Ricouard, Belot, and the like. He thought he understood why, when he tried to read some specimens of the more serious part of recent German literature. Not caring to fall back upon 'L'Assommoir,' he was fortunate enough to get into conversation during his ride with a Prussian general "of fine presence, red face, gray moustache, exquisite manners, irreproachable uniform," a conservative after Bismarck's own heart. The General blamed the thirst for enjoyment and the poison of *Aufklärung* as the cause of popular discontent and Socialist agitation. "We must revive the religious sentiment, and recall our primitive simplicity. The Liberals are all rascals or fools who hamper the beneficent work of the Chancellor." On foreign politics he detested the Russians. He was not afraid of them, but he apprehended commissariat difficulties in case of a war. As to the English, he agreed with the *Kölnische Zeitung* in characterizing their conduct as "a harmonious mixture of cowardice and stupidity."

"England will be punished, and that before long, for her piracies and her violations of the law of nations" (M. *** thought of Schleswig-Holstein and Alsace Lorraine). "Her ruin will come from her sin. She unchained revolution in Italy and in Poland. Foreigners will help the Irish revolt against her; India will shake off her yoke; the Zulus will invade the Cape," and so on.

The General's opinions about the German army were more worthy of attention. He professed himself well satisfied with the volunteers for a year. About 12,000 are accepted annually (France's annual contingent is 6,000). Formerly the preliminary examination was easy; now it is so severe that it is easier to spend two or three years at a Realschule. The volunteer service, therefore, has been a powerful stimulant to the cause of secondary education. The volunteers are usually considered model soldiers, and furnish excellent officers for the reserve or the Landwehr. They are well treated; they live in the cities, if their conduct is satisfactory, and they can continue their studies. After the first six weeks they are exempt from police duty and the care of their arms and horses—that is, they can hire a man to take this off their shoulders, becoming responsible for him. The non-commissioned officers are mostly reënlisted men. The German Government gives no bounty, as the French does, for reënlistment, and only a very slight increase of pay; and yet, while France can hardly induce any to prolong their service, Germany has no difficulty. The reason is that in Germany, after twelve years' service, they are sure of good employment on railways or as telegraphists, custom-house officers, policemen; all such places being filled exclusively from the army. The Government undertakes to give such a position to all non-commissioned officers with whose conduct it is content. Of course this is a powerful incentive to good service. The men are allowed a certain part of each day to study their future work, so that they shall be ready to take it up as soon as they leave the army. M. *** did not learn from the General, but from some other source, that the higher officers were many of them very unpopular with their men, and that it was not uncommon for several to be found dead after the sham fights, struck in the back by some unknown ball, which of course was represented to the public as an accident.

M. *** found Frankfort proud of its sumptuous Bourse, which it has built just as its commercial activity is slipping away from it to Berlin, and Cologne still prouder of its completed cathedral. He thinks the regular geometrical design of the towers far inferior to the freedom and variety of the other details of the building, and declares that they correspond well with the spirit of modern Germany—Marguerite, after all her golden dreams, quietly marrying Corporal Müller, 2d Regiment Pomeranian Fusiliers.

THE CITY OF LONDON SCHOOL.

CONWAY, WALES, September 6, 1882.

IT was quite as much the reputation of the head master, the Rev. Edwin A. Abbott, as the fame of the school itself which led me to Milk Street, off Cheapside, in the heart of the city, to witness the annual distribution of the prizes at the "City of London School." There had been some mistake about cards, and for a moment it seemed as if we should not gain an admittance; but that ready courtesy with which the English, especially in London, respond to any intelligent interest in the things which are their pride, made all smooth, and we soon found ourselves on the upper bench of a semicircular hall or theatre. Deep down below us within a small railed space were seats for the dignitaries, in front of a table heaped with shining new books and glittering medals. There were hardly seats for five hundred, while there are more than six hundred scholars, so the audience was limited to the friends of the boys receiving prizes. Promptly, at the hour, appeared the head master, in all the dignity of his Oxford gown and hood, followed by the Aldermen's Committee, each with staff in hand, as escort to the Lord Mayor. His Honor was arrayed in the full glory of scarlet and sables, set off with lace ruffles and gold chains, and accompanied by the Sheriff of London, a personage only less splendid than himself.

The programme on such an occasion follows an ancient custom, and is made up, after the address of the head master, of five declamations—Latin, English, Greek, German, and French—"in praise of the Founder, John Carpenter." This honored personage was "town clerk" of London in 1417 ("Stadtsschreiber," as the German orator called him). He left a small estate to the City for a school for poor children. Nothing much came of it, except in the sense that a venerable historical tradition is always a great thing, until about fifty years ago this endowment was one of the first to receive that rehabilitation by which so many of the old charities in England have been so wonderfully renewed and increased in efficiency during this century. The uneventful career of a "town clerk" supplies little material for eloquence, so that the boys must usually have rather a hard time with a threadbare subject, but this year's set were in luck, for the school is to be removed in December next to a magnificent new building and playgrounds on the Embankment near Blackfriars Bridge ("sur les bords de notre grand fleuve près de cette relique de l'Égypte," said the French orator). So each one rang the changes upon the memories of the old and the hopes of the new, after Dr. Abbott had announced in his opening address, "We meet here to-day for the last time"—whereat was a little sensation in the audience, as if there had been hopes deferred. "Yes," he repeated, "positively the *last* time that we shall conduct His Honor the Lord Mayor through devious and subterraneous passages to emerge into an apology for daylight and to breathe a substitute for air." Apparently every one now wonders how they managed to stay so long in such crowded quarters. It was either a very good or a very bad specimen of a London day, for though there were plenty of large windows, the gas was lighted at 2 P. M., after the Doctor had asked the next boy to step up for his prize without being called, as he could not see to read his name.

The general drift of the school is toward commercial life, as becomes a pet of the City of London, but its work is very carefully kept up to the rank of the great schools like Winchester and Rugby, and its scholars have taken high rank at the Universities. This year two of them were wranglers at Cambridge. One of them has gained a fellowship at King's, London, and another a fellowship at New College, Oxford. It is a very good illustration of the opportunities open in England, that the boy who spoke the French declamation has just obtained a scholarship at Wadham College, Oxford, of £80 a year for five years, and the English speaker has gained one of the same value for five years at Trinity College, Oxford.

There were about three hundred names upon the list for prizes, great and small, and from the list one could learn something of the benefactors as well as of the boys. There are also something like sixty special prizes given in the spring for proficiency in the English language and in the study of Shakspere. The present list covers all the other studies. The scholarships, which are the highest prizes, show curious and interesting juxtapositions. The Beaufoy, the Travers, and the Mortimer stand side by side with the Sir Albert David Sassoon and the Jews' Commemoration; the Sir David Salomons and the Lionel Rothschild, with the Grocers' Exhibition and the scholarships of the Sadlers' Guild and the Fishmongers'. Sir James Shaw's Classical Prize is followed by Mr. Alderman Hale's Medal for Arithmetic; and Mr. Alderman Knight's Gold Pen (Commercial Prize), by the Worshipful Company of Turners' Medal for Mechanical Drawing. Robert Seymour Conway was Captain of the school this year and Carpenter Scholar, while Simeon Moses was Sir William Tite scholar, Lionel Rothschild scholar, Sassoon Sanskrit Exhibitioner, and the future scholar of Trinity, Oxford. It reads curiously in the list of recent university honors, that the late Fishmongers' scholar has gained the first Jeremie Prize for knowledge of the Septuagint at Cambridge, another Fishmongers' scholar is placed alone in the first class for Jurisprudence at Oxford, and the Grocers' scholar is in the fourth class in the Final Classical Schools at Oxford.

The tuition, ten guineas a year, is very low indeed in proportion to the excellence of the school, so that boys come as day-scholars from all parts of London, and a considerable number board in the families of the masters. The lady next me pointed with fond pride to her own little lad of thirteen, as he appeared a second time for a prize, and said that he came in from Clapham every day. The Lord Mayor distributed the prizes as each boy was called in. Many of them came more than once, and there were sounds of hearty applause from the boys who were waiting in the passages outside. It was pleasant to hear that the best of it seemed to be given equally to a very little boy who received a good-conduct prize, and to the Simeon Moses already mentioned, when he carried out his seventh and last prize. It was a place to accept without dissent the established order of things, but it was impossible not to recall the question of an eminent German after a similar scene: "Can this be the way that English boys are taught that England expects every man to do his duty?"

The form of procedure in all such gatherings here is that of a public meeting, with Chairman, etc.; so, when the last book had disappeared, Sir John Bennet (a famous clock-maker, I was told) rose to move, on behalf of the Aldermen's Committee, a vote of thanks to the head master and his assistants for their work, etc. Sir John is "the City man made perfect," a capital specimen of the hale and hearty type of Englishman. His ruddy face, bluff manner, and sonorous voice gave a solid emphasis to his advice to parents. "In these days mind is money, mind is future preëminence. You take care of the boys' bodies—give them good rump-steaks, and we will take care of their minds." He read his resolution and laid it down on the table before the Lord Mayor with a good, hearty thump, which the audience echoed with vigorous applause. Dr. Abbott responded, saying: "The Corporation of London has already thanked us for our work. The new Schoolhouse on the Thames Embankment is a vote of thanks from the Corporation, written in stone." Then somebody rose to move thanks to the Lord Mayor for his gracious presence, etc., and somebody else was to be thanked for something, and so on. But we slipped out and found the dingy entrance-hall illumined with the gold lace, the white stockings, and the white plumes of the eight magnificent footmen attending upon the Lord Mayor and the Sheriff. Outside, the more than dingy street was resplendent with their gorgeous gilt coaches and superb horses, while about them a crowd of eager urchins stood agape, in whose ears something was whispering: "Turn again, Whittington," or whatever may be its nineteenth-century equivalent.

M.

RECENT REFORMS IN THE ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES.

LONDON, October 15, 1882.

OUR English universities—that is to say, those two oldest and greatest of them which are so much the most important that we scarcely regard the others—have just been passing through one of their periodical processes of reform. It may interest American readers to learn how this is done, and not the less so because no corresponding process seems to pass upon the universities of America. Oxford and Cambridge hold a position unlike that of any other seats of learning on either side of the Atlantic. They are neither state establishments, like the University of France, or the universities of Germany, or some of the universities in your Western States; nor, on the other hand, do they go on their way wholly untouched by the State, as is the case with Harvard and Yale, Princeton and Cornell. They are, it is true, independent corporations, which grew up of themselves in remote ages—Oxford in the twelfth, Cambridge in the thirteenth century; they govern themselves—no Minister of Public Instruction has anything to do with them. But Parliament claims, and has repeatedly exercised, the right of stepping in from time to time to deal with them, to give them new constitutions—highly complicated ones—to abolish many of their existing arrangements, and prescribe new modes of applying the enormous revenues which they possess. When this has been done, they are again started to walk alone, and go forward legislating for themselves in their miniature parliaments until such time as the state thinks fit once more to interfere. This is done in pursuance not so much of any legal theory as to their dependence on the state (for, on the contrary, they are held to be in law ordinary lay corporations, not dependent on the Established Church) as on the ground of their great public importance, and because they are technically charitable foundations, enjoying large endowments of ancient date. Just in the same way the state exercises the right of legislating for the endowed schools of the country, and of thereby altering the destination which the founders have impressed on those endowments.

When it is thought necessary for Parliament to interfere with the universities, the course usually followed is to appoint a commission for the purpose. If the object is to inquire into the existing arrangements, and see how far they are working well, the commission is appointed by the Crown—that is, by the Ministry of the day. It has then no compulsory powers, and can, in point of law, do nothing more than invite people to give evidence, but practically this is found sufficient; even those persons or corporations which have most to conceal do not like to refuse, because this would fix suspicion on them, and they would ultimately be compelled, by some further action, to make disclosure. When, however, it is not inquiry, but legislation—a reorganization of the institution—that is sought, a Parliamentary Commission is appointed. For this purpose an act of Parliament is passed naming the commissioners, setting forth their powers, directing them to do certain things, and declaring that whatever statutes or ordinances they may frame shall, after the lapse of a certain time, after being laid on the table of both Houses of Parliament for a certain period, and after being approved by the Queen in Council, have the force of law as much as if they had been embodied in the Act itself. The advantage of this method is that it enables very complicated matters, which Parliament has neither the time nor the special knowledge to deal with, to be despatched by a body of persons chosen for the particular purpose, and presumably chosen on account of their special knowledge and general fitness for the work. The drawback to it is that these persons are sometimes ill-chosen, and, either from want of judgment or from timidity, show themselves unequal to the task, and produce a feeble, or even mischievous, reorganization, which leaves things no better than they were. We have always a certain number of such commissions sitting. Several that were originally temporary, like the Charity Commission, the Copyhold Commission, and the Ecclesiastical Commission, have now become permanent sub-departments of government. But the majority are temporary. Their powers are limited to expire in two, three, or four years; the members are unpaid, but they have a paid secretary, and may employ clerks and other officers. Most of them are only directed to inquire and report; but occasionally, as has been said above, they are empowered to legislate.

It was to a commission of this latter kind that the work of reforming the universities and colleges of Oxford and Cambridge was intrusted. There had previously been a Commission of Inquiry to ascertain the amount and modes of applying their revenues, which had presented its report, and on the basis of that report the new commission was to proceed. The act appointing it was passed in 1877. Two separate commissions were named, each of seven members. The Oxford one was presided over by Lord Selborne, one of our greatest lawyers, himself highly distinguished at Oxford fifty years ago; the Cambridge one by Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn. Before the work was completed, Lord Selborne became Lord Chancellor, and Chief-Justice Cockburn died, and their places were filled by new members named by the Crown. Both commissions, but especially the Oxford one, showed the fault which is so common in England of choosing for all sorts of important work not the men who are really best qualified for it, but men who have become eminent by success in some walk of public life. When a commission has to be created, the Minister looks about among the people he meets and the people who enjoy political influence: he takes a bishop from one party and a judge from the other; he throws in a peer or two, a respectable member of the House of Commons, a retired official, and then at last adds one or two persons only who possess any practical acquaintance with the subject. If this does not produce a really able and competent board, it has the advantage of producing one whose conclusions carry a certain weight, because the men's names are known, and as some of them, being members of one or other House of Parliament, are on the spot to defend their views or action, the Minister is in so far helped and his responsibility lessened.

After more than four years of pretty steady work, these two Commissions had prepared a large number of statutes, the one for Oxford University and its colleges, the other for Cambridge University and its colleges. These statutes were duly laid before Parliament, and, although opposition was threatened in the House of Commons, and actually raised, as respects one Oxford statute, in the House of Lords all passed scathless, were approved by the Queen, and are now law. The principal change they have made, and the one received with most general favor, has been the abolition of the restrictions which limited the headships of nearly all the colleges, and a good many of the fellowships, to clergymen of the Church of England. Thus the process of desectarianizing the universities which began in 1854 has been virtually completed. Up till the University Reform Act of that year, every one who matriculated or took any degree at Oxford (Cambridge was somewhat more free) was obliged to sign the Thirty-nine Articles. A further step was taken in 1871, when the Act of Uniformity, so far as it affected the fellowships and professorships, was repealed, and the requirement of signing the Articles hitherto required for the higher degrees abolished. Now that clerical fellowships are gone, the Established Church has practically no advantage over Nonconformists in the universities, except that she still retains the faculty of theology, and that the service used in all the college chapels and in the University church is the Anglican. So marked has been the progress of opinion in these matters, that, although these two Commissions were appointed by a Tory Government, and the statutes they framed might have been rejected by the Tory House of Lords, no serious resistance was made to this reform, which forty years ago no one would have dreamt of. Even fifteen years ago, hardly any Nonconformists came as undergraduates to Oxford, and very few to Cambridge. Now they come in large and increasing numbers, have obtained fellowships and professorships, have founded Nonconformist associations, and enjoy full legal equality with members of the hitherto privileged Church. That Church, however, still retains a social ascendancy, and probably rather gains than loses by the coming in of the Dissenters; for young men belonging to the Nonconforming bodies are apt to be drawn into the Anglican communion, while such losses as the latter experiences are not due to the Nonconformists, but arise from the prevalence of scepticism in theological matters. There is, however, nothing to show that scepticism has increased in the universities; it is possibly a little less concealed than it was in the old days of strict tests, when everybody signed the Thirty-nine Articles whether he believed them or not, but it does not seem to be any more really influential.

The other changes which the Commissioners have introduced at Oxford and Cambridge could hardly be set forth without a long explanation of the very peculiar and intricate system of university and college teaching and government which prevails there. Opinion is a good deal divided about them, but the general feeling, especially at Oxford—which is always more unquiet and "viewy" than Cambridge—is one of disappointment. The main defects of both universities, it is said, remain uncured. Although Oxford and Cambridge are by far the best-endowed educational establishments in the world, having each of them a revenue from fixed property (without counting the fees paid by the students) of at least $1,000,000 a year, they are too costly for the middle and lower classes. The vast majority of those who come to them belong socially to the upper classes, although a good many of these, and especially the sons of the Anglican clergy, are by no means rich. Very few children of shopkeepers or of the minor professional men, such as country doctors or attorneys, come. They could not afford it, because board and education there cost for the six months of the academical year—the other six months being vacation—from $600 to $1,000, or for the whole course of three years (for the ordinary degree), or four years (for the degree with honors), from $1,800 to $4,000. It is true that the scholarships are open to competition, but they are usually obtained by those who have been taught at the best and most expensive schools, so that the children of poor parents are not greatly helped. People complain that the Commissioners ought to have grappled more boldly with this evil, ought to have somehow provided that these immense endowments, most of which were originally given to help poor and deserving students, should cheapen education for persons of that class.

It is also felt that both universities fall far short in the teaching they provide of what may be expected from such famous and wealthy establishments—far short, indeed, of what is offered in the less-wealthy universities of Germany. There are many subjects for which no professor exists. The professors are not well paid, considering how highly other kinds of intellectual work are paid in England, and how expensive living has become. As they are paid by fixed salaries, they want one powerful motive for exertion. As the bulk of the teaching is done by college tutors and college lecturers, they are not even sure of getting a good class, for nobody is obliged to come to their lectures. If the universities were to make it their main business to provide at a low figure first-rate teaching by the best men in all subjects, they might double the number of their students and their usefulness to the country. They might draw far more largely not only on the middle classes of England itself, but on the colonies and the United States, from which already a good many students come, attracted chiefly by the charm of the college life. There seems to be some truth in these complaints. At the same time, any one who compares Oxford and Cambridge now with what they were sixty or seventy years ago will find no reason to despair of their future. They influence the intellectual and moral life of the nation probably more powerfully, and certainly more beneficially, now than they did then. And whatever charges may be brought against their teaching, the social and intellectual life of the students is no doubt far superior to that of the German universities. It is not only very easy and pleasant, in the better colleges, teachers and students meeting one another almost on equal terms, but it is very stimulating, and possibly does as much for a man's mind as the regular instruction he receives. Y.

THE FRENCH ASPIRANTS FOR QUEEN ELIZABETH.

PARIS, Sept. 28.

M. DE LA FERRIÈRE has given us the letters of Catherine de Médicis—a great work not yet finished. He has also published a number of interesting letters of the sixteenth century, the result of a special mission to St. Petersburg, where the Imperial Library is very rich in historical documents. He has now published a minor work under the title of 'Les Projets de mariage d'Élizabeth d'Angleterre.' This is certainly an interesting subject; and by his familiarity with the Valois and their Court, M. de la Ferrière was particularly fitted for the undertaking. He regards Elizabeth from a French point of view, and thus gives a new interest to a subject which is familiar to all English readers. It is needless to describe Elizabeth as she was in her youth; we can only say with the Venetian ambassador, who saw her when she was twenty-three: "She is of an admirable mind, and well showed it during the life of Mary Tudor, when she knew so well how to govern herself in the midst of the suspicions of which she was the object, and of the dangers which surrounded her. Her fine and penetrating judgment, her profound application, her haughty and adroit character, her active ambition, mark her for the part of a great Queen." A month after the beginning of her reign, the Ambassador of Spain wrote to Philip II.: "She orders and does as she pleases, as absolutely as Henry VIII., her father."

The list of aspirants is very long. She had refused the Duke of Savoy in the reign of Mary Tudor: Philip II. had had secret meetings with her while he was in England, and she afterward told the French Ambassador, M. de la Mothe-Fénelon, that she had refused him on a scruple of conscience, as she was not willing to marry her brother-in-law. She refused the Kings of Sweden and of Denmark; she coquetted for years with Charles, the youngest son of the Emperor Ferdinand. The most brilliant of her suitors was Jacques of Savoy, Duke of Nemours. Elizabeth felt much curiosity on the subject of this Prince, who was very much admired at the French Court. Nemours sent one of his gentlemen, Lignerolles, to London, who brought an encouraging answer. Nemours was already on the point of going to England when, says Brantôme, the journey "se rompit et demeura court."

The Prince of Condé thought first of a marriage between Elizabeth and Charles IX., Charles being only fourteen years old, and Elizabeth already more than thirty. Condé spoke of the subject to Smith, the English Ambassador, who objected the difference of ages. A few months afterward, when peace was signed with England after the retaking of Havre, Catherine de Médicis adopted, or seemed to adopt, Condé's project. She probably wished to separate Elizabeth from the French Protestants, who looked upon the Queen of England as a natural ally. She made overtures to Smith, choosing as negotiator in this affair of the marriage of Charles IX. Paul de Foix. The despatches of this Ambassador are preserved at the National Library. Elizabeth received him, and he read her a letter from Catherine, in which she said that she should be very happy if Elizabeth would marry her son. Elizabeth changed color several times, then, thanking the Queen-Mother for the honor she offered her, she regretted that she was not ten years younger. She was afraid of so great a difference; the young King might soon leave her, as Philip had left Mary, and she would rather die than be despised and abandoned. On the side of her subjects she had nothing to fear; but they would prefer to see her marry an Englishman. In England, she would only marry Arundel; but they were as far from each other as the East and the West. As for Leicester, she had much esteem for him, but she could not marry him.

Paul de Foix asked her to keep the proposal a secret. She replied that she had learnt to be secretive under Mary. She first consulted Cecil, who made some objections touching the question of the succession. He saw no advantages in the marriage, only dangers. Elizabeth sent for Paul de Foix. She told him that she had kept the project secret, but that she respected the judgment of Cecil, and proposed an interview between him and the French Ambassador, which was, of course, accepted. Meanwhile, she told the whole story to Guzman de Silva, the Spanish Ambassador. Silva reproached her for having refused the Spanish Prince.

"At that time," said Elizabeth, "I had no thought of marrying, and, even now, if I only could name a successor, I would not marry, having no inclination that way; but my subjects press me so much that I shall not be able to refuse. A woman who is not married is exposed to the talk of the world; people suppose that she has imperfections or bad motives. People said that I did not marry because I was attached to Lord Leicester, and that I could not marry him because he had a wife. Now he is a widower, and I do not marry him. God knows my thought and my soul; but, after all, if I married the King of France, what should you think of it? That the way is neither good nor short, and that even in a broad way there are dangerous passes."

This was almost threatening; it was the time when Catherine de Médicis was arriving at Bayonne and had her meeting with the Duke of Alba. Elizabeth detained Paul de Foix a long while, treating him with the greatest honors. She wished to gain time; so did Catherine de Médicis. Catherine suddenly turned round after the interview at Bayonne, and instructed Foix to abandon the project of her son's marriage and to forward the ambitious schemes of Leicester. Her only desire was to prevent the marriage of Elizabeth with the German Archduke. Paul de Foix was much embarrassed, but he obeyed his instructions, and told the Queen that perhaps she would do well to choose an English lord. To speak of an Englishman was to speak of Leicester, the great favorite, the man who was determined not to allow Elizabeth to marry anybody but himself. Elizabeth seemed not much surprised; she answered in her usual evasive style, making objections after objections, in order to see how they would be answered. Leicester now became very bold; he asked the Queen to marry him at Christmas-time. She gave her promise, and when the time came she asked for a delay, saying that she was awaiting a letter from Catherine de Médicis. After a while the influence of Cecil became again predominant. He wrote to Leicester, and, making an appeal to his patriotism, asked him to sacrifice his ambition to the good of the country. Elizabeth was thrown into new hesitations when, in the midst of a ball at Greenwich, she heard the news that Mary Stuart had been confined, on the 19th of June, 1566, and had become the mother of James. The dance ceased at once; everybody went away. Elizabeth remained with her ladies of honor, and uttered the well-known words: "The Queen of Scotland has a fine son, and I am a barren stock."

Paul de Foix was heartily sick of his embassy, and asked to return to France. He was replaced by La Forest, and the latter, *ad interim*, by his own nephew, who had a very extraordinary conversation with Elizabeth's doctor. The doctor bade him "pay no attention to what the Queen says about herself; she speaks according to her desire to marry or not to marry. If your King marries her, I will answer for ten children. Nobody understands her better than I do. If you like, you and I will conduct this affair secretly. Your King is young, accustomed to travelling; he can come over from Boulogne to see this fine lady" (National Library: Fonds Clairambault, No. 355). La Forest soon came himself. He understood at once that Elizabeth's doctor had only played a part in a comedy; he saw that Elizabeth kept aspirants in all countries merely to help her politics. She was so vain that she felt convinced that in the last analysis she could always get whomever she chose.

The difficulty was with Parliament. Elizabeth knew that the majority of the Lords looked on Mary Stuart as her successor, and the majority of the Commons on Catherine Grey, who was married to the Count of Hertford. The question of the marriage of Elizabeth and of the succession was in the minds of everybody. Elizabeth became angry; she saw Norfolk, and accused him of treason; she insulted Pembroke; she was brutal toward Northampton, and even with Leicester. She received very haughtily the address of Parliament, and, having prorogued it on the 5th of January, 1567, she found herself free again. Meanwhile she had seen Castelnau de Mauvissière, and, having spoken to him of Charles IX., she said: "Your King is too great and too small."

After a lapse of five years, which in France were filled with the wars of religion, a new project of marriage was formed for Elizabeth: Cardinal Châtillon and the Vidame of Chartres thought of the Duke of Anjou. The Duke was twenty years old, Elizabeth thirty-seven. Guido Cavalcanti, one of the friends of Catherine de Médicis, took part in this new negotiation, which was openly conducted by Lamothe-Fene-

lon, the French Ambassador. Walsingham, in his letters to Leicester, thus describes the Duke of Anjou:

"He is taller than I by two fingers, a little pale, well made, with long, slender, and well-proportioned legs. If what one sees not is as well as what one sees, he is tolerably healthy. He looks proud at first; but as soon as one speaks to him, one finds him more courteous and of better humor than his brothers. . . . The Queen Mother loves him as much as all her other children together."

Anjou had had a brilliant début, having gained two battles; but he soon became very effeminate. He wore jewels, pearls, feathers; he spent immense sums on his dress. Elizabeth conducted this new negotiation as she had done the first: she was probably never in earnest, and merely wished to amuse the French Court. Catherine, on her side, who was called the mother of kings, wished to give Anjou the Crown of Poland; she had the Duc d'Alençon in reserve for the Crown of England. Alençon had nothing but "guerre et tempête dans son cerveau," to use his mother's expression. He was a born agitator, conspirator—reckless, uneasy, incapable of repose. His life was a succession of frivolous and ambitious attempts. The disproportion between his age and that of Elizabeth was such that the idea of a marriage between him and the Queen of England seemed a perfect absurdity. The history of this third negotiation fills the second part of the volume of M. de la Ferrière. It is extremely interesting, and rests upon the best documents—the letters and negotiations of Walsingham, the state papers of the Record Office, the diplomatic correspondence of Lamothe-Fénelon. Elizabeth had a fixed idea in her head: she wanted Calais to be the wedding present of the French Prince. Nothing could be more dramatic than the death of Charles IX. at the age of twenty-four; the return of the Duke of Anjou, who had become Henri III.; the expedition of the Duc d'Alençon to Flanders. The memoirs of Marguerite of Navarre, who was very intimate with Alençon, are a very important document for those troubled times. Alençon spent his life in useless intrigues; he betrayed his friends; he seems to have been possessed with an evil spirit. It is impossible that Queen Elizabeth should have ever seriously thought of marrying such a frivolous and mischievous Prince, though she had evidently some sympathy for him. When he died, Elizabeth wrote to Catherine this strong letter: "Madame, your regret cannot be greater than mine, though you were his mother. You have another child, but I find no consolation but death, which soon, I hope, will unite me with him. If you could look into my heart, you would see a body without a soul." We must not take all this too much *à la lettre*. The style of the sixteenth century was very emphatic, and the sentiments of Elizabeth of England could not be expressed as they were really felt. Each century has its peculiar way of lying; in the sixteenth century everything always tended to an almost absurd exaggeration.

Correspondence.

"ERRORS OF THE CENSUS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: General Walker's defence to the criticisms directed against the accuracy of the Population volume of the Census is, that mistakes in the tables attacked are of little moment, inasmuch as those tables purport to be only approximate, and that in any event the errors dwelt upon are in themselves small. Whether this defence is applicable to some of the inaccuracies pointed out, will be left to the judgment of those who have read the letters upon the "Errors of the Census." It may be interesting, however, to hear General Walker's opinion upon the value of such a defence. In his report upon the Ninth Census (vol. on Population and Vital Statistics, pp. xxiii.-xxiv.), he says:

"Every error that occurs in the census of a country, or in any statistical work whatever, is to be regretted as an independent evil, hardly less where it balances another error than when it exaggerates the amount of error already existing. Two wrongs no more make a right in mathematics than in morals; and a falsehood in figures is none the more to be tolerated or excused because it may serve to conceal another falsehood."

In his interview of December 16, 1878, with a Congressional committee (Senate Miscellaneous, 1878-79, vol. xxvi., p. 15), he uses the following language: "It is exceedingly undesirable to bring anything into the Census which is not thoroughly trustworthy. Such material always does more than discredit the work: it accomplishes a great deal of positive harm." After stating that he had branded some of the results of the Census of 1870 as untrustworthy, he adds: "Yet even so, people will be misled by bad statistics. Those who have a purpose to serve, or proposition to prove, will use such figures in spite of any brand that may be put upon them."

Respectfully, John C. Rose.

Baltimore, Md., Oct. 21, 1882.

POLITICS IN NEW YORK CITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow an outsider to reply, from a somewhat different point of view, to the inquiries of an "Old Reader" and a "Constant Reader of the *Nation*"? It is one of the most constant teachings of history, from the earliest to the latest times, that the disciplined few, in strict subordination to strong individual leadership, can always triumph with ease over many times their number of those to whom such organization is wanting. That which happened with Cæsar's legions in Gaul, with Cortes and Pizarro in Mexico, and with Clive in India, has taken place in New York under Tweed and his successors. The respectable classes love to deal in checks and balances, are always running to the Legislature for commissions to do this, that, and the other thing, or exhaust themselves in frantic but spasmodic efforts to get good men to work a thoroughly bad system. The result is that while they may occasionally and temporarily stop a leak, they effect nothing permanent, and matters soon fall back to a worse state than before. Meantime their opponents, the Tweeds—I use the name typically, and the list of given names which you delight to rehearse in true Homeric fashion has a deep significance—organize their followers by "captains of fifties, and captains of hundreds," enforce unquestioning obedience as the price of plunder, take possession of the primaries, and the polls, and the sources of revenue, and laugh to scorn the faltering tactics of their victims.

I understand that the city of Brooklyn has adopted an arrangement by which the Mayor has the absolute power of appointment and removal of all executive officials without confirmation by anybody. If this is so, it may be the beginning of an extensive and beneficent revolution throughout the country. If the citizens of New York would bend their efforts to procuring a charter in which the Mayor had the absolute government of the city for a year, with power to appoint and remove every subordinate, and with no boards or commissions, but individual action everywhere; in which the aldermen, or council, or whatever the legislative body may be called, should have the right and the duty of criticising every act or plan of administration, and the power of granting or refusing money, but no power of interference in any way, so that the people at the end of the year, with a full understanding of the subject, should be called on to decide, not what is the best mode of cleaning the streets or managing the fire department, but whether they wish to have "Hon. John Smith" for their ruler for another year—then the mass of honest voters would begin to have their fair share of influence at the polls and in the primaries.

The respectable classes will not do this, because, under "the theory of our institutions," they have a morbid dread of one-man power, not seeing that one-man responsibility contains much more of security and protection than one-man power does of danger. But they can be sure of one thing, that they will have the one-man power, whether they like it or not, the only question being whether they prefer that of Hon. John Smith aforesaid, one of their own number, whom they can hold to responsibility, or that of "Barney" and "Mike," who are responsible only to themselves.

Please observe that I am not now urging any practical course in politics, but replying to some speculative inquiries of your correspondents.

G. B.

Boston, October 16, 1882.

D'AZEGLIO'S 'REMINISCENCES.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of Bersot, given among the "Notes" of the last number of the *Nation*, recalled to me the description of Roman society under the Papal régime, by D'Azeglio, in his delightful autobiography, entitled 'I Miei Ricordi.' Has that book been translated into English? If not, it would be well worth that honor. It certainly is one of the most instructive and entertaining books to read, alike for the lover of art and for him who feels interested in the latest history of the Peninsula, in the "evolution of the kingdom of Italy."—Yours respectfully,

J. J. Schobinger.

Chicago, Oct. 21, 1882.

[A translation, 'My Recollections,' appeared in London in two volumes in 1868.—Ed. Nation.]

ENGLISH VERSIONS OF THE "DE REPUBLICA."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should like to add a brief note to your own, of August 10, 1882, p. 113, correcting Mr. Quaritch's error in stating that "the Latin text [of Cicero de Republica] has never yet been published by the English press." The "Latin text" of the London reprint of Cardinal Mai's edition was reprinted in Boston, by O. Everett, in 1823, the same year in which it appeared in London. The title-page styles it "Editio prima Americana"; but I do not think there has ever been a subsequent one. If Mr. Quaritch had taken the trouble to look into Lowndes, he might have found that another edition was published in London, in 1853.

The work itself was first translated into English by an American, Mr. George W. Featherstonhaugh, as early as 1829. It was published in New York by G. & C. Carvill, accompanied by a brief critical and historical introduction, and was dedicated to Sir Roderick I. Murchison. There is an amusing instance of professional or national jealousy to be seen in the remark of Mr. Francis Barham, whose translation was pub-

lished in London, in 1841, that "the work has also been translated at New York, in the United States, 1829, if we may trust the 'Cyclopædia Americana,' by Mr. Featherstonhaugh." Now, as the 'Encyclopædia Americana' merely states that "the work has also been translated in the United States" (New York, 1829), without mentioning the translator's name, it seems highly probable that Mr. Barham had Mr. Featherstonhaugh's labors before his eyes, and possibly may have availed himself of them. But "the gods are just," and the same fate has befallen him at the hands of Mr. Yonge, in Bohn's Classical Library.

I have never seen these facts stated in any bibliography of Cicero's writings, and as they are to the credit of American letters, I trust they may find a place in the new translation announced by Mr. Quaritch.

Very truly yours,
HENRY W. HAYNES.

BOSTON, October 17, 1882.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co. have in press 'The Princess and Curdie,' a juvenile story by George MacDonald; a 'Life of Sir Wm. Rowan Hamilton,' by Robert Perceval Graves; 'The Subjection of Hamlet,' by William Leighton; 'An Epitome of Modern Literature,' by Mrs. F. C. Henderson; and 'The New Arabian Nights,' translated by W. F. Kirby.

'Moravian Missions,' by the Rev. A. C. Thompson, D. D.; 'In the Desert'—a journey in the track of the Israelites—by the Rev. Henry M. Field, D. D.; and 'The Book of Forty Puddings,' by Susan Anna Brown; are among the fall announcements of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Vol. ii. of Lalor's 'Cyclopædia of Political Science, Political Economy, and of the Political History of the United States,' is announced to appear in December. The publication of the work, we learn, has, with the consent of Mr. Lalor, been transferred from Rand, McNally & Co. to the new firm of Melbert B. Cary & Co., of Chicago; but the present volume will, like the preceding, be manufactured by the former house.

L. R. Hamersly & Co., Philadelphia, have nearly ready 'A Chronological History of the Origin and Development of Steam Navigation, 1543–1882,' in one volume, by Rear-Admiral George H. Preble.

We have received the second annual list of prizes, 190 in number, aggregating nearly $1,000, for pencil drawings made with Dixon's American graphite pencils by pupils of primary, grammar, high, normal, and art schools. These must be sent, duly certified, to the Joseph Dixon Crucible Co., at Jersey City, N. J., on or before June 1, 1883. The circular specifies the kinds of drawing for each group of competitors.

Miss Hewins, in the current number of her Hartford Library Association *Bulletin*, gives a list of works on English and American history for children; it will be a sure preventive of idleness.

Much the fullest account that we have yet seen of the late Col. Joseph Lemuel Chester is contributed, with a steel portrait, to the October number of the *N. Y. Genealogical and Biographical Record*, by Mr. John J. Latting. We are surprised, however, that no reference is made to Colonel Chester's "hot scent" of the pedigree of the Washington family.

Teachers of history will find 'Historical Reference Lists,' by Prof. John T. Short, of the Ohio State University (Columbus), very serviceable. It is divided into "Thesis Subjects," in four divisions—Middle Ages, Modern Europe, and English and American Constitutional History—and "Lecture Subjects and References in United States Constitutional History": ninety-six pages in all. Such books cannot be too highly commended. We notice, however, a tendency to detail of reference which we fear will partly defeat the object intended. For example, the 112th lecture subject, on the "Results of the War of 1812," has two references to Von Holst, six to Hildreth, and so on. Now, finding matter for himself is as important as any part of the student's work: a general reference to the volume, with, of course, particular references to some passage of special importance, is all that he needs. Anything more than this is doing his work for him. Another suggestion: such lists should always begin with the two or three indispensable works, and then pass to the less important ones. But, for example, the fourth thesis subject, on the "Origin of Towns," begins with five references to Bryce's 'Holy Roman Empire,' all of which are incidental, and only one of which is really an important one.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have taken from the 'Poems of Places,' for the selection of which Mr. Longfellow was responsible, the 'Poems of America,' and issued them in three very tasteful companion volumes. The arrangement is alphabetical by towns, and as the pieces are all signed, the table of contents might well have been omitted in favor of an index of authors; or this could have been added for the set at trifling expense. The association with the "place" is sometimes no closer than that the selection was composed there—see, under Pittsfield, Mass., "The Old Clock on the Stairs."

Forestry Bulletin No. 22 tabulates in family groups the specific gravity and ash of the woods of the United States.

We are glad to see that the *Harvard Lampoon* still survives, though the designs for the first number of the new volume are feeble enough. Cannot there be a greater variety in the "processes" by which the autograph drawings are reproduced? The pen-point is trying to the tyro.

The interference of railroads in politics, though less gross and unblushing now than thirty years ago, cannot be resented in the form it takes in the 'Baltimore and Ohio Red Book,' which has an edition for every State, and carefully records the vote at the State and Presidential elections of 1880, 1881, by counties and districts.

The 'History of Wood Engraving in America,' contributed to the late *American Art Review* by Mr. W. J. Linton, which will here bear the imprint of Estes & Lauriat, is announced for publication in London by George Bell & Sons. The same house will issue 'Arthur Hugh Clough: a Monograph,' by S. Waddington. Mr. Wm. Conway's papers in the *Bibliographer* on 'The Woodcutters of the Netherlands' will be collected in a volume and reissued by Elliot Stock. Mrs. Fanny Kemble will publish her 'Notes upon some of Shakspere's Plays' through Richard Bentley & Son, who also promise a large-paper edition of Jane Austen's novels in six volumes. Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. announce the 'Life of Antonio Rosmini-Serbati,' by G. S. Macwalter, and a translation of his 'Origin of Ideas.' Through W. Swan Sonnenschein & Co. will appear 'Alice through the Looking-glass, and Other Plays for Children,' dramatized by K. Freiligrath-Kroeker, with plates giving suggestions for costumes. Prof. Oldenberg's 'Buddha, his Life and his Doctrine,' will be published by Williams & Norgate.

Parts 33–39 of the new Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon (New York: L. W. Schmidt) nearly attain the letter C, ending with *Bronze*. *Brazil* is the chief article, at least on the geographical side, and has a folding colored map; but the articles *Brunswick*, *Borneo*, and *Bosnia* are also tolerably full, and the last two have a fresh interest. Another colored map is allotted to *British North America*; and *Bombay*, the *Bosphorus*, *Boston* (Mass.), and *Bremen* are each provided with a chart in the text. The article on Boston is a little antiquated in the descriptive portions: *e. g.*, the sightseer would look in vain in that city for the Lowell Institute among "buildings," as he would for the indigenous *North American Review*. Nor, in the appended list of recent authorities, which is an excellent feature of this cyclopædia, is there any allusion to the monumental 'Memorial History of Boston.' American biography is perforce sparsely represented in these instalments. The illustrations relate to boring, lead-working, butter-making, bread-baking, and book-printing tools and machinery; to bridges, all American, including the East River Bridge, and (prophetically) the North River Bridge at Poughkeepsie; to the circulation of the blood; to the leaf; and to statuary—these last, though simple outlines, being more painstaking and satisfactory than ordinary.

The Cambridge (Eng.) Philological Society has resolved to publish its proceedings in the shape of summaries of the papers read and business done at its meetings. These will generally appear at the end of each term, and the 'Proceedings' for Lent Term and Easter Term, 1882, has just been published, making a thin pamphlet of twenty-eight pages. A limited number of copies in excess of those sent out to members may be had of Trübner & Co. for a shilling a term, or two and sixpence a year.

The *Academy* states that the series of upward of 300 ethnographic masks and busts modelled by the brothers Schlagintweit from living natives of British India, Thibet, Central Asia, Morocco, and North America have been reproduced in zinc and bronze by the surviving brother. The casts are highly praised for their minute fidelity to nature. They can be had in metal for about $1,800, in plaster for about $300, of Johann Ambrosius Barth, Leipzig. Any museum would be enriched by such a collection of "types of mankind."

We read in the *Medical and Surgical Reporter* that Professor Arnold, Director of the Berlin Institute for the Blind, has succeeded in teaching stenography to the blind. They not only learn to write shorthand, but to read their own notes—a feat which seems impossible. Their acute sense of hearing should make them, if their general knowledge is good, the best of reporters.

Here is an instance for those who delight in saying that the world is full of compensations. The daughter of Claude Bernard, the great physiologist and no doubt vivisector, has made her whole house an asylum for vagrant and suffering caninity. To such an extent has she carried her benevolence that the police have condemned her to a fine of a franc for not keeping her *kennel* clean enough.

As previously announced, the *Allgemeine Zeitung* was transferred to Munich on October 1. The change of domicile leaves this journal intact in all its features, but Augsburg has lost what for nearly a century has made its name famous in the annals of German politics and literature.

Two sales by the well-known Amsterdam firm of Frederik Muller & Co. deserve the attention of connoisseurs of art. They both take place on November 20, 21, proximo, and embrace (*a*) collections of pen, chalk, and water-color drawings (of the Dutch school particularly, but also of the Italian, French, and German) made by the Marquis de Chennevières and by Mr. J. C. Robinson; and (*b*) the engravings of Henri Goltzius, Jacques de Gheyn, and the brothers Wierix, together with a remarkable lot of portraits, mostly of the sixteenth century. Mr. Christern has the catalogues.

A self-correcting blunder occurred in the first

of the library tables given on page 337 of last week's issue of the *Nation*. The figures for volumes represented thousands, not "hundred thousands."

—Mr. William Potts, the Secretary of the Civil-Service Reform Association, No. 4 Pine Street, has a limited number of copies of Hubbell's 'Campaign Text Book' for sale at fifty cents each, postage paid. We would advise all in search of entertainment to procure a copy from Mr. Potts, as single copies cannot be obtained from Hubbell himself. It contains a great deal of very diverting reading, and then we have no doubt collectors will find it to their account to purchase it, as it will undoubtedly in a very few years be a valuable and probably scarce relic of the spoils system in its last days. There are few things in comic literature equal to Hubbell's defence of political assessments, because he both commends them as an excellent thing and uses them as an illustration of the rascality of the Democrats, who, he says, originated them.

—*Lippincott's* for November contains an article by Frank D. Y. Carpenter, on "Dom Pedro's Dominion," which will please the Brazilians even less than Mr. Bigelow's paper in the last *Harper's*, on the railway invasion of Mexico, has pleased the Mexicans. The article is in the shape of a conversation between an elderly foreigner, long resident in Brazil, and a young man who draws him out. The old cynic begins his plaint with domestic service, which, it seems, is worse even than it was in the United States a generation ago, if we may judge by the alleged fact that in the hotels the "first six rings (of the bell) don't count," the servant generally answering only on the seventh. To pass to more serious subjects, the Brazilians cannot pay their debts, or even the interest on them; the upper classes are "shiftless, proud, and poor"; taxation is oppressive, being laid both on imports and exports. The population is grossly provincial, as the story of the persecution of the Paris physician brought out to attend the Emperor's daughter shows, and science is in such a very rudimentary stage that the Directors of the National Museum published an elaborate account, accompanied by finely drawn plates, of a very peculiar zoölogical specimen—a new discovery—which, on being taken to Boston by the Emperor, was found to be nothing more nor less than a tadpole. In society the tone of conversation is very loose: the young man mentions his being casually asked by his partner at a ball whether he had brought his *amiga* with him to the hotel at which he was staying. Dom Pedro is represented as a titled globe-trotter, who runs about over the face of the earth, looking at museums and manufactories, and getting flattered up to the eyes for his energy, which is simply due to the speed of the railroad train, and his wisdom, which is shown by his preserving a discreet silence. It must be added that the cynic, who appears to be an American, does not give a very agreeable picture of the representatives of our Government in Brazil. One of them is mentioned as having been in the habit of walking about the streets in his shirt-sleeves, and another of carrying his luncheon away from the hotel in his coat-tail pocket. A third foreign Minister is spoken of—his nationality is not given—who, being about to sell out, advertised a portrait of the Emperor as "stable furniture." It appears, further, that at a dinner "at which all classes, including Government officials, were present," a toast to "The Republic—when it shall come," was received with an outburst of approval by "all present, drunk or sober." How much of this picture is true, and how much due to the cynicism bred in the Anglo-Saxon mind by a residence in a tropical country under a "Latin Government," we will not undertake to say, but merely call the attention of the friends of Dom Pedro and of Brazil to it, and suggest that the December magazines and the daily press are open to them for a reply. Mr. H. W. Raymond contributes an account of the "Cruise of the *Viking*," from Greenport, Long Island, to Chicago, Illinois; a voyage not often made, though not especially difficult to make.

—Alphonse Daudet has an article in the *Century* on Victor Hugo in his old age, which is pleasant reading, and adds one or two new points to our knowledge of the poet. Nothing is more curious about Hugo than the fact that his writing has been so little affected by the literary influences which have come into play within the past thirty years. The explanation of this is very simple, if Daudet's statement that "he reads nothing" is to be accepted. "No literary work of our day," says the author of the 'Nabab,' "has ever passed under his eyes," with the exception of the attack upon him by Zola in the *Figaro*. A good many of the practical details of his every-day life—the article is by no means critical in character—are given, among others the simple device he has adopted for relieving himself of the trouble of answering the numerous correspondents who intrude themselves upon him, asking for his advice and critical offices. Daudet says: "Worthy people, thinking no harm, write to Victor Hugo, begging a reply, and demanding his opinion of several stout volumes of 500 pages each. Well, I really am not spiteful, but I cannot conceal the satisfaction with which I now shatter their illusions, the joy with which I say to them: 'Write, good friends, send Victor Hugo your volumes; Victor Hugo will not read them, Victor Hugo will not even open your letters.' He has two good watch-dogs, Mme. Drouët and Richard Lesclide, the latter an enthusiast from Bordeaux, whose admiration for the poet made him take the post of secretary. It is Mme. Drouët and Richard Lesclide who read and reply. While they are thus engaged the poet is at leisure to write poetry." Mr. Albert Stickney writes on the jury system, bringing forward many arguments to show that it is a failure, and ought to be abolished. He proposes an absolutely novel substitute—that of trial by a number of judges, of the same standing and capacity as those who now sit in courts of last resort, and the abolition of appeals. He would retain the feature of unanimity, for he thinks that a number of intelligent judges can arrive at a unanimous decision in the vast majority of cases, though, of course, there would have to be a new trial whenever they failed to agree. The increase of expense through the necessary additions to the judicial force would, he thinks, be compensated for by the saving effected in time and money now lost through protracted litigation. We have not space to examine his arguments in detail here, and can only say that they deserve attentive examination. Of course, the question of the expediency of abolishing juries is not involved in that of the abolition of appeals. Juries may be abolished, and the right of appeal retained. In this State there can be no question that the right of appeal gives opportunity to enormous and needless abuses. The double appeal from the trial court to the General Term, and thence to the Court of Appeals, is certainly unnecessary. One court to review errors of law is enough, as the successful operation of the system of single appeals in Massachusetts amply shows. Mr. Howells contributes an article on Mr. Henry James, jr.; in the course of it he refers to a subject to which he often alludes in his novels, and which must puzzle his foreign readers a good deal—the "American joke." In this continental jest, he very justly insists, all true Americans have a share; it greatly relieves the monotony of life for all native-born citizens, but perhaps most of all for those Americans who are familiar with European society—as the joke, if we are not mistaken, derives much of its value from that contrast between Europe and the United States which Mr. James has been the first to bring prominently into fiction. Mr. James himself has a pleasant illustrated article on Venice.

—In the *Atlantic* the civilization of the American Indian is the subject of an article by Lieut. George S. Wilson, of the Twelfth Infantry. It is one of the plainest, most forcible, and most practical papers on the Indian question that have ever been written. Lieutenant Wilson has had serious and successful experience with Indians of various tribes, both in peace and in war; and knowing them well, he has that pity for them which contact or study, independently of sentiment, gives thoughtful men. He describes in great detail how he would civilize the Pimas, an Arizona tribe, numbering 4,600 souls. They are not nomadic, and subsist by a rude agriculture, but, according to Mr. Wilson, are only slightly above the level of the Indians of the plains. He would establish a sort of community, in which the Pimas would be civilized by being treated not as so many abstract Indians, but as Pimas, with all the mental, moral, and social peculiarities of Pimas. There is nothing in his scheme which is at all hostile to the schools in operation at Carlisle and Hampton. On the contrary, it would, to a certain extent, be intended to supplement these, and afford a sort of "half-way house" on the road from barbarism to civilization. Here Indian boys coming back from an Eastern school with a trade, or other useful means of self-support, could find a place "where they would be associated with a respectable class of whites on the one hand, and the more progressive of their own kindred on the other." "Studies in the South" is continued, but there is nothing very new in the current number, which merely serves to deepen the impression produced by all that have gone before, that the South has broken with its past, and that in the generation now occupying the stage there is a wonderful hospitality to all ideas which seem to have any economical value. Even as to homicide, most of the Southerners with whom Mr. Harrison converses seem struck with the fact that in those parts of the country where wealth accumulates fastest, homicide is most infrequent. When such ideas as this get abroad there is hope for the future, however dark the present may look. The serials are all continued, and in "Two on a Tower" Mr. Hardy gets his astronomical hero and heroine into some more trouble, out of which, however, it will not be very difficult to extricate them. He is not very successful in his mixture of astronomy and love, with which the tale is flavored. It is the astronomy which is stirred in with a stick, for the love is natural enough, and Viviette rather an attractive heroine.

—The most serious contribution to literature in *Harper's* is Mr. Howells's "Pordenone," a poem in hexameters. These, if not as smooth as those of Longfellow, adapt themselves easily to the sort of narration which the subject requires. Howard Pyle contributes an illustrated article on the Quakers, and Mr. John Fiske an historical sketch of Virginia in the colonial period, in the course of which he traces the belief that the aristocracy of Virginia was recruited from the ranks of kidnapped paupers and convicts, in part to a falsehood set afloat by Malachi Postlethwaite, about the middle of the eighteenth cen-

turv. The belief was certainly prevalent in England at the time, but Mr. Fiske thinks that few if any of the convicts and paupers who formed the wretched class of indentured white servants in Virginia, ever worked their way up to the ownership of a plantation—all of which will be consoling to the impoverished Virginian landowner of to-day, whose hard fate after the war was aggravated by the prevalent suspicion that he was, if the truth were known, little better off for ancestry than he should be. Junius Henri Browne writes about "The Problem of Living in New York." This, he thinks, is partly solved by the coöperative flat system. The principal difficulties about living in New York are, we fancy (for the class for which such articles are written) to a great extent moral ones. The tenacity with which people in moderate circumstances cling to display in things perfectly unimportant lies very near the root of it. The need, for instance, of living in what is called the "fashionable quarter" of the city is not great: and houses at a moderate rent are to be had if this is given up. No man need feel his dignity lessened because there is no "high stoop" in front of his house. No man, in short, need sacrifice comfort and economy to what is vulgarly known as "style," and yet this has been for many a long year a temptation to Americans not overrich such as is unknown to any corresponding class in the world elsewhere.

—Professor Corson, of Cornell, contributed to the eighth meeting of the Browning Society an essay on "The Idea of Personality," as embodied in Robert Browning's poetry, which is now published separately. It is the fruit of a careful, and what must have been a patient, study of the obscurer works in which the poet has veiled the truth from ordinary eyes. Professor Corson finds that the entire work of Browning is really very homogeneous, with but few principles underlying it. He states these in general terms—that mind is something supernatural, that truth is implicit in the mind, that the intellect is at present too much valued at the expense of other human faculties, and the like. But the cardinal idea of all is, that men are regenerated, converted, by higher personalities who bring them light and open to them the meaning of life; and with this goes the subsidiary notion that one main mode by which such personalities operate on men is art. This is, as is said, the Messianic idea of life—Christ being the historic personality of most power, but not of power different in kind from that of others who have helped to enlighten and purify humanity. Hence Browning, as the apostle of this idea, is the most essentially Christian poet of the time. This analysis is helpful in indicating the intellectual affinity between him and his friend Landor, who set the same value on great men in a different way, and especially in showing how coincident Browning's thought was with Carlyle's. But the attempt to present Browning as a great teacher can have but little effect; if he be such, it is only for the few, for his defects of expression make his philosophy a sealed volume even to the cultivated. If he be a great thinker, he has failed to convey the truth through beauty as a poet ought; and it is for a very different reason from Professor Corson's that lovers of poetry as an art would think his suggested "general title" for Browning's works appropriate—"The Burden of Robert Browning to the Nineteenth Century." But for those who are content to miss beauty for the sake of truth, this essay is a safe and valuable guide: it affords the not easily discovered clew to the labyrinth, and with it one may venture even into the obscurity of 'Sordello' without fearing to experience that sense of being utterly lost which most of us have felt.

—We have received from the office of the Chief Signal Officer a "Report on the Character of Six Hundred Tornadoes," by Sergeant J. P. Finley, of the Signal Corps, published as No. VII. of the Professional Papers of the Signal Office. The preface consists of the following words only: "The publication of this monograph as a Professional Paper is merely for the purpose of bringing it to the attention of scientific men, and is not to be taken as an endorsement of the views or theories set forth." Such disclaimers are usually oftenest made when least necessary. This concise and lucid pamphlet of Sergeant Finley is almost free from hypotheses, the only one which intrudes itself being the notion that storms are caused by a collision of northerly with southerly winds. Some of the inferences from the tables presented are as follows: June is the month in which tornadoes are more frequent than in any other. Kansas is the State most often visited by them. From four to six in the afternoon is the favorite time of day. The direction of the path of destruction lies from southwest to northeast, and the wind preceding the tornado blows in the same way. The average width of the path of destruction is one thousand feet; the average velocity of the storm-cloud, thirty miles an hour; the average duration of the gust, six minutes; the average length of track, twenty-eight miles. The peculiar dark funnel-shaped cloud always has a whirling movement in the direction the reverse of that of the hands of a watch, and is half the time preceded by the fall of hail. At the close of the monograph is an interesting chart showing the geographical distribution of tornadoes over this country, which suggests the criticism that undue weight is given to testimony from the Atlantic States at a period when none could be obtained from the West, since the period embraced in this investigation begins as far back as 1794. Until very recently, nine-tenths of the most violent storms may have smitten the soil of Kansas without being reported to the Signal Office, or even been known of, until years after their occurrence.

—The movement in this country and in England for the opening of libraries, museums, etc., on Sunday, in the interest of the working classes, has for several years had its counterpart in Germany in a quiet agitation which, prompted by the same philanthropic motives, has apparently pursued a different aim. There a stricter general observance of the Sunday is insisted on, in order to secure to the laborer the complete cessation from work which characterizes the Anglo-Saxon "Sabbath." The movement, which first took shape at the Wiesbaden "Protestantentag," in 1874, has ceased to be exclusively Protestant, Windthorst, the most prominent Ultramontane politician in Germany, having become one of its champions; and although it has naturally found favor with the Socialists, it is essentially non-political in its character, as well as very rational in its methods. The most prominent of the associations for the promotion of Sunday rest, that of Bremen, which was formed in 1879, some time ago made inquiries in about fifty cities of Germany concerning the Sunday observance in factories, workshops, counting-houses, retail stores, restaurants, etc. The result of these inquiries is made known by A. Lammers in a pamphlet on 'Sonntagsfeier in Deutschland' (No. 166 of the *Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen*. Berlin: Carl Habel). Herr Lammers states that, while in Saxony alone Sunday work in factories is not permitted by the authorities, it was generally found that the abstention from Sunday labor is strictest in the great centres of industry. Thus, in Mülhausen, Crefeld, Elberfeld-Barmen, all factories remain closed. In Munich, Königsberg, Gera, and Weimar, too, the laborer enjoys a day of complete rest. The replies from all the other cities were more or less unfavorable; factories being generally closed in but few, while workshops and retail stores are open in most. With regard to counting-houses, the evil practice of "opening the mail" prevails throughout Germany, rendering the "voluntary" attendance of at least some of the clerks necessary, who pass their time in a lounging, dissatisfied sort of way. Equally general is the thoughtless habit of making unnecessary purchases on Sunday, and it was against this evil that the Bremen association successfully directed its efforts. It wisely enlisted the fair sex in its cause, eighty well-known ladies of Bremen having canvassed the city in the spring of 1880, and secured the names of 6,000 women who declared their intention of making none but unavoidable purchases on Sunday. No pledge was exacted, the association having evidently profited by the experience of transatlantic associations in other fields concerning the value of "total-abstinence" pledges. Conservative action was also enjoined by the popular Continental prejudice against the "dreary English Sunday." That purely religious motives play no part in the German movement is proved by the activity of such sister societies of the Bremen association as the Berlin "Verein fur das Wohl der aus der Schule entlassenen Jugend" (Society for the care of children who have left school) and the Göttingen Society for the Promotion of Popular Education. The former includes in its summer programme Sunday excursions, the latter entertains its charges—mostly apprentices—on Sunday evenings with recitations, musical performances, games, etc., not omitting experiments in physics and instructive lectures. Several university students have taken an active part in these entertainments. Herr Lammers urges the formation of similar societies in the interest of the working girls, justly remarking that if ladies of intelligence were to devote an occasional Sunday evening to such a cause, they would provide for themselves, as well as for hundreds of poor girls, a novel and profitable Sunday entertainment. Herr Lammers's pamphlet deserves the widest circulation alike for its humane spirit and admirable fairness of tone.

—A noticeable literary phenomenon is the sudden and widespread revival of the 'Surgeon's Stories,' by Prof. Z. Topelius, a translation of which is in the press in this country, and will probably also be brought out in England. A new translation of them is being also made in Germany, and a new edition has just appeared in Denmark, published by P. G. Philipsen, Copenhagen, the translator being Fr. Winkel Horn. Finally, the Swedish publisher of Topelius's works, Albert Bonnier, has in preparation a superb illustrated edition, the designs for which are by Larsson (the same artist who illustrated Bishop Wallin's fine poem, "The Angel of Death"), and will number 350, or between fifty and sixty for each volume. Few works offer such abundant material to the artist. Topelius's tales cannot fail to have a great success in all Protestant countries, and Mr. Bonnier intends issuing an edition of 15,000 copies of the new illustrated series, at the same price as that of the original edition without illustration. Another enduring work, 'Fänrik Ståls Tales,' by the poet Johan Ludvig Runeberg, has been brought out recently in two illustrated editions—one a beautiful portfolio series, having large colored plates, with the text beneath; the other in book form, with designs by the celebrated painter Prof. J. A. Malmström. A translation of "Faust," ranking among the best in any language, has been made by Dr. Victor Rydberg, and that, too, is magnificently illustrated. Besides the fine wood-engravings, about ninety in number, by A. von Kreling, the edition has two carefully executed large photographs, made in F. Bruckman's atelier, in Munich, from

Prof. von Kreling's original compositions, "Faust's Dream" and "Margaret led to Death."

—In his "Letter to a Friend" M. Renan showed that the Germans have no wit; in his lecture before the Sorbonne he pointed out the enormity of their offence in taking possession of an integral part of France, dismembering a living body; and now, in his annual report as Secretary of the Société Orientale, he hints that the method adopted by the Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft is much inferior to the practice of the French society. Thus, all roads lead to Rome. The comparison is made with his accustomed neatness. What could be more complete, he courteously asks, than the German society's conscientious *comptes rendus*? But their very completeness makes them deceptive. By giving the bad as well as the good, they cause an entirely wrong impression of the state of learning. Among the writings on these subjects, the foolish, the nearly worthless always exceeds the valuable, and will always be in excess as long as the freedom of the press lasts; but Learning is to be judged by her children, not by the works of the unlearned and the semi-learned. The Germans rake together everything, taking titles from the reviews and the publishers' advertisements. In their accounts of French Oriental studies they mention a crowd of ineptitudes which do not obtain sufficient vogue at home even to be heard of. This is bibliography, not reporting: a report should select. If anything is so bad that it would have been better had it never been written, it should be passed by. Every honest worker should be welcomed with fairness, whatever mistakes he may make; and it is well that his errors should be pointed out by severe critics—the literary police; but that is not the duty of the Oriental Society, nor can it refute all false theories and call attention to all shortcomings. Its reporter's duty is to record the progress of knowledge, and he may be silent about those works which merely stand in the way of that progress. Renan hints that this view leads to a much less wearisome result. It brings the whole report within the capacity of one man, and allows of unity of style. Certainly Renan's reports have been always agreeable reading, and it is to be regretted that this is to be the last.

—Our readers will find in the *Zeitschrift für Deutsches Alterthum*, 1882 (Anzeiger VIII., pp. 26–52), a valuable review, by A. Brandl, of a no less valuable work, Kawczynski's 'Studien zur Litteraturgeschichte des 18 Jahrhunderts' (Leipzig, Matthes, 1880). The author's work is in two parts. In the first he gives a list of English, French, German, and other periodicals dealing with social-moral questions. Brandl offers many corrections and additions. The second part of the work is taken up with the *Tatler*, and Steele's general position in English literature. Brandl's remarks are so full and so well put as to constitute practically an independent essay. From author and reviewer we can learn much concerning Steele's relations to Addison, the influence of Jeremy Collier and Cibber upon Steele, the antecedents of the *Tatler*, the connection between Steele and Lillo and Gay, and Steele's influence upon Richardson. On one point we have detected Brandl in serious error. He calls (p. 34) Jeremy Collier "der eifernde Dissenter," which implies a total misconception of Collier's position. Collier was emphatically *not* a Dissenter, but a Churchman of the most pronounced type, a Non-juror who forfeited his living just because of his Tory and Anglican views. And his strictures upon the immorality of the English stage owed a large, perhaps the largest, part of their force to the circumstance that they came from one who had proved beyond question that he was in all other respects the most ardent Jacobite. Beljame's estimate of Collier, in his 'Le Public et les Hommes de Lettres en Angleterre au Dixhuitième Siècle' (pp. 248–252), is immeasurably superior. In general, Brandl seems to us to have but a vague insight into English society of the eighteenth century. He confounds Whigs with Dissenters, the anti-Tory views of Addison, Steele, etc., are to him *antiaristokratisch* (as if the Whigs were not themselves aristocrats), and he looks upon the establishment of Whig constitutional government as the development of English *Bürgerthum*. But it is idle to speak of an English *Bürgerthum* in politics, or even in literature, before the Reform Bill of 1832. These defects, however, do not impair the value of Brandl's critique. In purely literary matters he is accurate and clear-sighted. We expect much from his promised work upon Coleridge.

—It has frequently been noted that the *ensemble* at the Academy of Music is apt to be better in Verdi's operas than in those of any other composer. Probably the reason is that Verdi's operas, while easy enough to be mastered by Mr. Mapleson's company, at the same time partake sufficiently of the modern dramatic spirit to inspire the performers with some interest in their interpretation. On Monday evening "Rigoletto" was given in quite a satisfactory manner, so far as orchestra and chorus were concerned. Of the principals, Galassi and Ravelli deserve especial praise, although the latter has lately taken to forcing an occasional note in an unpleasant manner. The audience, however, was small and undemonstrative, barely one-half of the seats being occupied. We wish to lay particular stress on this fact, for it shows the truth of what we have been preaching so long: that people are tired of Italian opera, and want to hear something better. The friends of the tuneful old fashioned opera cannot complain that their claims have been neglected. While some of the Italian operas have deserved their popularity, others would have disappeared at once had they not had the advantage of being patronized by fashionable society, to whose tastes they had been carefully adapted at a frequent sacrifice of all artistic form and content. But fashionable society is now turning its back on its old favorites. In German cities not one opera in ten is Italian, and in Paris the proportion is almost as small, while London, too, is at last following suit; and what London fashionable society does, New York soon imitates. The London *Times* speaks of the "shadow of Italian opera" of which the "substance has dwindled away," and with this opinion of a Wagnerian organ agrees that of a rabid anti-Wagnerite—the London *World*—whose critic says in the last number: "Italian opera is dead, and no frantic efforts of any kind will revive it. It was a fashion, and has ceased in reality to exist long ago, both as to Italian works and Italian singers."

—Mr. Mapleson has so far given us operas by Bellini, Donizetti, Verdi, and Rossini alone—"Puritani," "Tell," "Lucrezia Borgia," "Rigoletto"—all of which belong to the barrel-organ repertory. After the arrival of Mme. Patti this state of affairs will not be altered, for Patti sings in only half-a-dozen operas. Now, look at Vienna, for example. During the first six weeks of the present season four Italian operas only were given, the others being by Gluck (2), Mozart (3), Weber (2), Wagner (3), Meyerbeer (4), Gounod (2), Adam, Marschner, Boito, and Thomas. Furthermore, half-a-dozen complete novelties are promised. But we need not go so far to find a pleasant contrast to Mr. Mapleson's stagnant and antiquated repertory. The list of novelties and of standard works that will be produced this winter by Mr. Thomas and Dr. Damrosch is magnificent, and we can positively state that it is not equalled by the lists published in any foreign city, nor are our concert orchestras inferior to any in the world. But Mr. Mapleson does not undertake to bring us a single novelty; and although it would be unjust to deny that he gives the barrel-organ operas better than they have been given before, it must be remembered that these operas are easy, and that the people who attend the Philharmonic concerts do not go to them. If Mr. Mapleson would bring over a different kind of a company, including singers who can do justice to the best French and German operas, we should be among his warmest supporters. Herr Neumann, who is now meeting with extraordinary success with his travelling Wagnerian company in German cities, would doubtless meet with similar favor here; and it is to be hoped that Frau Materna's project, announced some months ago, of coming over here with some of the best dramatic vocalists of Germany and a choice and varied repertory, may be soon realized.

AMERICAN IMPRESSIONS OF A FRENCH MONARCHIST.

De Bacourt. Souvenirs d'un Diplomate. Lettres intimes sur l'Amérique. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

WHO was M. de Bacourt? A diplomat of the old school, who entered the service in 1822, was Talleyrand's First Secretary of Legation at London in 1830–34, Minister at Carlsruhe from 1835 to 1840, Minister Plenipotentiary to the United States in 1840–42, and ended Minister at Turin, where the revolution of 1848 overtook him, and he resigned rather than serve the Republic. He became the depositary of Talleyrand's Memoirs—a striking tribute to his discretion and probity—and in assigning them, on his death in 1868, to their present custodians, added twenty years to the term of thirty already fixed for their publication by their author. They can, accordingly, not see the light before 1888. So much we learn from his niece, the Comtesse de Mirabeau, who edits the present volume, and who lauds M. de Bacourt's qualities of head and heart in a manner which will not appear excessive to his readers.

These familiar letters seem to have been addressed to Talleyrand's niece, the Duchesse de Dino, *née* Princesse de Courlande, and later Duchesse de Talleyrand et de Sagan, the joint depositary with M. de Bacourt of the Memoirs. The first bears date of May 24, 1840, and is written from London: the last, of July 25, 1842, from Washington. The correspondence, faithfully kept up, averaged more than one letter weekly, for there are in all 124 letters. We do not hesitate to say that a more readable and, in the main, more discriminating picture of the period covered by them does not exist, due regard being had to the scope of these private jottings. At every page our pencil has made marks to satisfy which would involve practically a translation of the entire work. M. de Bacourt's observations were contemporaneous with those of the 'American Notes.' They are not more flattering to the great Republic of the West, and would, if published when written, have raised an even greater storm of indignation; for in matters personal the French minister was under no restraint whatever. His niece even gives a polemic character to the present publication by offering it as a weapon to the irreconcilable opponents of the Republic in France.

The date of his visit was fortunate for M. de Bacourt. He landed in the midst of the most exciting Presidential canvass ever known in this country. He was, in the space of ten months, presented to three successive Presidents of the United States. He watched with a lively interest the making of the tariff of 1842, in which,

despite his best efforts, French silks and wines were for the first time taken from the free list. He witnessed the tempest which arose on John Quincy Adams's presenting a Northern disunion petition in the House (Feb. 2, 1842). He went to meet the Prince de Joinville on his second visit to this country. He greeted as an old friend Lord Ashburton, come to settle the northeastern boundary dispute, and outstayed the conclusion of the Treaty, with the *Creole* case looming up as a fresh cause of difficulty with England. He saw civil war break out in Rhode Island, the Seminole war dragging its slow length along in Florida, hostilities begun between Mexico and that "vrai nid de bandits de toutes les nations, mais particulièrement des États-Unis," Texas. Arriving while the effects of the panic of 1837 were still visible in vast areas of suspended buildings in New York and in Brooklyn, he hears before his departure that Pennsylvania has paid the interest on her debt for the last time. The fact that most of the bondholders are foreigners "gives much force to the doctrine of *repudiation*—a doctrine in fashion here, and which consists in disowning one's debts."

"There is at this moment," he says (Washington, Feb. 17, 1842), "in the United States a literary celebrity who enjoys here and in England a great popularity; I mean Charles Dickens. His quite democratic works insure him a brilliant reception. Every city he passes through offers to fête him. At New York they gave him a ball of five thousand persons, representing, the while, in *tableaux vivants*, the principal scenes of his novels. It is a sort of dementia among the Americans, who are extreme in everything. The newspapers agree that more has been made of Dickens than of Lafayette, Fanny Elssler, and the Prince de Joinville—the one I quote puts the names in this order."

Fanny Elssler's name rivals Talleyrand's in the frequency of its recurrence in these letters. M. de Bacourt met her everywhere. "Seen from near, she is extremely *passée*, and her smile is spoilt by her wretched teeth": she might have dispensed with the duenna who attended her. Yet in Baltimore the young men drew her in her carriage, and in Washington—"Will you believe that she was formally presented to the President [Van Buren] and all the Cabinet officers gathered to receive her!" That seemed to M. de Bacourt the height of the ridiculous (*d'un ridicule achevé*). In New York, the Germans had made great preparations to serenade her, but were invaded by the natives with torches, who burnt their music-stands and sent them flying. In Boston, M. de Bacourt found the danseuse "very anxious" about her first representation the next day. It was Sunday (Sept. 6, 1840), and the Puritan strictness of the place forbade either a Saturday night or Sunday rehearsal for the musicians and the corps de ballet. Our Frenchman could not, of course, meet Fanny Elssler at that time without encountering also the Chevalier Wickoff.

To M. de Bacourt, as to the rest of the diplomatic corps, life in Washington was a bitter pill; and yet he was favored by having material for his despatches, on account of the commercial interests he was striving to protect. He calls it his penitentiary; a nondescript place, neither city, village, nor country—pigs and cows roaming at large and making night hideous; mud up to the hubs in the streets. He sends his card to all the members of Congress, according to custom, calls upon a certain number of Senators as he is advised, and passes his time as best he can in social and official intercourse.

Van Buren had grown stout almost beyond recognition (they had met in London). He was very cordial to M. de Bacourt, who records the fact that the President was called the American Talleyrand, and in return for his politeness pronounces him "a perfect imitation of a gentleman." His remarks on American politics evinced great shrewdness, but "of European affairs he comprehends not a word. If I did not know the ignorance of Europe about the United States, I should be surprised at that I find here concerning our Old World." The President's French cook told M. de Bacourt's valet during the canvass "un fait curieux": people were incessantly coming to the White House, who unceremoniously invited themselves to breakfast or dinner, threatening to vote against the President if he repulsed them. Nor were these boarders easy to satisfy: they frequently returned his dishes to the cook, as if badly prepared, and ordered others. "So that my valet exclaimed gravely: 'Apparently it is not very agreeable to be President.'"

Harrison's reception of the diplomatic corps is said to give "a just idea of American manners," and reads like a scene from *Pinafore*. Mr. Webster, as Secretary of State, had arranged the procedure. The President, followed in file by his Cabinet, meets the foreign ambassadors drawn up against one side of the room in the White House; and, having been addressed by Mr. Fox, puts on his glasses and reads his response. Then he shakes hands with Mr. Fox, and seriatim with each one of the line as named by the Secretary, saying never a word. Then he brings on his arm from an adjoining room his son's widow, and presents Mistress Harrison to the corps *en masse*. Mr. Webster next does the same for the mother of this lady, in the following terms:

"'Gentlemen, I introduce to you Mistress Finley, the lady who attends Mistress Harrison'; and observe that this good lady who *attends the others* (takes care of the others) is blind. Then, all of a sudden there burst in a mob of women—sisters, daughters, cousins, and friends of the President and of all his Cabinet—who were presented to us and we to them, in the midst of incredible confusion. Most of the men who accompanied these ladies wore frock-coats. . . . After having exchanged a few words with Mrs. Webster, I took to flight."

Tyler's reception was more intelligent and conventional than Harrison's, but in subsequent meetings his conversation, on account of his "très-petit esprit," proved heavy and fatiguing.

Clay, who looked like an English gentleman-farmer, and had or professed a strong French leaning, at first attracted M. de Bacourt. But the latter's respect for him was rapidly lowered when he saw him wrangling in the Senate with King of Alabama, who was resisting Clay's attempt to oust the public printer as one of the first results of the new Administration (March 27, 1841). Clay called his adversary's remarks false, cowardly, and infamous, and was at once challenged, but the authorities interfered to prevent a duel in the District.

"This parliamentary incident gives an idea of the tone which pervades the Senate, the highest body in the country, esteemed for its intelligence and the consideration which it enjoys. Observe, too, that Mr. Clay is sixty-four years of age, has been for thirty-four years in public life, and passes for the most eminent man in the United States. Mr. King is sixty years old, and had held several important offices before becoming Senator."

The two speeches which M. de Bacourt heard Clay make (after the impost had been laid on French silks) were "a complete fiasco" and "quite a failure." The last was his final leave-taking of the Senate.

"He tried to be touching, and sniffled (*pleurniché*) in a ridiculous fashion; but it was only the babbling of a tired old man—nothing more. However, his partisans felt obliged to weep too, while the Opposition laughed in the most insolent manner. I went to see him the next day. He affects to be in a fine humor, would play the rat retiring into his cheese, but awkwardly lets you perceive that he has not abandoned the hope of being elected President in three years."

To Webster M. de Bacourt took a dislike from the first. He was anti-French and "English at heart," to begin with, and "pompous to the last degree." Like all the distinguished men in this country, he would in England pass for a statesman of the second or even third rank—a favorite generalization of Bacourt's for all good society in America. Elsewhere he calls the new Secretary of State a pretentious bore. The last mention of him we might pass over but for the clerical and other efforts now making to explain away a perfectly notorious weakness on the part of Mr. Webster. The occasion was a state dinner given by President Tyler (Jan. 12, 1842)—forty men, no women.

"I was seated between Mr. Spencer and Mr. Webster. The latter unconsciously dropped the contraband dignity in which he habitually wraps his sad mediocrity. The too free use of Madeira made him not only amiable (in the American manner, of course), but even touchingly tender. He seized my arm with his two hands, and said: 'My dear Bacourt, I have infinite pleasure in seeing you this evening—much more so than some time ago—I don't know why! Perhaps I haven't hitherto shown you sufficient friendship, but let us, if you will, become a pair of friends. You shall see that I am good company. Come to my house every day, without ceremony. That will please me, my dear Bacourt, for truly I find you charming.' This flattering declaration was made to me with a pasty tongue, and, may I say so to you? with hiccoughs which made too close proximity to the Secretary of State altogether disagreeable. And this took place at the table of the Chief Magistrate, at a feast offered to the representatives of all the European powers."

We should do injustice to M. Bacourt if we gave the impression that his letters are purely censorious. They are not. He admires the American who remains an American—he marvels at the ease with which he has accomplished his manifest destiny of peopling and reducing this continent. He enjoys the scenery, especially our trees known only as shrubs at home; thinks the view from Greenwood Cemetery the finest in the whole world; prefers the Hudson to the Rhine; stands dumb before Niagara; finds Jefferson justified in his praise of Harper's Ferry. He is never weary of looking at skies of a clearness and brilliancy unknown in Europe. He is struck by the consideration shown to women, which he styles "une politesse incontestable, mais sans recherches dans la forme." He aptly describes the Northern in contrast with the Southern character. "The Yankees are English at heart, notwithstanding the contempt they profess for them. . . . Much more civilized than their Southern compatriots, they readily tolerate an aristocracy and all the kinds of superiority tolerated by the English; and in New England few changes would be needed to establish there a form of government quite like that of Old England."

"But there is," he continues, "a third race forming in the West beyond the Alleghanies, on the banks of the Ohio, the Mississippi, the Missouri, which has also a character of its own, and which it would be difficult to describe at present. It is composed of emigrants from the North and the South, of Irish and Germans. It is destined, in my opinion, to play the principal rôle in the United States, and to dominate the others in a few years."

With some lighter excerpts we must close an article already too long. M. de Bacourt writes, June 26, 1840, at New York:

"I came near forgetting a characteristic American anecdote related yesterday at table. A girl of loose character got married here, two years ago, without interrupting her former mode of life. Her father having remarked of her that she was a hard case (*un mauvais sujet*), she sued him for libel, and has just obtained a jury verdict of one thousand dollars, penalty

and costs. It is alleged that she begs her father to continue to speak ill of her."

In August, being still here, he has another characteristic story to relate:

"On leaving the restaurant where I dine, a few days ago, it was raining, and I called a two-wheeled cab. I had my umbrella in my hand, and the driver asked me to lend it to him, which I did cheerfully, though making a note of this little act of democratic liberty."

A young miss sends her album to him for his autograph, which he politely but firmly declines to give. Turning over the leaves, however, he finds this inscription:

"Le premier qui fut roi, fut un soldat heureux;
Que sert bien son pays n'a pas besoin d'aïeux!
"LOUIS NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE.
"(*Racine.*)
"NEW YORK, 10 June, 1837."

"What do you say," inquires M. de Bacourt of the Duchess, "to this French prince who gives to Racine what belongs to Voltaire?"

Bidding numerous farewells in Washington, he is met on all hands with the exclamation, "What! are you going? When shall you be back? You don't mean to say you are not coming back! It's very wrong to leave us, especially without taking an *American wife* with you." "This last remark was repeated to me by everybody, and," ends letter 124, "gives an idea of American taste."

The misprints of English phrases and proper names in this entertaining volume are, *more Gallico* (but M. de Bacourt is clearly not responsible for them: his niece and the printer must divide the honors), numerous and amusing. One of the best is *Execution Mansion*, in reference to the White House—appropriate whether we regard the fatality of that residence to its occupants, or the operation of what the Republican Campaign Text-Book for 1882 facetiously calls "the guillotine." A happy error, also, is that which makes *multifiers* (*i.e.*, separatists) of *nullifiers*.

TIELE'S EGYPTIAN RELIGION.

History of the Egyptian Religion. By Dr. C. P. Tiele. Translated from the Dutch, with the coöperation of the author, by James Ballingal. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882. 16mo, pp. xxiii.-230.

THIS volume (one of the English and Foreign Philosophical Library) contains the first part of Tiele's 'Comparative History of the Egyptian and Mesopotamian Religions,' which appeared in Holland in 1872. The author, well known as an able student of the history of religions, had previously published a valuable little manual entitled 'Outlines of the History of Religion to the Spread of the Universal Religions' (English translation, London, 1877), which may be called the first orderly presentation of modern views on this subject. But he saw that the attempt to construct a general history of religion was premature until the particular religions had been worked out in detail, and he has since devoted himself to more special studies. This is now the understanding among scholars everywhere, and solid foundations for the new science are being laid by the Hibbert lectures in England (so far delivered by Max Müller, Renan, Le Page Renouf, and Kuenen), the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions* in France, and various contributions elsewhere. The really elementary work to be done is the study of the savage religions, in which not much has yet been accomplished; till this field is explored, the student of the more advanced faiths will find himself constantly perplexed by questions which baffle his resources, and his work will be of a tentative and unsatisfactory sort. So Tiele has found it in undertaking to give a history of religions so highly developed as those of the Egyptians and the Semites—religions which are already old when they appear on the stage of history. He is well aware of this, and has no hope of saying the last word on any of the important problems of his subject; but he has done good service in marshalling the facts so far brought to light, investigating their meaning, and stating clearly the difficulties that still exist.

Thus, in Egypt, to which the present volume is devoted, the fundamental question, Which was the earliest of the local cults? is still undetermined. Tiele in the text assigns the priority to the Osiris-worship of Thinis-Abydos, but states in a note that he has since come to the conclusion that the first place in time belongs to the Ra-worship of Heliopolis. The evidence on either side is very slight, consisting in notices on the monuments, and inferences from the forms and ideas of the worships; but these are both precarious, being liable to be changed at any moment by fresh discoveries of historical material. What seems clear is that these two very similar cults have both issued from an earlier one, the precise nature of which is not yet known.

The question of diversity of local worships is connected with the equally obscure one of the elements of the ancient population of Egypt, about which, notwithstanding the valuable illustrations of Ebers and others, we as yet know very little. Ebers has shown that the Semites (Phœnicians) were numerous and influential in Egypt in very early times, but there seems to be no evidence for a Semitic coloring of the primitive Egyptian religious ideas. All Egyptian questions in which early ethnological relations are involved must be treated cautiously. When Tiele says (p. 37) of the worships of Ptah and Neith that there is reason to think they were not of "purely Egyptian origin," it might puzzle him to say exactly what this expression implies; for who were pure Egyptians in the earliest times, it is hardly possible now to determine. On this point he seems to hold one preconception that, it is to be feared, will not tend to advance his inquiry: he speaks sometimes (pp. 12, 13) almost as if it were necessary to identify the Egyptians either with the Aryans or with the Semites. He says, indeed, that, inasmuch as sufficient light has not yet been thrown on this subject, he will not "as yet" rank the Egyptian among the Semitic peoples, but he is evidently seriously inclined to this position, which his scientific sobriety prevents him from distinctly announcing. The same disposition is shown in his remarks on the religion, as where he says (p. 75) that "the myth of Osiris might be described as more Semitic in character, while that of Ra is more Aryan"—that is, Osiris corresponds to the beneficent sun-god of the Semites, killed by the consuming god of the summer sun, while Ra, like all the Aryan gods of the light and the sky, fights against the demon of darkness. In the same connection, however, he intimates that the differences in the Egyptian conceptions rather point to an earlier stage of religious growth, when Semites and Aryans were one, and there existed a parent myth from which the Semitic and the Aryan and the two Egyptian have descended (so also on p. 224). It would be better, instead of introducing the vexed question of the ethnic relation between the Semites and Aryans, to confine the discussion to the Egyptian representation, fix that as fully as possible, and then let its resemblances to other myths come out naturally; the danger in this comparison between diverse races being that the attention of the student will be fixed on relatively superficial similarities, and distracted from the more fundamental characteristics of the particular form of religion under examination. Indeed, Tiele, in his larger work, in which he compares the Egyptian and Semitic systems, seems not to have entirely avoided the perils of the attempt to find essential unity in the two.

Apart from these generalities, Tiele's treatment of his subject is masterly. He has brought out clearly the peculiar features of the several local cults, showed how they gradually coalesced at prominent centres, traced the development of the religion down to the Greek period, cleared up somewhat the Egyptian doctrines of the future life and the resurrection, contributed in a satisfactory way to the explanation of the animal worship, and thrown much light on the characters of several of the deities, particularly Set, or Sutech, Hor, and Thot; and he has given a brief but clear and useful account of the literature. He seeks everywhere for natural and simple processes and causes, wherein his book is in refreshing contrast with Canon Rawlinson's lately published 'History of Egypt.' His concluding chapter, on the "character and moral results of the Egyptian religion," is a candid attempt to state the two contrasts which he regards as constituting its main peculiarity, and to estimate its ethical value. The first point he puts thus:

"In the Egyptian religion we find characteristic qualities conjoined, apparently mutually exclusive, but yet, as a matter of fact, seeming to be not irreconcilable, while they may also be shown to be logically capable of coexisting in the same system. In all that the monuments tell us about the beliefs of the ancient Egyptians two things may be clearly observed: first, a vivid consciousness of the spiritual nature of the deity, combined with coarsely sensuous representations of the various gods; secondly, a no less vivid consciousness of the oneness of God, conjoined with the greatest diversity of divine persons."

The explanation of this double contrast he finds, after setting aside the supposition of esoteric and exoteric teachings as baseless, in the "symbolic-mystical" tendency of the Egyptian religion, whose epic or myth-forming period was a short one (the people speedily settling into agricultural life), and quickly passed to the expression of religious ideas under sensuous forms. Thus were originated a multitude of representations of the deity, and these representations became deities, while at the same time the better thought of the people rose to the conception of the spirituality and unity of God. It will be seen from this that he agrees with a large number of Egyptian scholars in recognizing a real monotheism in ancient Egypt, which, however, he regards (which seems the better view) as a development from a preceding polytheism. His judgment of the Egyptian ethics is in the main fair; the moral teaching, he thinks, is of a lofty purity, and was not at all divorced from theology, and the principal gods became moral beings. Indeed, it may be doubted whether any people has ever divorced its morality from its religion in theory, or failed to do so in practice. And we do not fully understand Tiele when he says (p. 226): "it must not be forgotten, however, that it [the morality] remained stationary at the elementary stage, and its moral maxims never rose to the rank of principles." If this means that the people did not live up to the standard of their best teaching, it is nothing more than what is true of all nations. Were the Hebrews or Greeks more faithful to their maxims? or have we the advantage of the Egyptians in this matter? There is no evidence that the Egyptians were laxer in their daily life than their contemporaries; if they did not become the teachers of monotheism and morality to the world, as the Jews did, we must look elsewhere for the explanation.

The book has a calm, judicial tone, and is written in a very attractive style. As discoveries in

this subject are being made every year, we may expect subsequent editions of the work to show greater clearness and fulness, and approach more nearly a complete history of the religion of Egypt.

The Coming Democracy. By G. Harwood, author of 'Disestablishment.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

THE title of this little book raises expectations which are not realized when we have made ourselves acquainted with its contents. The object which Mr. Harwood has in writing is to forecast the changes in the government of the British Empire which may be expected upon the advent of the "Coming Democracy." There is only one way in which such an undertaking can be attempted with any profit, and that is to determine, first of all, the component elements of the Coming Democracy—to ascertain the political ideas and aspirations that are prevalent among them; and then proceed to show how the existing order of things in Church and State is likely to be affected by the introduction of these new forces into the body politic. Mr. Harwood has evaded this laborious and difficult investigation by assuming that the phrase "The Coming Democracy" is one on the meaning and nature of which all sensible people are agreed. It needs no further definition than just its use. The consequence is that the reader of this book very speedily discovers that the Coming Democracy is nothing but an *alias* for Mr. Harwood himself. What Mr. Harwood is setting forth and explaining is the manner in which he would modify the Constitution of Great Britain and Ireland were he placed with uncontrolled authority at the head of affairs; but instead of saying this in so many words, he credits the Coming Democracy with the possession of his own personal opinions. The Coming Democracy is thereby converted into a very steady-going, commonplace personage. "You might stroke it as gently as you would a greyhound puppy. It would not ruffle with a Barbary hen if she turned back her feathers in any show of resistance." For, following in the footsteps, and guided by the example of, Mr. Harwood, the Coming Democracy will be a loyal and devoted subject of "the Crown," because "the King is the incarnation of nationality as well as of royalty"; and "the Coming Democracy is sure to be moved by these feelings; for with democracies patriotism is a passion, and a person a necessity." Mr. Harwood believes in the utility of the House of Lords; therefore the Coming Democracy will carefully abstain from uplifting the sacrilegious hand of Reform against that august chamber. But to the House of Commons Mr. Harwood is by no means so partial, and he considers that on the appearance of the Coming Democracy the powers of the Lower Chamber will be considerably curtailed. Not so, however, with the Established Church. Has not Mr. Harwood himself written a book in defence of the Establishment? The Coming Democracy will therefore perceive that a Church in connection with the state there must be, and will fashion its policy accordingly. That we may not be suspected of caricaturing Mr. Harwood, here is a passage which is intended to explain why the Coming Democracy is most unlikely to look with an eye of disfavor upon the House of Lords:

"The Reform Bill and the Repeal of the Corn Laws are the two measures which have chiefly determined the present condition of parties; for the effects of political struggles remain long after their causes have passed away. The House of Lords was slow to see the advisability of either of these changes, but it did not stand out any longer than was necessary to give assurance that what might have been a transient fancy was the settled wish of the people. Within about a year of the first reading of the Reform Bill passing the House of Commons by a majority of one, it was allowed to go through the House of Lords and become law, while the Repeal of the Corn Laws was accepted by the House of Lords without delay after it had passed the Commons. Even if these measures had involved fundamental principles, and so been available as tests, there would have been nothing in connection with them to justify the belief that the House of Lords had lost that steadfast and sober attachment to freedom which has for so long characterized its history. Thus, when the Democracy—as, with increasing education, it will be more and more inclined and able to do—looks properly over the past conduct of the House of Lords, it will grow less and less disposed to believe that the influence of that House has been inimical, or even obstructive, to the cause of true freedom."

Obviously, the concluding sentence in the foregoing passage ought to have been printed thus: "When the Coming Democracy—as, with increasing education, it will be more and more inclined and able to do—looks over the past conduct of the House of Lords *through the spectacles prepared for it by Mr. G. Harwood*, it will grow," etc., etc. What we apprehend the Coming Democracy will most concern itself with is, not the past, but the present, conduct of the House of Lords; and unless that conduct is subjected to a radical change, the Coming Democracy will be something either very much above or very much below the ordinary level of humanity if it does not manifest its resentment in a very emphatic manner. For the House of Lords at present appears to consider that its special function is to mutilate almost out of recognition any and every measure of reform which it has not the courage directly to reject.

But it is in the chapter devoted to "The Democracy and Religion" that Mr. Harwood's humor to paint the Coming Democracy as an exact *replica* of himself is most amusingly exhibited. For example, Mr. Harwood is arguing against the materialistic theory of existence, and he says:

"The tide-line of truth will be receded to when the Democracy begins to consider that, even if our mental and moral phenomena be the results of development, there still must be a reason why experience thus acts. This could not happen unless men had first a potentiality for being thus affected, and for producing by development such results. So the difficulty of causation is, at best, only put a stage back, and we are still driven to find a cause for this potentiality. The necessity of finding a First Cause is not affected by the difference between a single innate faculty of development and various innate faculties. We are still where we were, so far as the elements of Religion are concerned, even if the doctrine of development be accepted in its fullest sense; for Science cannot by it adequately account for material phenomena, nor can Philosophy by it adequately account for mental and moral phenomena. This deficiency is likely to be found out by the Coming Democracy; for such a Democracy is sure to be eminently practical, and no practical mind can rest satisfied with a theory which assumes that because we understand processes, therefore these processes need not have a cause."

In other words, "the practical mind" which at present resides in the bosom of Mr. G. Harwood will be transferred, *en bloc*, to this Coming Democracy whenever that individual—for so it seems that Mr. Harwood is wont to think of the democratic future—makes his appearance upon the political stage of Great Britain. "L'état, c'est moi," said Louis XIV., on a certain memorable occasion; and Mr. Harwood has fallen into a kindred error. He has written a book in which he assumes throughout that he is the Coming Democracy.

Apart from this remarkable hallucination, there is nothing in Mr. Harwood's political speculations which calls for remark. He has that profound belief in the virtues of the Englishman and the excellence of everything British which makes the English people the most aggressive and encroaching people whom the world has ever seen. Indeed, if Mr. Harwood, in his character of "the Coming Democracy," were allowed to have his way, the present dimensions of the British Empire would be rapidly enlarged in every direction. He appears to be of opinion that any people which has the might to subdue some other people possesses, in that fact, the right also, and that the exercise of this right is an act of brotherhood. "The sense of brotherhood does not best express itself in leaving a brother alone, but rather in trying to improve him, even though this may involve much that is unpleasant to begin with." And as the Coming Democracy will share Mr. G. Harwood's "sense of brotherhood" as well as his other sentiments and convictions, the latter anticipates for the more backward and weaker races of this world a very unpleasant time when the Coming Democracy comes into power. These weaker races are then to be taught the meaning of brotherhood after the fashion practised by the Hawkinses, the Drakes and Frobishers of Queen Elizabeth's time. "Many things," says Mr. Harwood, "are more unlikely than that, under the Coming Democracy, we may see in this direction [the direction, that is, of brotherhood "druv in by bagnets"] an enthusiasm and an enterprise which have not been equalled since the days of Queen Elizabeth. . . . An active foreign policy may in such circumstances be adopted merely as a means to an end, and may be justified because that end is the promotion of the best welfare of humanity." Some of our readers will perhaps remember that the present Bishop of Gloucester expressed his warm approval of the recent invasion of Afghanistan because it afforded an opportunity of spreading among those benighted mountaineers a knowledge of the Christian religion. It was "a means to an end, and justified because that end was the promotion of the best welfare of humanity." But, curiously enough, the British Democracy, instead of taking the Bishop's and Mr. Harwood's view of that war, were so profoundly shocked by this "active foreign policy" that they expelled its authors from office. And it is not, therefore, impossible that the Coming Democracy may be of the same way of thinking, and exhibit no relish for the buccaneering exploits of Queen Elizabeth's sea captains.

Development of English Literature and Language. By Alfred H. Welsh, A.M. 2 vols. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.; London: Trübner & Co. 1882.

A HISTORY of the English language and literature as an illustration of social development, such as these two volumes profess to be, would be a very desirable book. To make such a work is difficult, doubtless, and requires rare qualities of mind; for the unwary author, by the very complexity of the phenomena, is apt to lose himself, both as a thinker and as a describer, in detail. He finds it hard to limit his attention to the single aspect of literature as a record of spiritual life, and gives, too frequently, undue and perplexing prominence to the other interests of literature as art, thought, and the expression of attractive and original individualities. The method of the present writer, carefully thought out and consistently applied as it is, does not save him from his temptations. He gives an introductory account of the social and political environment of each literary group, a general description of its characteristics, and a specific biographical narrative of the personal fortunes of its leading members, with a critical estimate of their works. His aim is thus threefold: philosophical, critical, and encyclopædic. Now, the essential thing in a philosophic history is that it should give a clear and succinct state-

ment of general causes, and should insist rather on the similarities existing in the body of the literature in each epoch than on the peculiarities and divergencies of individual authors. In this portion of his work the writer is much indebted to Lecky and Green; and from the details which the former introduces to justify his conclusions, and the latter to obtain pictorial effect, he selects such as seem to him significant. But in arranging them he misses the cumulative force of the moralist, and the vividness and unity of impression of the historian.

To take, for example, the interesting period from 1660 to 1735. This epoch began, as every one knows, under Court taste, with the heroic drama modified by French and Spanish influences, and is not to be understood except in reference to them. As the drama faded out, the literature which arose was distinctively a town literature, thoroughly English, but showing clearly the influence of French formalism and the study of the Roman classics, and was marked, as it went on, by an increasing shoppiness of literary standard and phraseology; and during its course two capital changes occurred with far-reaching results—the infiltration of literature into politics, and the substitution of publishers for patrons as the overlords of Grub Street. Now, these facts are, in some cases, hardly mentioned—the work is weak throughout in its references to foreign influences, particularly; but even where such points are entered, it is as into a ledger, without any prominence or any indication, as a rule, that what is recorded is of any more consequence than the number of gallowses at the four corners or the number of witches burned. No emphasis is given to the facts; they are not brought out. Such lacunæ as have been hinted at, such lack of proportion, perspective, and relief, are fatal to the philosophical claims of the work, although the author's mind is nearly always controlled by the prevalent conception of society as within the domain of ascertainable law. His theory is right, but he seems unable to work up to it, to point out the laws and describe their operations.

He fails also in another way, by taking in too much in some departments. He has that fatuous metaphysical bent that so often diminishes the value of the work of literary men. He is, apparently, much indebted to Ueberweg, and has tried to incorporate a history of English metaphysics into his volumes. This belongs rather to the history of thought, and for it one does not go to a literary manual. Its presence here cannot but prove confusing to the student, and it seriously interferes with what should be the main aim of books of this kind—the clear presentation of the social significance of pure literature. If admitted, it must be subordinated.

In his second, or critical, aim the author cannot be regarded as more successful than in his attempt to write a chapter of sociology. Perhaps not much is to be expected from one who confesses his main obligation as due to Anderson, Bascom, and Taine, although it should be stated that he has a true Transcendentalist's contempt for Taine's trick of resolving the organism into the environment. The brightest parts of his criticism are such fine perceptions of Lowell's, Arnold's, and Ruskin's as he has woven into his own text. In general, his remarks are appreciative, usually eulogistic, drawing the decent veil over the unworthy—as when he styles Defoe "good and religious"—always adjectival. In estimating literary qualities, he exhibits the same feebleness of discriminative power as in dealing with historical details. If any one should take the trouble, after reading what he has to say of Chaucer, to compare his pages with the critical introduction to that poet in the popular 'English Poets,' it would be a lesson in criticism. The latter account is orderly, definite, and firm, whereas our author's is vague, composite, and, to use an expressive word, pasty. The chapters on the later dramatists in the reigns of James I. and his son, and on the fantastic or, as he calls them, the "brain-poets," are particularly deficient. He is most successful in his praise of the writers of our own time whose influence he has himself felt; for what he remarks has the value of a keenly-felt personal impression. But the attitude of the worshipper, although sometimes serviceable, is not the best for a critic; his uplifted eyes are too likely to see only the head of fine gold, and to neglect the less noble parts of baser material. The quotation, too, is somewhat profuse; it is hardly necessary to give extracts from Dickens. Mr. Welsh has a habit of winding up his chapters with moral exhortations to be good that seem also not required; for literature, rightly described, does not need any comment of that kind—its morality is intrinsic, not declamatory.

But if little can be said for these books as philosophy and criticism, they are a valuable repertory of encyclopædic information. The author has read much, if not always wisely, and he has embodied other men's ideas, theories, and investigations in his own work, so that it makes a very useful abstract—a sort of *omnium gatherum*—of matters pertaining to language and literature. The linguistic portion is scanty and feeble, it is true, but the literary portion is full and multifarious. Mr. Welsh gives a list of authorities which indicates the scope of his inquiries, though several volumes mentioned seem far removed from literature. We wonder what he took from Joseph Cook's work on 'Conscience,' from Gladstone's 'Juventus Mundi,' and McCosh's 'Christianity and Positivism,' and the like; and we are surprised at his dispensing with several most important volumes in criticism and literary history. But, however extraordinary are some of the sources he enumerates and the omissions he makes, he has collected the results of a long study in literature, and has made them available by an index. For the use of students, as a main work, the volumes cannot be recommended, but teachers will find them useful, particularly if well-supplied libraries are not accessible. As an instance of the variety of subjects mentioned and a sign of the times, we note that in his account of American civilization Mr. Welsh speaks of the movement toward civil-service reform—certainly the last thing to be looked for in a history of English literature.

Ancient Scottish Lake-Dwellings or Crannogs, with a Supplementary Chapter on Lake-Dwellings in England. By Robert Munro, M.A., M.D., F.S.A., Scot. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1882. 8vo, pp. xx.-326; 264 woodcuts in the text, frontispiece, and 4 plates.

ANY one who opens this volume in the expectation of finding accounts similar to those given in Dr. Keller's reports on Swiss lake-dwellings will be disappointed; but, on the other hand, in perusing it, he will be richly rewarded by the acquisition of information concerning a curious phase of ancient Celtic life in Scotland. The Swiss lake-dwellers, it is well known, generally lived in huts erected on platforms which were supported by piles driven in the mud near the shore of a lake. In some of the smaller lakes, however, the dwellings were not built on piles, but on a kind of fascine-work, formed by layers of sticks and stems of trees, stones, and loam, raised up from the bottom of the lake, until the foundation was high enough to receive the platform. The upright piles found in these substructures only served to give them steadiness. The Swiss fascine-works bore some resemblance to the Irish crannogs, which, to use the language of Mr. W. F. Wakeman, were islands, either altogether or in part artificial, strongly staked with piles of oak, pine, etc., encompassed by rows of palisading, behind which the occupiers of the hold might defend themselves with advantage against assailants. Within the enclosure were usually log-houses, which afforded shelter to the dwellers during the night-time, or whenever the state of the weather necessitated a retreat under cover. To this definition should be added that stones were sometimes used to strengthen the structures, a few of which communicated with the land by moles or causeways, though most of them were entirely insulated, and only accessible by boats. In fact, dug-outs have usually been found in connection with these structures, both in Ireland and Scotland.

The Scottish crannogs bear in their general character a close resemblance to those of Ireland; but, of course, in both countries each structure presents peculiarities resulting from the configuration of the site on which it was erected. Yet the number of crannogs entirely composed of stone was greater in Scotland than in Ireland, stone being more easily obtained in the former country. The crannogs of Scotland extended over a large area, embracing nearly the whole of the kingdom.

The first chapter of the work is introductory; the second contains a summary of the historical and descriptive notices of Scottish lake-dwellings previous to the year 1878; the third is devoted to a full report on the discovery and examination of a crannog at Lochlee, Tarbolton, Ayrshire (1878–9). This exploration was carried on by Dr. Munro and other gentlemen, and his account is so minute that it requires close study to follow the details presented by him. The site of the Lochlee crannog was a small lake, now entirely dried up and under cultivation.

"Before it was artificially drained, some forty years ago, no one appears to have surmised that a small island, which became visible in the summer-time, and formed a safe habitation for gulls and other sea-birds during the breeding season, was formerly the residence of man; nor am I aware of any historical notices or traditions that such was the case; nor does it appear to have attracted the attention of the poet Burns, though he lived for four years on this farm in the capacity of ploughman to his father, then tenant of the place."

The stockade formed an irregular circle, twenty-five yards in diameter, and the structure consisted of brushwood, trunks of trees, thick slabs of wood, planks of oak, and large stones. The complicated arrangement of these materials cannot be noticed in this place. Traces of a gangway between the crannog and the shore of the lake were also discovered. A large number of relics came to light during the exploration, such as hammer-stones, sharpening-stones, a polished stone celt, querns, spindle-whorls, and a few objects of flint; further, bone implements of different forms, many tools and a few weapons of iron, bronze fibulæ and rings, and, finally, wooden articles—among them a canoe and a double-bladed paddle. The animal remains were those of the ox, hog, sheep, horse, red deer, roe-deer, and *reindeer*.

The fourth chapter treats of subsequent researches and discoveries at Friar's Carse (Dumfriesshire), Lochspouts (Ayrshire), Barhapple Loch (Wigtownshire), and Buston, near Kilmaurs (Ayrshire). The results were similar to those obtained at Lochlee. The fifth chapter is devoted to general observations on the classification, geographical distribution, structure, and age of Scottish crannogs. A columnar table shows the geographical distribution of the numerous lacustrine structures in Scotland, and gives short details relative to their character. This table adds much to the value of the work.

"The great and primary object of the island-builder," says Dr. Munro, "was the protection afforded by the surrounding lake or morass, the securing of which has continued to be a ruling principle in the erection of defensive works down to the Middle Ages, long after the wooden islands ceased to be constructed. The transition from an island fort to the massive mediæval castle, with its moat and drawbridge, is but another step in the progressive march of civilization."

It is rather perplexing to notice the number and character of the specimens obtained from the crannogs, for they embrace objects apparently belonging to the so-called stone age, bronze and iron articles, manufactures of glass, and relics of Roman origin. The crannogs, however, are supposed to be of purely Celtic origin, as "there is not a particle of evidence in favor of the idea that such structures originated with the Roman conquerors of Britain or its Saxon invaders." The number of querns and the great preponderance of the bones of domestic over those of wild animals lead to the inference that for subsistence the occupants of the crannogs depended more on the cultivation of the soil and the rearing of cattle, sheep, and pigs than on the produce of the chase.

"The lake dwellings in the southwest of Scotland," Dr. Munro conjectures, "were constructed by the Celtic inhabitants as a means of protecting their lives and movable property when, upon the frequent withdrawal of the Roman soldiers from the district, they were left, single-handed, to contend against the Angles on the east and the Picts and Scots on the north. Ultimately, all of them would fall into the hands of the Saxon conquerors, when, henceforward, they would be allowed to subside in mud or crumble into decay."

There is historical evidence, however, that certain lacustrine constructions in Scotland survived to the Middle Ages, and even to later times; yet many of these were castles which bore no other analogy to the crannogs proper than their insular situation. One of them, for instance, in Loch Cannor or Kinord, in Aberdeenshire, appears in history in 1335, had King James IV. for its guest in 1506, and continued to be a place of strength until 1648, when Parliament ordered its fortifications to be destroyed.

The sixth chapter, which is added as a supplement, treats of lake-dwellings in England. The information concerning them is thus far rather scanty. The work here briefly noticed ranks in external appearance with the best of its kind. It is beautifully printed, and the 264 woodcuts inserted in the text are admirably executed; but equal praise cannot be bestowed on the five plates accompanying the volume. The publication is a highly valuable contribution to archæology, and doubtless will find many readers in this country.

L'Insegnamento Pubblico ai Tempi Nostri. N. Fornelli. Rome: Forzani.

In one sense there is no contemporary literature in Europe of more interest than that of Italy. When we think of its past glories, of its collapse and practical disappearance under the disastrous political fortunes of the country, and of the sudden and brilliant revival of the latter, we cannot but watch for the signs of new intellectual movement. It does not take the form, as the popular imagination might expect, of poetry and romance. There is a hard, practical common sense, especially through the northern half of the peninsula, not unworthy of comparison with the Scotch. The work of Signor Fornelli is a model of its kind. For close logical development of a leading idea, for clearness of style and thought, and strict adherence to the subject in hand, it could not be easily surpassed. The writer starts with the position that while the revolutions of the Teutonic races have been in the direction of religious and intellectual development, in fact more or less direct results of the Protestant Reformation, those of the Latin races have been almost exclusively political, having reference to the organization of society; and therefore the nations as well as their public men have paid least attention to that which more than anything else needs attention—the preparation of the minds of the multitude for the sober use of the liberty and social equality which they have grasped at so eagerly. He then proceeds to the discussion, which is the subject of the book, whether education can be safely left to individual or municipal initiative and conduct, or whether a guiding and controlling power is the proper and necessary function of the state, making out, we think, a very strong case in favor of the latter.

Taking first the countries in which local self-government with municipal and individual freedom has prevailed most extensively, as in Great Britain and the United States, he shows that individual effort has even there proved itself utterly untrustworthy, the immediate needs and the indifference of parents quite neutralizing any ultimate prospect of advantage for themselves or their children. The next question is of municipal action, and in Europe, of course, the religious difficulty is the principal and most obvious, though by no means the only, one. The British Government has been forced, in order to secure anything like popular education, to establish an extensive centralized system of inspection and control, enforced not by penalties, but by conditional grants of public money. In the United States, Fornelli shows that the public feeling in favor of education has caused the provision of pecuniary resources both by the general Government and the States, and that the religious question has caused some of the States to take decided action; but he only hints at that which might have furnished his strongest illustration, the disastrous effects upon education of leaving it in the hands of local authorities. The failures to enforce the laws as to compulsory school attendance and the labor of children in factories, the ignorance and inefficiency of school committees, the depressed condition of teachers, the defective standards of education, and the absence of effective inspection, are marked signs of the absence of public administration. Pursuing the examination of the Belgian, French, German, and Italian school systems, the writer shows how dangerous is the influence of local and private interests, and how necessary is the firm hand of the Government to secure anything like real popular education; and that this, which is the common interest of the whole people, requires the comprehensive treatment of a central authority, however this may be guided and aided by local impulse.

Assuming that the control of education is especially a function of the state, our author examines incidentally the general position of the sphere of Government, contending against the doctrine of Herbert Spencer, now so popular, that everything should be left to individual action, and that the less Government interferes the better. He applies the maxim of the naturalists, that the more life and force any animal has, the more organization and system it needs, concluding that as the organization and system of society is the state, the intense activity of modern times requires stronger and more organized administration than that of any previous period. We agree with him in thinking that popular government, with its short experience of a century, has this discovery yet to make.

Reflecting upon the large part which religion has held in the education of the past, as the basis of human morals and conduct, the author asks, in conclusion, what is to take its place. With the demand for secular schools, the rapidly-spreading ideas of political, if not of social, equality, the breaking up of the controlling forces which have heretofore been relied upon, what is the form of education which is to hold society together? Perhaps on the principle which leads writers of serial novels to close their chapters at the points of highest interest, Signor Fornelli tells us that he proposes to discuss this question in another book, if the present is received with sufficient favor. We could wish that this work might be translated and extensively circulated, if only to impress our people with the lesson, which they so greatly need, that we are not living under a special dispensation from the political and social laws which govern the rest of mankind, but that the problems before us are just the same, the difference of circumstances being given, as those with which other nations are struggling, and that their experience is worthy of our most serious consideration.

The Burman: His Life and Notions. By Shway Yoe, Subject of the Great Queen. 2 vols. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

The accuracy in detail and delicacy of touch observable in this book would indicate a female hand. But in any case, it is a book full of information relative to the habits and notions of the people of Burmah. These luxurious and indolent people are little known where Western civilization prevails. Our general idea of them is that they are an unwarlike and superstitious race, much given to opium and gambling. The book before us opens out another view of the case, and we find that the Burman is not, in his own country at least, so different from other happy and contented folk elsewhere. Feeling some curiosity on the question of the "Burmese Army," we turned to the chapter in the second volume of the book, to glean information on the point. The description is ludicrous and amusing. The King inspecting his troops through a field-glass, while the Army "grovels on its stomach for a matter of two minutes," is sufficient to show that the Burmese, at least, unlike the people of Japan, have not learned to profit by the hard logic of events that have recently affected their national history. The description, indeed, given by the author of the entire Army and its movements, reminds us more than anything else of "Alice," and her experience "behind the looking-glass."

Turning from military affairs to the question of education, we find matters better in this particular. Our author gives a vivid picture of the character of a "monastery school" among these people; and the conclusion drawn from evidently a complete knowledge of the subject is, that so long as the regularity and discipline of these schools continue, so long foreign missionary work will be of little avail to alter the faith or the life of the Burmese. Education, in fact, is in the hands of the priests, and it is their interest to make the lines of the nation's progress in this particular coincident with its religion. It is just the same in China, except that the doctrine of Confucius is not so distinctly religious as that of Gaudama, but there also the first smattering of letters acquired by the child is derived from the "three-letter" classic, and this embodies the teaching of Mencius, the exponent of the doctrine of Confucius. And so long as reverence of these great masters is inculcated in the youthful mind, and their doctrine impressed by "hard knocks" on the memory, so long it will be difficult to remove the foundations and make way for another faith.

The religion of Burmah is an offshoot from the Southern school of Buddhism. The religious literature is derived principally from Ceylon. But the people are more religious than their mas-

ters. There is no country in the world so covered with sacred edifices as this, and we are told the reason of it—viz., that when a pagoda falls into decay, there is no merit acquired by its repair (except in some few cases), but a new building must be erected in order to gain the desired end of advance toward the goal of Neh'ban. A singular fact in connection with this love of building for "religious merit" is that the existence of the grand stûpa at Gayâ in India is due to the frequent missions from Burmah, undertaken at the instance of the Government, for repairing and restoring it. This stûpa is erected near the spot where Buddha received enlightenment, and such a building has existed there ever since that event —some 2,300 years, perhaps. The Burmese have constantly undertaken the task of repair, and only a year or two ago were engaged in the work; the consequence being that this sacred edifice is still one of the chief Buddhist monuments of the world—a monument outliving the faith of the people who dwell round it, but a witness to the historical truth of the origin of the religion professed by their forefathers.

The selections given us from the Burman "literature" are well chosen and instructive. Perhaps there is no sermon, beyond the Christian community, so touching and true as the "chapter of blessings," known to the Buddhists as the "Mingala-Thoht." This sermon has already been translated by Bishop Bigandet and Professor Childers, but it has lost none of its attractiveness. Our author (p. 319, vol. ii.) gives us another version of it. Putting some of its sentences in another form, they would run thus: "Blessed are the patient under suffering; blessed are the humble and contented; blessed are the tender and affectionate; blessed are the fearless and the tranquil; blessed are such as these, for they shall never be overcome, and shall find happiness in all things."

Among the selections from the literature of the country, the author gives specimens of the "folk lore" common among Buddhists of all nations, and not less in Burmah. We cannot, however, quote further from this part of the book; and it would be difficult to select from these "selections," for they are all good. It is sometimes puzzling to make out the Burmese mode of spelling, but when the key has been found, the restoration of technical words becomes easy. For instance, it is difficult at first sight to recognize under the form Areemadehya, the familiar name of Ârya Mâitreya (vol. ii., p. 206); and so, again, with respect to the "Tawadehntha" feast, we should hardly have guessed that this word was the Pâli "tavatimso," had it not been for the description of the feast given in the text. But there is no fault to find here; we only suggest that if another edition of this instructive work is published, a glossary of terms might be added for the benefit of the Buddhist student not conversant with the Burman language. Beyond this we have no improvement to wish: the type is clear, the paper good, and the matter excellent.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atwood, I. M. Walks About Zion. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 50 cents.
Black, W. An Adventure in Thule. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Boisen, H. B. Notes to the Preparatory Book of German Prose. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Boyesen, H. H. Idyls of Norway. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Brine, Mary D. Christmas Rhymes and New Year's Chimes. Illustrated. George W. Harlan & Co. $1 75.
Brooks, B. A. Those Children, and Their Teachers: a Story of To-day. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Bryant, W. M. Philosophy of Landscape Painting. St. Louis News Co.
Campbell, Helen. Under Green Apple Boughs. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Castro, L. The Republic of Mexico in 1882. Corrected map. Thompson & Moreau.
College Cuts, chosen from the Columbia *Spectator*, 1880-81-82. White & Stokes. $1.
De Bacourt. Souvenirs d'un Diplomate: Lettres intimes sur l'Amérique. F. W. Christern.
Ford, W. C. The American Citizen's Manual. Part 1. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Freeman, E. A. Lectures to American Audiences. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1 75.
Hall, Alice C. Miss Leighton's Perplexities. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Illustrated Catholic Family Annual for 1883. Catholic Publication Society Co.
Knapp, W. I. A Grammar of the Modern Spanish Language. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1 65.
Lang, A. Helen of Troy. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Parr, Louisa. Robin. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Perrin, B. Cæsar's Civil War. For the use of Schools. University Publishing Co. $1.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. Doctor Zay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Potter, S. O. L. Speech and its Defects. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.
Rand, Mary Abbott. Home-Spun Yarns for Christmas Stockings. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1 25.
Saterlee, W., and Pollard, Josephine. Elfinland. George W. Harlan & Co. $2 50.
Thomas, Annie. Allerton Towers. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Traill, H. D. Sterne. Harper & Bros.
Warburton, W. Edward the Third. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Washburn, E. W. Studies in Early English Literature. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Waugh, Ida, and Blanchard, Amy. Wee Babies. Printed in colors. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Welsh, A. H. Development of English Literature and Language. In two vols. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $5.
Wentworth, J. Congressional Reminiscences: Adams, Benton, Clay, Calhoun, and Webster. Chicago: Fergus Printing Co.
Whitman, Walt. Specimen Days and Collect. Philadelphia: Rees, Welch & Co.
Wilkins, W. A. The Cleverdale Mystery; or, The Machine and its Wheels. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Wilkinson, W. C. Webster: an Ode. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Willett, E. Around the House. R. Worthington. $1 75.
Wilson, J. Practical Life and the Study of Man. Newark, N. Y.: J. Wilson & Son.
Wit and Wisdom of Don Quixote. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 2, 1882.

The Week.

Bossism received a heavy blow in a new quarter last week at the hands of Mr. Bainbridge Wadleigh, ex-Senator from New Hampshire. The text of Mr. Wadleigh's speech was the corrupting influence of money in elections, and, as the illustrations which he employed were of the concrete sort—being pictures of scenes enacted repeatedly before the eyes of his listeners—it must have had a profound influence upon them. The facts, which he disclosed with the directness of a demonstrator of anatomy in a dissecting-room, have been talked about in whispers in all parts of the Union these many years. Money wrung from the lobby in Washington and Concord has become the chief factor of elections in New Hampshire. This money has been employed not to pay the ordinary expenses of campaigns—the expenses of meetings, the printing and circulation of documents, etc.—but for the purchase of votes. The natural result was that "voters lost their patriotic instincts—many men who saw their neighbors paid for voting persuaded themselves that they too ought to be paid for mercenary votes." "My friends," continued Mr. Wadleigh, "this question of purity in elections is the greatest in American politics. It must be grappled with and rightly solved, or at no distant day we shall politically perish. Political corruption is the greatest existing danger to that doctrine of equal rights which underlies our Government. It is the devouring worm at the root of the tree of liberty, the poison in the fountain of our national life. Day by day the power of money grows in this country. If votes are mercenary, the people will be deprived of all power. They will become mere tools to register the will of their corruptors." Mr. Wadleigh went on to say that the nomination of Mr. Hale, the Republican candidate for Governor, was accomplished by bribery, and that the chief of the corruptionists in New Hampshire politics had been and was William E. Chandler, the present Secretary of the Navy.

When Mr. William E. Chandler was made Secretary of the Navy no one doubted that he would treat the Department as "spoils," and consequently nobody has been disappointed. He is one of the statesmen who can hardly conceive of a branch of the public Administration having no spoils in it. Moreover, to them, although there is a difference in spoils, all spoils are good. Hubbell takes two per cent. on a salary of one hundred dollars just as readily as two per cent. on a salary of ten thousand, and so also Mr. Chandler finds a messenger's "place" often as useful as that of the head of a bureau. He has just performed an act of more than usual meanness, even for an active manager, in the dismissal of George J. Beanes, a colored man, of a race in the happiness and welfare of which Mr. Chandler, when running about the country as plain "Bill" Chandler, two or three years ago, denouncing "outrages," professed to take a great interest. Beanes served for thirteen years in the Navy, continuously afloat, and also served through the Mexican war and the late war. He was appointed to an office in the Department in 1869—his duties being the care and arrangement of charts, and the painting of lighthouses thereon. He is well known to naval officers as a careful, sober, honest, zealous man, against whom no complaint has ever been made. His thirteen years of experience in the Hydrographic Office has given him a familiarity with the records and archives which makes him almost essential to the Chart Department. Well, a few days ago, this honest, competent, experienced officer and colored man was dismissed to make way for a woman, presumably backed by some male "influence." He went to the Secretary to ask the reason, and was told that there was no other reason than that he (the Secretary) wanted the place. Every naval officer in and out of Washington sympathizes heartily with Beanes, and naturally feels humiliated at the thought that the Navy should be in the hands of a man capable of so grossly abusing his trust.

The argument in the Curtis case last week took a wide range, and the judges asked General Curtis's counsel a number of questions which seemed to show a decided leaning in favor of the anti-assessment act. He insists that the act is unconstitutional because it prohibits not merely the receiving of assessments, but the making contributions as well. It is a sufficient answer to this argument, as the Solicitor-General said in reply, that General Curtis was indicted, not for giving, but for receiving; it is, however, to be hoped that the Supreme Court, in disposing of the case, will consider the whole policy of the act. Why is an employee prohibited from "giving" to an officer of the Government? Judge Miller, in the course of the argument on Wednesday, hinted that it was to protect the subordinate from exactions. But protecting a man from doing an act by making the act a misdemeanor, does not seem a very natural way of accomplishing the object; and the view of the court below—that the intention of the act is not merely to protect the clerks, but to protect the service itself from corrupting influences—seems to cover the whole ground much better. A clerk may habitually give a portion of his salary to a political committee voluntarily, but if he does, his action is undoubtedly influenced by a desire to retain his place, and consequently his payment is a thinly disguised purchase of the favor of the Committee. It is this fact which Congress, in passing the statute forbidding such gifts, seems to have recognized, and we can see no reason why the Judges of the Supreme Court should close their eyes to it. Mr. Wheeler's brief, submitted on behalf of the Civil-Service Reform Association, deals with the act as directed against the entire practice of collecting and paying assessments, and puts the argument on broader grounds than those which the Attorney-General seems to have instructed Mr. Phillips to confine himself to.

The Supreme Court of Wisconsin has decided that it is not in all cases the duty of firemen to rescue people from burning buildings. Some time ago, when the Beckwith House at Oshkosh was in flames, one Paige offered $5,000 to any one who would save his wife. Charles Rief, a fireman on duty at the time, closed with Mr. Paige, saved Mrs. Paige, and claimed the reward. Mr. Paige refused to pay, and Rief brought a suit against him, which he lost. The Supreme Court, however, has now ordered a new trial, on the ground that the rescue involved "imminent peril" to the plaintiff's life, and that it was not his duty to expose himself to such peril. Under this decision there ought to be an active demand for positions in the Oshkosh fire department. The experience and coolness of firemen make their services in saving life at fires very desirable, and persons desiring the rescue of wives and children would generally prefer to intrust a fireman with the work rather than to put it in the hands of an ordinary bystander. By allowing the flames to get under a good headway, first-rate firemen could often command a high price for their services, and there would always be plenty of witnesses to the contract. At large fires there would probably be active bidding for the best firemen. We cannot see why the principle of the decision should be confined to services in saving life. It seems very hard, if a fireman need not imperil his life to save women and children, that he should be called upon to do so for the sake of houses and furniture. The old idea of a fireman was that his duties at fires were determined by his status as a fireman, and not by bargains he might make while engaged in putting out the flames. Sociologists maintain, however, that progress in civilization is chiefly marked by the change from status to contract, and the Wisconsin decision will therefore interest not only firemen, but all who believe in progress.

All critics of the United States seem to be agreed that there are certain valuable things or qualities which, as a people, we want, whether we know it or not. It is curious to see how they differ as to what these are, however. Mr. Herbert Spencer thinks that we need to acquire the habit of insisting on individual rights. General Booth, of the Salvation Army, thinks that what we need is a "hallelujah hurdy-gurdy in our insides, played on by the Holy Ghost." Mr. Freeman's only really serious objection to American civilization is that we do not invent some better name for ourselves than Americans. Mr. Walt Whitman, on the other hand, declares that "our fundamental want to-day in the United States, with closest, amplest reference to present conditions, and to the future, is of a class, and the clear idea of a class, of native authors, literatuses, far different, far higher in grade, than any yet known, sacerdotal, modern, fit to cope with our occasions, lands, permeating the whole mass of American men-

tality, taste, belief, breathing into it a new breath of life, giving it decision, affecting politics far more than the popular superficial suffrage, with results inside and underneath the elections of Presidents and Congresses." There is no reason why we should not have such a class, and the clear idea of such a class, too; but then the sacerdotal literatus must look out for the District Attorney. It might put back the new learning a hundred years if it had to be suppressed as unfit for publication.

The Savannah *Morning News*, after commenting with some severity on the inferences drawn by us from the late Knoxville slaughter regarding the attitude of the Southern mind toward homicide, says:

"The Mabry-O'Connor affair was most deplorable, and nowhere is it more regretted than at the South. But until the millennium comes, men will quarrel, and murder and homicides will take place everywhere. The only difference between homicides North and South is that in the North, when one man 'has a grudge' against another, he generally waits for his victim in a dark alley, or endeavors in some way to slay him unawares, so as to insure his own safety and escape detection; while, in the South, the rule is to meet and fight it out openly like men. We deprecate all such affrays, and believe that stern justice should be meted out to those who engage therein. Still, the South is not the only spot where they occur, and our Northern maligners would do well to pluck the beams out of their own eyes before they presume to pull the motes from the eyes of their fellow-citizens of this much-abused and vilified region."

It is to talk of this kind on the part of the Southern press that the perpetuation of the homicidal mania at the South must be in large part ascribed. The minds of the young men are debauched by it, and prepared for murder, almost as soon as they are able to buy and carry a pistol. They learn from it to think of killing somebody as one of the probable incidents of their career, which the friends and neighbors will look on with indulgence, and even a certain ill-disguised admiration. Out of this state of expectation of having to kill, readiness to kill on slight provocation naturally and easily grows. The horror of bloodshed—as something which has "the primal eldest curse upon it"—that most precious fruit and surest sign of a high civilization, cannot spring up in a community in which all the best portion of the male population goes armed, and thinks of having to murder a friend as one of the contingencies of peaceable existence, which any day's business or pleasure may bring forth.

Moreover, the Southern press, when representing, as in the article before us, that murder is a common mode of settling differences in the more highly civilized communities, and that the South differs from them in this matter only in doing the bloody work in a more manly and courageous way, is addressing a people more than usually isolated hitherto from the rest of the world, and still, as before the war, too much given to suppose that it has kept up with the rest of the world in the things which in our day constitute the modern state. The Southern boy, when told the ridiculous story that leading lawyers and merchants in Boston and Buffalo, when they quarrel, lie in wait for each other with shotguns, and kill each other on the sly, naturally supposes that the same custom prevails in England and on the European Continent, and that the Southern system of killing enemies openly in the street, or in offices in business hours, or in courts of law, is really a sign of greater culture and of a nobler temper. He concludes, therefore, that the South is in this matter, as in others, really in advance of other communities, and that "the street fight" between leading citizens is something which New York, London, and Paris are coming to, not leaving behind. In this way he is really protected against one of the most potent educating influences of our time—the shame of being more brutal, savage, and uncivilized than our neighbors. The true course for our Savannah contemporary, and all other Southern papers which wish to launch the South on the current of modern progress, and make it really "the heir of all the ages," is not to content themselves with "deploring" or "regretting" these tragedies, but to denounce them with all the vehemence at their command, and lash judges and juries into remembrance of the fact that the first duty of government is to remove the manslayer out of the sight of his fellow-men. Hanging or no hanging, murderers ought not to be allowed to walk the streets or fields in which they have murdered. And boys ought to be taught that going armed and in readiness for manslaughter is a sign of secret disloyalty if not of contempt for the State, as evincing total distrust of its ability to protect its citizens, and scorn for its tribunals. This consideration may affect many who have learnt neither from parents nor pastor the respect due to human life. We will add, too, that the Sixth Commandment, which, we believe, is still ostensibly respected in Georgia and Tennessee, does not say, "Thou shalt deplore or regret murder." It says, "Thou shalt not kill," and from it there flows as an imperative and inevitable inference, "Thou shalt see, as far as in thee lies, that murderers are caught, tried, and hanged, and shalt not apologize for them, or palliate their crimes in thy paper."

The walking-match which came to an end last week was less successful than was anticipated by the managers, owing no doubt in some measure to the interference of the police with bookmaking. Rowell broke down again, and there seems a great deal of doubt whether he will ever be able to enter another match. The fictitious interest given to some of the earlier walking-matches as "international" contests has pretty much died out, and probably cannot be revived. The limit of the "record" has been very nearly ascertained, and whether it can be beaten by a few miles more or less has ceased to be an interesting question. It has also been demonstrated that a walking-match is not pretty or entertaining as a spectacle, and that most of the athletes it brings to the front, instead of being well-made, fine-looking men, are, at their best, wretched-looking specimens of their kind, and after walking for a day or two become positively repulsive. Some substitute for walking-matches will probably now have to be invented, because the supply of capital seeking employment in friendly contests of all kinds cannot remain idle.

The event of the week in Wall Street and in the railroad world was the transfer of the controlling interest in the New York, Chicago and St. Louis Railroad (called the Nickel-Plate Line)—extending from Buffalo to Chicago—from the builders of the road to Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt and friends of his in other railroads who can make use of the new line. The projectors and builders of it sold out at a profit of $6,000,000 to $7,000,000 above the cost of the road. As Mr. Vanderbilt had, since the inception of the road, decried its value, and stoutly protested that he would have nothing to do with it, his purchase of the property was at first doubted. The transaction had less influence in the stock market than might have been expected. The money market during the week was amply supplied with loanable funds at low rates until the last day of the month, when preparations for November interest payments caused a shifting of loans and higher rates. Foreign exchange declined during the week, but it is no longer expected that rates will fall to the gold-importing point. At the Stock Exchange it was a dull week, the markets having been only temporarily enlivened by the large railway transfer above alluded to. General trade was moderately active, but not up to the expectations formed early in the season. Although the movement of the crops is backward, railroad earnings continue large, and promise to be larger as soon as navigation closes.

The purchase of the "Nickel-Plate Road" is taken by the public very much as a matter of course. Yet a few years ago a transaction of such magnitude would have been looked upon as a chapter out of the 'Arabian Nights,' whether considered in the light of the net profit made by the sellers, or the ease with which the buyers turned over the money to complete the trade. The rapidity and silence with which the road was built was one of the marvels of the day. Few persons except those whose journeyings brought them in the vicinity of the work, knew that such a road was building until it was actually completed from Buffalo to Cleveland. Nearly all, too, who looked on while millions upon millions of dollars were spent in its construction, esteemed it a chimerical and utterly wasteful project. Whether the acquisition will be a gain or otherwise to the Lake Shore Company, depends altogether upon the question whether the business of the country tributary to the line has grown sufficiently to require a third track. Not less singular than the celerity and secrecy with which so gigantic a work has been constructed and swapped off, is the fact that the monopoly feature of the recent trade has attracted no attention. The truth is, that the public never looked at the Nickel-Plate Road as a competing line. They knew that it would be taken into the pool, and they knew, also, that, as regards the great grain-carrying lines, the competition which centres at Liverpool—the competition of Russia, India, Egypt, and Australia—as well as that of our own lakes and canals, would be a far more powerful regulator of through-freights than the addition of one line of rails to the seven already existing between Chicago and the principal seaboard cities.

It is gratifying to learn that there is no truth in the story of Jay Gould's narrow escape from being run over by one of William H. Vanderbilt's engines at Rochester. As Gould no longer controls the Erie Railroad, there was no rational ground for Vanderbilt's desire to run him down or kill him, and had it been committed the act would have to be attributed to pure and almost insane malice. It is interesting, however, to speculate upon what might have been the consequences had the fiendish deed been really perpetrated. Had Jay Gould been killed, his family could only have recovered $5,000; had he been injured, however, to such an extent as to prevent his continuing his labors in Wall Street, he could have recovered damages based on his earning capacity. In the last twenty years he has earned $60,000,000, or $3,000,000 a year; and a verdict based on this rate for the rest of his life would net him, perhaps, some $20,000,000 to $30,000,000 more. This would sweep away a large part of Vanderbilt's earnings, and therefore ordinary prudence would obviously dictate a careful management of the latter's engines when Gould is about. It could only be in the crisis of a great railroad war between trunk lines that such means would be resorted to, and then only in sheer desperation. Gould, in his interview on the subject, says, in his good-natured way, "If I ever go into the business of supplying the public with news, as I have been informed by sundry newspapers that I intend to do, I hope I shall be a little more careful as to the news I supply than some people now occupied in that way appear to be." No good journalist can be too careful on this point, and we are glad that Gould's attention has been called to the shocking recklessness and inaccuracy so often apparent in the profession. He will, we fear, find the task of thorough-going reform a hard one, and he cannot, even with his immense resources, begin a day too soon.

The elections for the Prussian Landtag turn out to have resulted in anything but the great Liberal triumph which was at first reported. While the "Progressists" have won a few seats, the "National" or moderate Liberals have lost several, so that the union of all the Liberal factions for a common effort in the election appears to have been, if not a failure, at least not productive of great results. The relative strength of the different parties in the Landtag will not be very materially changed. Neither the Conservatives, nor the Clericals, nor the Liberals have a majority. And each one of these different parties, if they may be so called, is subdivided into several "fractions," except the Clericals, who reappear with their old strength perfectly united. The Government, in order to carry any of its favorite measures, will consequently, as heretofore, be obliged to form combinations between different parties, or fractions of different parties, and the Opposition will not be able to act upon a common plan of tactics. The situation is therefore as confused as possible. The coming session of the Landtag is likely to result, as many of those that went before it, in much wordy and fruitless wrangling and little action. And as these wrangles, even when they are followed by votes adverse to the Government, never result in any change of administration—in other words, as the stake of Parliamentary combats is not such as to awaken a strong public interest—popular indifference as to the Parliamentary branch of the Government seems to be constantly increasing. The number of voters who take part in the elections is very small in proportion to the whole number qualified; it seems to have been particularly small this last time.

As to the making up of Parliamentary combinations, Prince Bismarck has had great practice, and sometimes much success. But the task is becoming more and more difficult since he turned his face away from the Liberals. His attempt to form a reliable majority by combining the Clericals with the Conservatives has resulted in utter failure. The Clericals, who were to be won over by concessions with regard to the celebrated Falk laws, became only more exacting the more the offered concessions convinced them that the Government earnestly desired their aid. This has always been the policy of the Church. In this last campaign the leaders of the Clericals openly avowed that neither political nor economical questions were of any importance to them, and that the interests of the Church were the only things they cared for; and in this they were sustained by their constituencies. Bismarck seems to have come to the conclusion that an alliance with the Clericals would have to be purchased at too high a price, and even then would not be trustworthy. This he learned to his sorrow when they left him in the lurch with his tobacco monopoly and his state insurance for workingmen. It is now reported that he will try once more a combination between the moderate Conservatives and the moderate Liberals, although it is difficult to see how in that way he can expect to construct a majority in the Landtag, since there are not enough of them. Still, the tone of the "inspired" press seems to indicate that this is the purpose.

There appears to be no doubt that the accounts from France about the alarm caused by the Anarchists have been grossly exaggerated. The miners at Montceau-les-Mines are tranquilly and peaceably at their work, and appear to be as curious about the bombs and the bloodthirsty proclamations as the rest of the world. The trouble there seems to have been caused mainly by the religious zeal of one of the proprietors. A good deal of dynamite and many bombs are found, but nobody as yet seems to have been hurt by them, and the explosions have been confined to stone crosses and church doors. The alarm at Lyons is due apparently to placards and threatening letters, and it has been ascertained that a considerable number at least of the threatening letters are hoaxes. In short, the disturbances begin to have, when viewed in connection with the present extraordinary activity of the Legitimists, very much the air of "a put-up job." This suspicion is greatly strengthened by the appearance of articles and despatches both in the Conservative French papers and in the English ones, expressing doubts about the ability of the Republic to meet such alarming crises, and prophesying a dictatorship of Gambetta or somebody. The truth is, that as against Socialists no Government can compare for strength with a Republic. The two most formidable risings of the Socialists in France—that of June, 1848, and of the Commune—were put down by the Republic with a remorseless energy which no monarch would have dared to show. A monarch, in suppressing an insurrection, is always more or less paralyzed by the consideration that he is fighting for himself and his family, while a President represents simply the community at large; and the community which stands behind President Grévy to-day, in defence both of property and order, is a force such as the Anarchists have never confronted in France. There never was less need of a dictator, and there has not for fifty years been less likelihood of one.

The difficulties of the British Government in setting up the Khedive in Egypt have already begun, and are apparently likely to be serious enough. The theory on which the war was conducted was that it was a war to put down a military mutiny, and restore the Khedive's authority. The war is now over, and the leading mutineer is in his master's hands, who wants to try him for the offence of which the British Government by its interference acknowledged him to be guilty. The Khedive and his Ministers wish to try Arabi in their own way before native judges, and with Egyptian rules of procedure. But here the British step in and say that, although a mutineer, he is their prisoner of war, and that they need not, therefore, let him be tried at all, but that if they do let him be tried, he must have an Englishman among the judges, and must have English counsel to assist in his defence. But, say the Ministers, if he is simply your prisoner of war, there is no reason for our trying him at all. You should deal with him yourselves for whatever you have against him. If he is something more than this—viz., an Egyptian criminal—and you wish Egyptian courts to try him, how can you ask us to use our courts for the purpose if you do not trust our judges, and do not believe a trial can be fair unless the defence is conducted by foreign lawyers? These are questions clearly difficult to answer, and they have not been answered satisfactorily. English barristers have gone out to defend Arabi, but the Egyptian Ministry resent their interference, and say with great force that the British interference in the trial is calculated to weaken the Khedive's authority in the eyes of the natives at the very moment when it is of the last importance to strengthen it. Lord Dufferin has been sent to Egypt apparently to superintend the process of reconstruction, and keep things from getting into a tangle, but it will strain all his tact and perspicacity to reconcile the theory on which the armed interference has been based, with the view of the English public at home as to the shape it should now take, when the war is over.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 25, to TUESDAY, October 31, 1882 inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President has issued a proclamation appointing Thursday, November 30, as a day of general thanksgiving and prayer.

Arthur Payne, colored, one of the four men for whose arrest warrants were issued for attempting corruptly to influence the Star-route jurymen, was arrested in Washington on Wednesday. Juryman Brown, colored, is the man whom Payne is accused of attempting to bribe. On Thursday the report of Mr. H. H. Wells, special counsel for the Government, in charge of the bribery investigation, was made public. The report states that affidavits taken show that members of the jury were offered bribes in money for their votes, and that it is alleged that these solicitations proceeded as well from the agents of the Government as from the agents of the persons on trial. Mr. Wells then sets forth at length the affidavits taken by him, and sums up their contents by saying: "It is apparent, from the whole history of the alleged attempt upon Brown's virtue, that it was not done with the knowledge, in behalf of, or in the interest of the prosecution; that its guilty authors were neither the agents nor acted with the knowledge or approval of any officer of the Department of Justice. It was a deliberate and carefully prepared conspiracy against the administration of justice." His reasons for coming to this conclusion are as follows: The Government could have no interest in bribing the jury to convict; there was no fund in the Treasury out of which the large sums alleged to have been offered in bribes could have been taken without some record of the matter being kept; every person who pretended to have authority from the Government for the bribery transaction, admitted the falsity of the claim when charged therewith; and, finally, Brown, Taylor, Nelson, Fall, Laws, and Foote, "and indeed every one of the vile creatures who touched this infamous transaction, came forward without shame, but for what consideration I do not know, and put the proof of their guilt, in the form of affidavits, into the hands of counsel for the defendants." Mr. Wells, in conclusion, recommends that Fall, Payne, Foote, "and any other persons discovered to have aided or abetted in that transaction," be indicted and tried.

In the case of Dickson, the foreman of the Star-route jury, Mr. Wells finds that Henry A. Bowen had no authority from the Department of Justice, or any officer or subordinate thereof, to treat with Dickson on any subject relating to the Star-route trial, and that Bowen did not attempt to influence corruptly the action of Dickson as a juror; that "conversations did take place between Dickson and Bowen during the progress of the trial that were highly improper and unbecoming, but that the foreman did not believe that Bowen was acting or speaking with the knowledge or approval of the Attorney-General or any person in charge of or connected with the prosecution of the Star-route case; that he did not believe that any real attempts at bribery were made or intended, but that he did believe that Bowen's purpose was to find out 'whether the jury could be bought'"; that Dickson, "though so believing, made an unwarrantable use of his sworn statement before the Court and with the jury in the jury-room, with the purpose of securing the acquittal or preventing the conviction of some or all of the defendants"; and that Dickson sought an interview with Special Agent Cameron, of the Department of Justice, "for the purpose of obtaining from him some proposal, suggestion, or intimation, to be used before the jury, for the purpose of bringing the conduct of the Attorney-General and his subordinates into dishonor and contempt, and thereby to influence the jury to acquit the accused."

Dickson was arrested on Saturday, and will probably be bound over to await the action of the Grand Jury.

The committee appointed to investigate the conduct of the trustees of the Irish Skirmishing Fund have made a report, in which, after making specific charges of misappropriation, they offer to discontinue the investigation if the trustees will only hand over what money may yet remain in their possession.

At a meeting of the Board of Directors of the Garfield Monument Fair Association at Washington, Tuesday night, encouraging advices were reported. The whole space of the rotunda of the Capitol has been already taken, most of it by prominent New York houses, and the Secretary of the Association is in daily receipt of donations and exhibits from all parts of the country.

The jury in the Scoville insanity case unanimously declared Mrs. Scoville, sister of the assassin Guiteau, insane.

The annual report of First Assistant Postmaster-General Hatton, for the fiscal year ending June 30, shows that the number of post-offices then in operation was 46,231, an increase of 1,719 during the year; 1,951 of these offices are filled by appointment of the President, and are known as Presidential offices, and the remainder—44,280—are filled by appointment of the Postmaster-General. He recommends an extension of the free-delivery system. The report says that a Postal Commission visited the several large cities during the year, and at eight post-offices effected a reduction of $54,530, without any apparent inconvenience to the proper transaction of business of these offices.

The Chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington reports that in the month of September there arrived in the customs districts of Baltimore, Boston, Detroit, Huron, Minnesota, New Orleans, New York, Passamaquoddy, Philadelphia, and San Francisco 65,750 passengers, of whom 49,935 were immigrants, 11,340 citizens of the United States returned from abroad, and 4,475 aliens not intending to remain in the United States.

The issue of standard silver dollars from the mints for the week ending October 28 was $748,000, as against $406,000 for the corresponding period of last year.

The stenographic report of the statements made before the Tariff Commission is almost completed, and it is expected that within a week it will be in type. Altogether the Commission travelled about 7,000 miles, held public sessions for about seventy days, and heard the statements of between 500 and 600 persons. The printed record will fill about 2,000 pages.

In conformity with an act passed at the last session of Congress, the Secretary of the Interior, a few months ago, appointed a commission to visit the various Sioux Indian agencies in Dakota, and endeavor to secure the consent of the Indians to the surrender of a portion of their reservation. The commission have been engaged in their work for some time, and their first official communication, which was a telegram from Pine Ridge, Dakota Territory, indicates that, so far as the one agency spoken of is concerned, their mission has been successful.

A despatch from Pensacola, dated Monday, puts the total number of cases of yellow fever to date at 2,227, with 174 deaths. The small number of new cases confirms the opinion entertained that the end of the pestilence is near.

The Penn celebration in Pennsylvania was brought to an end on Friday, which was styled "Military day." The principal feature of the day was a parade by the militia of the State and military organizations from neighboring cities. Over 20,000 men were in line, and the streets were packed with spectators. The final ceremonies of the celebration took place in the evening in the Academy of Music, in which a large audience was assembled. After musical exercises participated in by 1,200 school children, District-Attorney Graham delivered an address. He was followed by Governor Hoyt, who said the deliberations and labors of those who had devised and managed the celebration could be expressed in two words—triumphant success. The Governor then formally declared the celebration closed.

The Citizens' Committee of Philadelphia has decided to offer $10,000 in rewards for the detection of fraud in the coming campaign.

The Citizens' movement in New York promises to be successful. A grand ratification meeting was held at the Cooper Union on Friday night, which was attended by an immense crowd. On the platform were 500 of the most prominent citizens of New York. Addresses were made by Carl Schurz, Joseph H. Choate, Allan Campbell, and others.

A Civil-Service Reform Association with a membership of over 200 was formed in Rochester, N. Y., on Thursday night. President Anderson, of Rochester University, presided. Mr. Willard Brown, Corresponding Secretary of the New York Association, explained the objects of the Association and the practical remedies suggested. A Civil-Service Reform Association was also organized in Oswego, N. Y., on Saturday night, with a membership of fifty of the most prominent men in the city. H. H. Stebbins was elected President.

The Brewers' Association, of Chicago, has sent circulars to the nominees for Congress and the State Legislature, propounding questions as to their opinions on the subject of prohibition, with the understanding that silence will be construed as implying disagreement with the views of the Association, and will subject the reticent candidates to opposition at the election.

The Park Theatre in New York, at which Mrs. Langtry was to appear on Monday night, was burnt on Monday afternoon. The loss is estimated at $255,000. One man was burnt, one killed, and one badly hurt.

There has been incorporated at Boston the Palestine Colonization and Christian Missionary Association, formed for the purpose of colonizing Palestine with industrious and energetic Christians, and by their prudence, labor, and perseverance restoring it to its former grandeur, so that it will be the centre of the world not only geographically, but also in art, science, and wealth.

FOREIGN.

The French Minister of Justice has applied to have the persons arrested in connection with the riots in Montceau-les-Mines brought before a Paris tribunal instead of the Court of Assizes. The Minister states in his application that the Government have in their hands clews to a vast revolutionary organization, in accordance with which France is divided into local federations, directed by a committee having its headquarters in Geneva. Placards, recommending the assassination of leading politicians, have been posted on walls in Marseilles, St.-Étienne, and Creuzot. An unsuccessful attempt was made on Monday, the 23d, to blow up the recruiting-office at Lyons. *Le Paris*, newspaper, has published the details of the Anarchist conspiracy, from which it appears that it is composed of a small number of stanch supporters in all the towns and manufacturing villages of France. All the groups in a department form a federation, and the federations form a link between the groups and the Central Committee, which is composed of delegates from the federations, and meets monthly at Geneva. The French Government is watching the matter closely, and is firmly resolved to use energetic measures to maintain public order. Private advices from Lyons on Friday represented the condition of things there as very alarming. Business was suspended and a panic had seized the population, the theatres on Thursday night being empty. On Monday the despatches stated that troops occupied the railways and all strategic points in the city of

Lyons. The forts dominating the city are prepared at the word of command to lay any portion of the city in ashes, and, if further explosions occur, the city will be placed under martial law. On Monday, proclamations were found posted on the walls in St.-Sulpice, appealing to the people to commit acts of violence against the "slave-driving bourgeosie," and ending with "Vive la Révolution Sociale." The Mayor of Marseilles has received a letter announcing that the Hôtel de Ville will be blown up on All Saints' Day, and it is reported that the Mayor and members of the Council have decided to remain at the Hôtel de Ville during Wednesday. The Central Committee of Radical Republicans has repudiated all connection with the fomenters of these disorders in Lyons and Montceau-les-Mines.

On Thursday afternoon, in the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone, moving a vote of thanks to the commander, officers, and men of the British Army in Egypt, said he would not ask the House to commit itself to the Government's policy. It would be the duty of the Government, however, to propose suitable annuities for Admiral Seymour and General Wolseley, who, he said, had accepted peerages. He spoke for an hour, concluding with a peroration on the confidence the Government might repose in its military forces. Sir Stafford Northcote seconded the vote of thanks, but reserved his opinion in regard to the effect of the conquest of Egypt. Sir Wilfrid Lawson then moved the previous question, but his motion was rejected by a vote of 354 to 17, the Parnellites voting in the minority. The vote of thanks was then agreed to. On Friday Mr. Parnell gave notice that he would call attention to the administration of the Land and Coercion Acts, and moved a resolution in reference thereto. The closure rules were then taken up, and an amendment offered by Mr. Storey, and accepted by the Government, that a question must have been adequately discussed before closure could be pronounced, was adopted.

In the House of Lords, on Thursday, Lord Granville moved a vote of thanks to the British Army in Egypt similar to that moved by Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons. Lord Salisbury seconded the motion, and it was carried without a division. The Duke of Cambridge, on behalf of the Army, acknowledged the vote, and in flattering terms thanked Lord Granville for proposing and supporting it. The House then adjourned until November 10.

Mr. Gladstone made an eloquent speech on the closure rules in the House of Commons on Tuesday. An amendment in favor of a two-thirds majority having been offered, Mr. Gladstone said that he had formerly offered to accept a two-thirds majority solely as a tentative measure to prevent the waste of the session, but that he was justified in withdrawing the concession offered last session, as the Opposition had shown no sign of accepting it.

At a meeting of the Irish Parliamentary party on Friday a resolution in favor of amending the Arrears of Rent Bill was passed. This amendment is for an extension of the time in which a settlement can be made with a landlord in regard to the rent for 1881. The meeting also decided to support the various amendments to the closure rules.

At the opening of the Commission Court at Dublin on Wednesday, Judge Barry, charging the Grand Jury, said that although the cases to come before the court were few, they were most serious. He could not say whether the fewness of the cases under the Crimes Act was due to the improvement of the country. Mr. Egan has been requested to send a telegram to the President of the Irish National Land League of the United States, informing him that the only money paid to Members of Parliament was for travelling expenses, and that in all only £1,600 was given for this purpose, including the expenses of the trip of Messrs. Parnell and Dillon to America. Mr. Davitt, speaking at Glasgow on Wednesday night, denied that there were splits in the Irish National party. He said there were differences of opinion between Mr. Parnell and himself, but not differences of principle. In a speech at Aberdeen on Saturday night, Mr. Davitt urged the Scotch farmers to demand a reduction of rents. He said they should claim the right to have an independent tribunal to arbitrate between them and the landlords. He thought it possible to bring about the concession to Scotland of a right which had been granted to Ireland.

Sir Garnet Wolseley reached Dover, on his return from Egypt, on Saturday afternoon, where he was enthusiastically received by a large crowd. On his arrival in London a similar reception awaited him. He was warmly welcomed at the station by Mr. Gladstone, the Duke of Cambridge, and the Duke of Teck.

The British Government has made a fresh proposal to Egypt in regard to the Indemnity Commission, according to which Egypt will have two representatives on the Commission and England and France one each. The United States and Greece will be invited to send representatives, and the minor States will have a collective representation.

A despatch from London says it is believed that the cost of the Egyptian war will amount to nearly £4,000,000, exclusive of the expense of the Indian contingent and the Army of occupation.

The English counsel in Egypt have declined to undertake the defence of Mahmud Barudi and Tulba Pasha, who are accused of incendiarism, but will defend Arabi, Ali Fehmi, Abdellal, and Osman Fanzi, the latter of whom is charged with intriguing in favor of Halim Pasha. They are to be tried separately. Arabi has delivered to Mr. Broadley, his counsel, a statement of the various indignities inflicted on him in prison, and others of the prisoners have also testified to the ill-treatment of the rebel prisoner. Mr. Broadley has instituted proceedings against the chief actors in these outrages. Arabi's family are obliged to shift their residence almost daily in order to avoid violence. In Arabi's correspondence are an important letter from the Sultan's aide-de-camp and several letters from the Sheik-ul-Islam. Mr. Broadley says that these letters will throw light upon the numerous telegrams found at Tel-el-Kebir. Among Arabi's documents now in the possession of the authorities there is also a letter from the Sultan's religious adviser, which is said to implicate seriously the Sultan in the course Arabi has pursued. There is a rumor that the Sultan has ordered the proceedings against Arabi to be stopped; but it is positively stated that the Egyptian Government has no intention of doing anything to prevent the proceedings from following their due course, whatever may be attempted by the Porte in that direction.

The British Government has decided to send Lord Dufferin to Egypt to aid Sir Edward Malet in the reorganization. This step has caused great excitement in Turkey.

The minutes of a Cabinet counsel held before the war have been found among Arabi's papers, which show that the Cabinet, at the meeting at which Dervish Pasha, the Turkish Commissioner, was present, decided to meet the British with armed resistance.

Arabi's defence is to be divided into two parts. The first will comprise the period before the war, in which he says he acted by orders of the Khedive, and the second, the time after July 10, in which he acted by command of the Sultan. The well-known Arabic scholar, Signor Santillani, of Rome, late Secretary to the Bey of Tunis, will come to Cairo to act as chief interpreter on behalf of the prisoners.

On Monday it was telegraphed that the Prosecuting Committee had finished examining witnesses for the prosecution, and that their examination before the counsel for the defence would begin in a few days. Borelli Bey, the Public Prosecutor, has expressed the opinion that the evidence proves the complicity of Arabi in the pillage and burning of Alexandria.

The state of affairs in Sudan is engrossing the attention of the Egyptian Government. The Council of Ministers decided to instruct the Governor of Sudan to hold out at Khartum until assistance arrives. It is stated that the False Prophet has reached Kordofan, and it has been decided to enlist as many black troops as possible for service against him. The command of these troops was offered to Ismaïl Pasha Eyub, who declined it.

Mohammed-Es-Sadok, Bey of Tunis, died on Friday night. He was buried on Sunday with imposing ceremonies. The foreign representatives, the French military authorities, and an escort of troops were present. The ceremony of installation of the new Bey, brother of the deceased, passed off quietly. M. Cambon, the French Minister, expressed the devotion of his Government to the new Bey, and said that France also expected the Bey's attachment. M. Cambon afterward addressed a circular to the foreign representatives notifying them of the death of Mohammed-Es-Sadok and the accession of Sidi Ali.

The London *Times* says that the British Government has informed France that it makes no objection to the establishment of French tribunals in Tunis, in the honorable conduct of which it has full confidence, but that Great Britain can permit nothing detrimental to her commercial treaty with Tunis. France has given the fullest assurances on this point, and it is understood by her that the rights of French citizens in Egypt shall be respected equally with those of the British, whatever arrangements England may make with Egypt.

A despatch from Rome says that the election for members of the new Parliament, which took place on Sunday, passed off quietly. All the members of the Cabinet were reëlected, and the Ministerialists claim a large majority in the new Chamber.

Returns from 425 Prussian election districts give 133 Conservatives, 92 of the Centre Party, and 39 Progressists. The result of the elections probably is that the Conservatives and Free Conservatives have gained twelve seats, principally at the expense of the National Liberals. The representation of the other parties is the same as it was at the last session.

The Spanish Cortes will be convoked immediately after the Queen's confinement, which is expected soon. Marshal Serrano's programme has received the signatures of twenty-one leading politicians, including, however, only two Republicans. The old Republicans held a meeting on Saturday, and offered to support Serrano, but refused to accept a monarchical programme.

The most prominent members of the Democratic party and the dissident Liberal factions of Spain have formally signed a programme agreed upon between the different groups composing the Dynastic Left. The programme includes the reëstablishment of the Constitution of 1869, with certain modifications. It was also decided to form a committee for the general direction of the party, and to instruct it to organize sub-committees in the provinces. Marshal Serrano has declared that he will endeavor to place the commercial relations of Spain with England on a better footing, without prejudice to Spanish interests.

A Cabinet council was held at Vienna on Sunday to discuss measures of relief in view of the renewed floods in the Tyrol. It is believed that the damages will reach 15,000,000 florins. The distress in the flooded districts of the Tyrol and Carinthia is said to be beyond description. The people are taking to flight in utter destitution, and the inhabitants of some of the smaller towns talk of emigrating to America.

AN INSTRUCTIVE PARALLEL.

THE rapidity with which the civil-service reform doctrine has been spreading within the last year is a very remarkable and, in some ways, a very instructive phenomenon. The agitation about it has been going on for over fifteen years, but it was, to all outward appearance, making but little impression on the classes who actively occupied themselves with politics. General Grant took it up with a certain show of earnestness when he became President, but met with so little encouragement that he was, when he left the Presidential chair, a very active perpetrator of most of the civil-service abuses. President Hayes, too, made but a very limited modification in the old system, and when he left office even those who were most friendly to the reform were free with their predictions that it would not be heard of again for many years.

During his administration, also, Gail Hamilton, the recognized mouthpiece of Mr. Blaine, who still hoped for the Presidency, thought it expedient to publish a series of twelve articles in the *Tribune*, ridiculing the movement as a mixture of humbug and hallucination, and every one prominently engaged in it as either a simpleton or a hypocrite. She even went so far as to deny the abolition of patronage in England, and all the Blaine faction chuckled over her tirade as a great clearing of the atmosphere.

About the same time many of the young men who had what are called political aspirations began to fight shy of the movement, as something connection with which would ruin their prospects, by bringing suspicions on their practical good sense. In fact, sneering at civil-service reform began with this class to be an easy way of showing freedom from illusions, and contempt for humbug. General Garfield, when elected, too, had apparently so far lost faith in the future of the idea that in his letter of acceptance he promptly avowed his willingness to maintain in his administration the leading feature of the spoils system, by continuing to divide the appointing power with Senators and Representatives. In political circles the fun of civil-service reform grew better and better: Conkling, and Smyth, and Platt, and all their kind were probably never so much amused by it as about the beginning of 1881.

All this is now changed. Not only do all the party platforms commend the reform in the very terms with which the reformers define it —this they have done for some time—but all candidates for office are now civil-service reformers, not only in the old sense of wishing to put "none but good men in office," but in the sense of wishing to select civil servants by competitive examination. We doubt if there is any candidate for high office in either party in any Northern State to-day who ventures to avow his belief in, or partiality for, the spoils system. All candidates for reëlection who have in times past sneered at or opposed the reform, are now trying to explain their action or bury it in oblivion, and trying to persuade voters by some form of words that the charge that they were ever friendly to spoils is a cruel slander. On the stump at this moment there are several Sauls who have seen a great light on their way to Damascus during the past year, and are now preaching the gospel they reviled only twelve months ago. Others are to be found in the newspapers and magazines clamoring for the abolition of the "American system" of boss appointments for party services. Even ex-Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, who not very long ago denounced the reform as distinctly "monarchical," has now got so far as to commend it, and has only to get rid of the familiar doubts about "this particular measure" to be as good a reformer as anybody. From our experience of such cases, we should judge that six months more will make a thorough and most edifying convert of him. Even Ben Butler has come over, but, as usual with persons of his impulsive nature, is too zealous, and proposes to apply the system in fields to which none of its advocates hitherto have proposed to carry it. Civil-service reform associations are being formed in every direction, and especially in this State, with extraordinary rapidity. They spring up in the night, and on the most unpromising soil; and, more wonderful still, they sometimes contain some of the most hardened sinners of the spoils system, men whom no arguments could have brought over, or anything but a sudden perception that the day of judgment was at hand.

Now, what has been the cause of this rapid growth of reform sentiment? Not certainly any new or extraordinary exertions on the part of its apostles. The agitation during the past two years has been somewhat, but not very much, more energetic than before. But its machinery has been almost insignificant in its operations. A few—very few—lectures, a few magazine articles, a few weekly fly sheets, an occasional article in a few—very few—friendly newspapers, an occasional word of encouragement in a sermon, include almost the whole activity of its friends in the field of persuasion. There has been no change in their methods sufficient, or nearly sufficient, to account for the (as we believe) swift and scathing condemnation which the vote this month will pass upon the spoils system in all its branches. The work has been done in the main by the spoilsmen themselves. It is their excesses in defending and pushing their system which have at last made reform inevitable and, as every one now acknowledges, brought it very near.

Nothing that reformers could have said or done in twenty years would have acted on the public mind with the force and directness of the deadlock in the Senate over Mahone's patronage; of Conkling-Platt's resignation and lobbying in company with the Vice-President for reëlection; of the assassination of President Garfield by a half-crazed and disappointed officeseeker; of the immediate disregard by President Arthur, in his appointments, of the principles solemnly laid down in his letter of acceptance and inaugural address; of the selection in Massachusetts of the leading enemy of civil-service reform to be Collector of the Port of Boston; of the appointment of Mike Dady to be Superintendent of Public Buildings by Mr. Folger; of the performances of Hubbell as a collector of assessments, with the connivance of a large number of Congressmen; of the attempt of Cameron to subjugate the party in Pennsylvania by the aid of patronage; of the circulation by the Congressional Committee of a defence of assessments by Senator Hale, and a vituperative defence of the whole spoils system, as a campaign document; of the gross and wholesale prostitution of the service in the departments at Washington to enable Mahone to build up a new and repudiating boss-ship in Virginia; and, finally, of the audacious elevation to the Chairmanship of the Republican Committee in this State, at a most important crisis, of one of the worst products of office-jobbing, and trading, and assessment-levying, and official blackmailing in the person of John F. Smyth. It is these things, and not anything the reformers have been able to do, which are to-day making every Machinist in the country run to ask honest men what he must do to be saved.

Now, what is most remarkable about all this is that it is the second time in the national history that a great cause has unexpectedly triumphed through the excesses of its opponents. It is throwing no discredit on the Abolitionists to say that nothing they did or could do in the way of exposing the evils of slavery, or of appeals to the humanity or sense of justice of either the North or the South, would have brought about emancipation, or even preparation for emancipation, within our time. It was the exhibitions of contempt and hatred for them on the part of the slaveholders which roused the conscience of the North, and opened its ears to abolitionist doctrine. The opposition to the reception or debate of anti-slavery petitions in Congress ; the sanction given by the Postmaster-General to the Southern interference with the transmission of anti-slavery documents through the mails ; the demand made on Northern legislatures, and the sympathetic hearing it received, for restrictive legislation toward anti-slavery publications ; the demand by Southern Governors for the surrender to them for trial of Northern anti-slavery men ; the passage and enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Law—these were the things which prepared the North for the last extremity.

Passive and silent resistance on the part of the Slave Power, abstinence from all displays of its strength, or a seeming deference to anti-slavery opinion, while pleading practical difficulties in the way of emancipation, would probably have left the institution of slavery in existence to this day. But it actually precipitated its own downfall by exhibiting in an extreme form its theory of its rights and duties. Day by day it armed the anti-slavery orators with arguments and illustrations of tremendous force. Its written defences became, like Hubbell's assessment circulars and "Campaign Text-Book," the most effective weapons its adversaries could use, and it finally rushed headlong on its ruin ; so that at the last, within two short years, millions of pro-slavery men at the North disappeared from the scene as rapidly as the friends of the spoils system are now disappearing, leaving not a rack behind. The political transformation effected by the war was, in fact, not half so wonderful as the moral transformation.

SPAIN.

Marshal Serrano is actively engaged in executing a new *coup* in the political arena of Spain. This time it is again to be a stroke in favor of liberty. The whole life of the old soldier and statesman is full of sudden transitions from policy to policy, from party to party; full of new attitudes. In 1833 he joined the ranks of Maria Christina and her infant daughter Isabella. In 1840 he supported Espartero in his revolt against the Queen Regent. In 1843 he aided Narvaez in overthrowing the regency of Espartero. He became the favorite of the young Queen, but in 1854 entered the revolutionary coalition of Espartero and O'Donnell. In 1856 he was again instrumental in driving Espartero from power and into exile. In 1866 he quelled an insurrection fomented by Prim. In 1868 he and Prim were the chief leaders in the revolution which dethroned Isabella. He was regent under the radically democratic constitution of 1869, minister-president under King Amadeo, and reactionary chief of the executive under the Republic. Sagasta was the head of his cabinet when, at the close of 1874, the armies proclaimed Isabella's son, Alfonso, King, and both statesmen had to resign. Now Sagasta is the Liberal Prime Minister of Alfonso, and Serrano is bent on forming a coalition directed more or less avowedly against him, under the sign of the constitution of 1869.

Almost the whole course, now embracing eight years, of the reign of Alfonso XII. has been marked by a gradual, though not continuous, tendency towards a liberal constitutional régime. The beginning of the reign, however, was strongly reactionary from necessity. The adherents of the republican form of government, just abolished, had to be kept down, and the clergy to be won over by concessions from Carlism, then in arms in all the north of the kingdom. Cánovas del Castillo, the President of Alfonso's first Cabinet—and subsequently again and again Premier—placated the Curia of Rome and the Spanish clergy, and gained the favor of the Moderados, by the restoration of confiscated church property, the prohibition of civil marriages, the closing of Protestant churches, and the suppression of the liberty of education. But scarcely had Carlism succumbed when the tendency of the Government underwent a considerable modification, the supporters of the Administration assuming the part, as well as the name, of Liberal Conservatives. The two attempts on the life of the King, in 1878 and 1879, were naturally followed by retrograde measures, but the then decided victory of Republicanism on the French side of the Pyrenees not only rendered a complete return to despotic ways in the Peninsula impossible, but a partial conciliation of the Progressist and Democratic elements of the Opposition imperative. Sagasta having, with the help of malcontent generals and party chiefs like Martinez Campos, and of Democrats like Martos and Castelar, overthrown the Cabinet of Cánovas del Castillo in February, 1881, easily won the assent of Alfonso to the formation of a coalition Ministry, in which his own party, the Constitutionalists, were to have the lead, and the more moderately progressive Centralists a considerable share. The general elections to the Cortes, held in August, resulted in a triumph for the Liberal elements of the coalition, and these have since ruled Spain in a way which has seemed to promise a more steady and firm advance on the path of constitutionalism than was possible at periods when triumphant reaction or revolutionary oscillations in France exercised a powerful influence upon Spanish politics.

But this advance does not satisfy the old Marshal, not because it is too much in one direction for a warrior politician accustomed to zigzag movements, but, as he asserts, because it is not consistently direct and free from deviations. He accuses Sagasta of having failed to fulfil his promises of reform, made on assuming power last year; of yielding too much to the wishes and influences of his Centralist associates in the Ministry. This wavering between two policies, one of which is out of date, the Marshal declares to be pernicious. Only a union of all the decidedly Liberal political elements is capable of securing the future of democratic institutions under the present dynasty. In such a union he endeavors to combine the various radical fractions—Dynastic Democrats, Possibilist Republicans, etc.—led by Moret, Martos, Balaguer, Castelar, and Montero Rios. A preliminary condition of a parliamentary majority created on the basis of this combination, he considers to be the reëstablishment of the popular constitution of 1869, which issued from the revolution of the preceding year, in lieu of the constitution of 1876, which was the production of reactionary Cortes. If this takes place, the Republicans, excepting perhaps the Socialistic fraction headed by Pi y Margall and the following of Zorrilla, will give up all violent attempts to subvert the monarchical order of things, and henceforward rely on peaceful and legal efforts for the attainment of their object, or abandon it altogether. These declarations of opinion and intention Marshal Serrano suddenly made public a few weeks ago, through the columns of the *Imparcial*, in a guarded yet ostentatious way, and their effect has been as great as the surprise they created. Almost all the party leaders on whose coöperation he counted have declared their concurrence in his scheme. A formal programme embodying it was signed on October 27 by the most prominent of them, and Spain is again on the verge of a momentous crisis—a crisis which appears to be less likely to result in strengthening the throne, by obviating hostile attacks, than in making it a prey to the ambitions and intrigues of its new supporters.

"PARSIFAL" AND ITS CRITICS.

There is a close and curious parallelism between the manner in which Darwin's doctrines were at first opposed, and then slowly but gradually accepted by the scientific world, and the manner in which Wagner's theories and works have been received by musical people. Just as Darwin's ideas were at once understood and embraced only by his leading scientific contemporaries—Haeckel, Huxley, Tyndall, Helmholtz—so Wagner's first and best friends were among the principal musicians of the period—Liszt, Bülow, Tausig, Hans Richter, Raff, Franz. Conservative people, led by the clergy in one case and the "classicists" in the other, have needed decades to be even partially converted; and if the victory in Wagner's case is as yet not so complete as in Darwin's, this is due solely to the fact that emotional habits of hereditary acquisition are much more deeply rooted in the mind than intellectual convictions acquired by individual experience. The "Parsifal" festival at Bayreuth marks another great step in public recognition of Wagner's genius, the importance of which can only be measured by those who have had occasion to compare the criticisms published in 1876 with those issued this year. Although there has been no lack of fault-finding with "Parsifal," the most cursory reader must have noticed that the average of critical appreciation has risen many degrees, while very few papers have ventured to publish scurrilous articles treating Wagner as a mere impostor and fool, or, like the London *Telegraph*, endeavoring to cover up the weakness of their arguments by the strength of their adjectives. To prove our statement, we shall quote a few appreciative criticisms from leading German and English journals, and, at the same time, examine some of the objections advanced against "Parsifal." No notice will be taken of French papers. Few of them were represented at the festival, although most of the leading composers were there.

Among the opponents of Wagner in Germany and Austria, the most virulent and spiteful are L. Speidel, of the Vienna *Fremdenblatt*, and Dr. Hanslick, of the *Neue Freie Presse*. Yet Speidel sums up his remarks in these words: "If we add together all that is good and significant in 'Parsifal,' we still obtain a neat sum. Since the first performance of 'Lohengrin,' we have not been in a position to bestow praise on Wagner. To-day, circumstances compel us to oppose appreciation to the hard word of condemnation." Speidel, too, was the only critic who pointed out the relations between Schopenhauer's ethical principle—pity—and the central idea of "Parsifal": "Through pity enlightened." This relation Hanslick ignored, wherefore, as usual in such cases, he accused the drama itself of being illogical and obscure in its central idea. In other respects Hanslick has made so many concessions that he might almost be claimed as a convert. Six years ago he described the abandonment of the aria and other operatic forms as the ruin of music; now he more modestly admits that Wagner's system of leading motives and constant modulation is regarded by many as the highest progress, and that it is no longer possible to quarrel about these differences of opinion. "Wagner is the greatest living opera composer, and in Germany the only one who can be seriously spoken of in an historic sense." In regard to the creative power displayed in "Parsifal" he says: "For a man of Wagner's age [69], and with his system, it seems to me in 'Parsifal' to continue to be astounding. Any one who can write pieces of the enchanting melodious charm of the flower-girl scene, and of the energy of the final scene in 'Parsifal,' still has control of a power which his youngest contemporaries may envy him." The London *Times* makes a similar statement: "It would be absurd to connect the idea of declining power with a man who, like Wagner, continues to be the youngest of the young, superintending rehearsals, conversing with innumerable friends and admirers, and haranguing the public, without ever showing a sign of fatigue." The distinguished vocal teacher, Professor Engel, of the Berlin *Vossische Zeitung*, who mingles praise and censure in about equal proportions (although years ago an uncompromising enemy), says: "A declining creative power appears to us, strictly speaking, to exist as little as a growing inclination for the obscure

and abstruse." To these testimonials, written, with the exception of that of the London *Times*, by hostile pens, it would be superfluous to add extracts from the columns of panegyrics published by old and confirmed admirers of Wagner. Attention may, however, be called to the comic manœuvres of some of the recent converts and semi-converts, who try to hide their confusion and inconsistency by distinguishing between themselves and the "fanatical Wagnerites," by which they mean those who were able to appreciate Wagner from the beginning.

Perhaps the only one of Wagner's gifts which none of his opponents have ever dared to question, because the absurdity would have been too glaring, is his genuine theatric instinct. It is Hanslick who calls him "the greatest stage manager in the world," and "Parsifal" "a highly effective stage-work. . . . A drama constructed with extraordinary cleverness, containing perfectly new and dazzling situations, is boldly erected before our eyes." And, in another place: "The born composer for the theatre is evidenced in every scene of this text-book, so sharply and vividly is the inevitable stage effect conceived and anticipated."

In regard to the instrumentation, it is Hanslick again who has, of all the critics, said the neatest thing: "'Parsifal' is scored in a surprisingly discreet manner. In the art of orchestration Wagner has not grown old; in 'Parsifal' this art has developed into pure magic, and for every change of mood conjures the most wonderful sounds in infinite shades and variety." In their statements regarding Wagner's poetry and the peculiar words used in it, the adversaries have grown more cautious since the exposure of Paul Lindau by Hans von Wolzogen, who showed that, whereas in Wagner's Nibelung poems only thirty archaic words are introduced, for the sake of local color, there are in the first sixty pages of Goethe's poems no less than 200 expressions unknown before his day. And it need not be stated that a poet-composer has much more excuse for such liberties than a literary poet, because music raises these words into a higher emotional sphere, where such peculiarities, by Lindau's own admission, are not at all noticed. Lindau has since been converted, and his letters in the *Kölnische Zeitung* have been among the most sympathetic written; but Speidel renews the old charge, and asserts that one part of the poem of "Parsifal" is half-German, and the other part un-German, the words being translated from mediæval German and used in a perverted sense; to which we might, without admitting this, reply, in the words of Hanslick, that "in all of Wagner's operas the music has succeeded in toning down the defects of the poem, and in adding to the beauty of its good points." It is only when the poems are read alone that these archaic words sound odd; and it must be said here, once for all, and emphatically, that most of the mistakes incurred by Wagnerian critics are due to the fact that they will persist in treating Wagner, first as an absolute musician, and again as a literary poet, in spite of his protestations that he must be judged only as a tone-poet and dramatist in one. The absurd modern journalistic custom which makes time the first of all considerations, even in art criticism, obliged most of the critics at Bayreuth to write a synopsis of the drama before they had seen it; and we noticed at least half-a-dozen cases in which the estimate formed from the text-book and piano-score alone was greatly modified in Wagner's favor in subsequent letters. Mr. E. Prout, writing for the London *Athenæum*, frankly confesses: "I have considerably modified my views since writing the preliminary notice of the work. . . . As my object is not to take sides either with or against Wagner, but simply to arrive at the truth, I believe it to be my only honest and straightforward course to say candidly that I was altogether mistaken in my first estimate of the general character and tendency of the work."

This confession is made with especial reference to the religious question involved in the presentation on the stage of scenes so closely parallel with events in the life of Christ. On this point it is interesting to hear the opinions of critics of different nationalities. Some very orthodox sheets characterized these scenes as "blasphemous," but all critics of note, so far as we have discovered, took an opposite view. As the English are considered an orthodox people, we may listen to them first. The *Athenæum* says: "Nobody finds any impropriety in looking at a painting of the Last Supper, nor in listening to the words of Christ as set to music by Bach in his 'Passion According to St. Matthew.' Wagner has in the first act of 'Parsifal' combined the two arts." "So deeply reverent was the spirit of all the performers, that the remark was made by many who were present that the scene was the most impressive religious service they had ever attended." "None of the many thousands who have attended the Passion Play need fear any violence being done to their religious feelings by the performances of 'Parsifal.'" Similar sentiments are expressed by the London *Times*, *Academy*, *Saturday Review* (which speaks of the Liebesmahl scene as "most reverent and earnestly impressive"), and other papers. Nevertheless, all these papers agree that "Parsifal" could not be produced on the London stage on account of religious prejudices.

Among the German papers all shades of opinion are represented. Lindau's views are similar to those expressed in the English journals. Hanslick says: "I must remark here at once that the ecclesiastic scenes in 'Parsifal' were far from giving me the objectionable impression which I and others had anticipated from a perusal of the text-book. The actions represented are of a religious kind, but, with all their earnest dignity, not at all in the style of the church, but entirely in the style of the opera." The Frankfort *Zeitung* thinks "Parsifal" cannot fail of popular success, because thousands will go to see it merely to revive old impressions of how it looks inside a church; and in this cynical view there is a grain of philosophy, for many who take a superficial view of things will join a writer in the *Musical World* in looking upon "Parsifal" as "two solemn services of the Roman Catholic Church with an Alhambra ballet . . . separating one from the other." The *Vossische Zeitung* suggests an idea which the thoughtful reader will do well to reflect on. It is not absolute orthodoxy, Professor Engel thinks, that will object to a dramatization of its religious ideals; but those who have once admitted doubt and criticism may fear that what they have accepted as reality and revelation may, by the artist's imagination, be transformed into a myth.

Many years ago Wagner expressed, in strong language, his conviction of the inferiority of Christian to Germanic myths. The partial inconsistency in the choice of such a subject as "Parsifal" may well be pardoned in view of the admirable result. Of course many of the critics have, as usual, objected to the selection of a mythological subject: "What's the Holy Grail to the modern Germans, or modern Germans to the Holy Grail?" they exclaim. What, we answer, were the legends of "Lohengrin," of "Tannhäuser," of all the Nibelung deities, before Wagner made them part of our every-day thoughts? The poet's duty is not to pander to the present interests of the populace, but to open their minds to new fields of poetic beauty. That myth is better suited for musical illustration than history is proved by the fact that of Shakspere's plays those alone have been frequently selected by musicians which contain a mythical element. The anatomical, unpoetic nature of some German critics has never been better exposed than by their objections to Wagner's revival of the beautiful national mythology. Equally absurd is the objection repeatedly urged against the characters in "Parsifal," that no "human" interest attaches to them! Will the critics please tell us whether these characters are to be designated as mineral, vegetable, ontological, or what?

Professor Ehrlich has made himself notorious by the reiterated assertion that there is nothing new in the musical form and style of "Parsifal"; and he gets so worked up over this great discovery that he can hardly talk of anything else in his *Gegenwart* articles. But what of it? It would be absurd to expect an artist at sixty-nine to make as great an advance in form as "Tannhäuser" marked over "Rienzi," or "Tristan" over "Tannhäuser." In "Tristan," Wagner reached his ideal, and thenceforth composed in that style, which he considered best suited for a music-drama. This style is a new musical logic, and a new musical grammar of modulation; and its individuality, like Chopin's, is so pronounced that any imitator is at once detected as a plagiarist. Of this individuality Dr. Hanslick has said, with his usual felicity of diction and illustration: "Just as that Babylonian ruler had his name burnt on every brick that helped to form great architectural works, to bear witness after thousands of years, so the author of 'Parsifal' has impressed an invisible R. W., as it were, on every bar. With perfect certainty, scholars will, in future times, recognize every page of this score as his." One peculiarity, it must be admitted, distinguishes "Parsifal" from its predecessors. In none of these do we find any ideas or phrases suggesting his other works, except once in the "Meistersinger," where there is a *designed* reference to "Tristan." But in "Parsifal" there are several passages recalling its author's previous works; and Ehrlich is quite right when he asserts that echoes from the "Götterdämmerung," "Lohengrin," and especially "Tristan" and the Nibelung Trilogy, are heard. But Professor Ehrlich has not sufficient acuteness to perceive that instead of disproving the artistic excellence of the system of leading motives, these instances are most admirable illustrations of its grandeur and beauty. When, in the third act, *Parsifal* comes on the stage disguised in a helmet, we hear sounds reminding us of the Nibelung's Tarnhelm, by means of which he could make himself invisible. When, in the second act, *Kundry* is conjured by *Klingsor*, and rises up from the ground in a blue light, the orchestra reminds us of a similar scene in "Götterdämmerung," where *Wotan* conjures *Erda*. The similarity in the situations here is so great that we unconsciously expect a similar musical coloring. To cite only one more case: the frequent suggestions of "Tristan" in *Amfortas's* music follow from the great resemblance between the fate of *Tristan* and *Amfortas*, both of whom are the victims of an improper passion, both wounded, and otherwise similar in character. It should be remembered, however, that these resemblances are slight, lying often in the orchestration alone, or in some peculiarity of modulation.

This is the place, too, to correct another misconception in regard to the leading motives. Hanslick and others are continually pointing out as a shortcoming the necessity of memorizing all the motives. There is no such necessity any more than in the case of a Beethoven symphony. Only, those who hear "Parsifal" for the first

time will naturally find their enjoyment much greater if they previously memorize the motives. If, however, they have opportunity to hear the work more than once, such a proceeding is entirely superfluous. Nor can it be said too often that leading motives are not stereotyped phrases occurring every time that the persons to whom they are assigned appear on the stage. It would be difficult to find a case in "Parsifal" where the same motives appear exactly alike in two places. Take the *Parsifal* motive for an example. In the case just referred to, where *Parsifal* appears in a helmet, the motive is in a subdued, mysterious minor mode; in the second act, where *Parsifal* appears in the flower-garden after having slain the knights, it has an agitated, heroic form; in the third act, where he is anointed King, it sounds broad and majestic; and at the end of the second act, where he is ignominiously thrust out of the hall by *Gurnemanz*, with the words, "Seek thyself, gander, a goose," it assumes a curiously grotesque form.

The odd inconsistency of Wagner's opponents, and their determination to find fault, happen what may, were again betrayed by what occurred at the last performance of "Parsifal," on August 29. Wagner is always exceedingly nervous and excited when one of his works is produced, and he is so opposed to appearing in public that he often leaves the theatre before the end of the last act. But occasionally the audience compel him to come forward and address them. Now, it is a matter of history that each of his speeches, delivered on prominent occasions, has been pronounced by his opponents very malapropos and full of insulting allusions to various people. He has been regularly counselled, therefore, to hold his tongue and not address the public. Probably Wagner took this advice to heart. At any rate, after the last notes of his new work had been played at Bayreuth, he addressed the artists on the stage, thanking them for what had been done, but entirely ignoring the public. In fact, the audience could not see him at all, as he was down in the "mystic abyss," where he had gone to conduct the last act. The next morning leading Vienna and Berlin papers published notes pointing out Wagner's "insulting way of ignoring the audience"! The comic history of Wagnerian criticism, if it should ever be written, would make a very entertaining volume.

THE ORATORS OF THE OPPOSITION.

LONDON, October 7, 1882.

AFTER the calm of the last seven weeks—for, since the adjournment of Parliament, public attention has been exclusively occupied by the events in Egypt—the notes of political warfare are again beginning to be heard. The autumn months when Westminster is deserted are with us the season for party demonstrations over the country at large, the time when the leading men on both sides go round addressing large gatherings of their supporters in the great towns—the richer people at dinners, the humbler sort at evening meetings. This practice, which adds greatly to the fatigue of public life in England, is comparatively recent. Formerly, a statesman of the first rank seldom spoke on politics out of Parliament, except, of course, in his own constituency, or when, now and then, after some achievement or in some special crisis, he was invited to appear in some great provincial city. The present custom seems to date from the vehement agitation against the foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Government which was carried on from 1876 to 1880. Then the Liberals, finding themselves in a decided minority in Parliament, and unable to shake the steady adherence of the Conservative majority to its chief, betook themselves to the country, and discharged volley after volley of their heaviest artillery against the Tory Government on provincial platforms. The triumph which they won at the general election of 1880 was ascribed by the startled Conservatives to this assiduous stumping of the country, and when these Conservatives found themselves in Opposition, they resolved to employ the same tactics. Thus during the last three autumn recesses we have had a well-sustained fire, from the Tory leaders, of denunciations of Mr. Gladstone and his policy, both foreign and domestic. The Liberals have felt bound to answer; and thus that valuable rest which Parliamentary vacations used to give is now gone, and probably will not return till a period of political lassitude such as we had in 1875 again appears. The newspapers, however, rejoice in having their columns filled by these harangues during the slack season, and the local politicians through the country enjoy the opportunities given them of seeing and hearing the leaders of the two parties, as well as the temporary stimulus which the appearance of a Parliamentary star gives to their party organizations.

This year it is the Opposition who fire the first shot, and Sir Stafford Northcote has courageously undertaken to fire it in the very centre and stronghold of Liberalism, the West of Scotland. Glasgow, one of the largest constituencies in Britain, returns three members, who, in spite of the minority-vote system, are all Liberals, and, indeed, Liberals of an advanced type. There is, of course, a strong Conservative section among the richer people of the city; but the Scotch workingmen, who in the Scotch boroughs are omnipotent, are Radicals almost to a man, and it can hardly be with the hope of making any impression on them that Sir Stafford begins his campaign in Scotland. Apart from this—which is, after all, a small matter, because a speech made by an English political leader is made to the whole country, which reads it next morning at breakfast—the Tory orators have considerable difficulties to face this year; they have scanty materials out of which to frame an impeachment of Mr. Gladstone's Government, and they have in their own ranks few first-rate advocates who will know how to make the most of those materials. As to the former point, I need say little, for your readers know already that the end of the Parliamentary session left the Liberal Ministry stronger than it had been for several months before. The capitulation of the House of Lords on the Arrears Bill, the imprudence of Lord Salisbury in provoking a contest which his followers refused to support him in, the tact and moderation displayed by Mr. Gladstone, produced a deep impression on the country. Even those who do not like or trust the Prime Minister doubted whether any change from him would be a change for the better. Since Parliament adjourned there has been a diminution of serious crimes in Ireland; and the conviction of several murderers, with the reported discovery of others, is believed to have produced a tranquillizing effect there. If the horizon is still dark enough, there is at least more light than in the terrible time which followed the Phœnix Park murders.

Still more important in strengthening the Ministry have been the victories in Egypt. An enterprise which seemed full of perils has been carried through with a speed and completeness which reflects credit not only on the General and the troops, but on the Ministers at home who organized the expedition and chose the commanders. The applause of the German and Austrian press, the envious comments which we receive from France and Spain, even the manifest annoyance of Russia, are all taken as tributes to the energy displayed by England, as admissions that she again holds that position in Europe which it was supposed had been lost by the timidity or hesitation of Liberal Governments. Even that section, weak perhaps in Parliament, but not so weak among the working-class voters, which objected altogether to our interference in Egypt, has had its mouth stopped by the collapse of Arabi, whom it is now less easy to represent as a national leader, and by the shortness of the war, which will involve less expense than we had been led to fear. The Tory speakers will, therefore, lose the opportunity they expected of condemning the military slackness and incapacity of a Liberal Government, and must seek out some other matter for censure. It is not hard to foretell what that matter will be. But as it will soon be before you in their own words, I had better devote the rest of this letter to some remarks on the speakers themselves, whose zeal and activity deserve better fortune than recent events seem to have prepared for them.

Since the death of Sir Robert Peel and the alienation of his school from the bulk of the Conservative party, the Conservatives have always suffered from a want of popular speakers. Mr. Disraeli's rapid rise and ultimate leadership were due to his being the only first-rate man they had in the House of Commons. At present they have only four men who can be placed in the front rank of public speakers, even taking the not very high standard which we are accustomed to apply. Of these four—Lord Cairns, Lord Salisbury, Sir Stafford Northcote, and Mr. Edward Gibson—the first, although in point of intellectual power far ahead of all the others, may be almost left out of account, for he rarely addresses a popular audience, and his gifts of debate, brilliant as they are, are better fitted for Parliament than for a platform. Of the three others, Lord Salisbury is the most generally effective. His style, without the higher qualities of imaginative expression or refined and exquisite diction, has force, clearness, incisiveness. He can make a point tell, can sharpen an epigram. He has no power of touching the emotions, and indeed never attempts those emotional flights by which some of Mr. Gladstone's and Mr. Bright's chief successes have been won. But he speaks with earnestness and conviction; nor is he content to remain in the region of level commonplace. He feels the necessity of having some sort of philosophical theory, some general principles, underlying his political dogmas, and occasionally develops such a theory in an ingenious and attractive way. If mere speaking could make a statesman, he would take a very high place; not that any of his speeches have a permanent literary merit, or will ever be read by any one but politicians—he has not enough either of originality in thought or of poetical felicity in phrase to deserve such an honor—but that they are vigorous and stimulating statements of the points which are for the moment effective, shafts which find out the weak places in an opponent's armor, onslaughts so bold and eager that they put heart into followers and make them rally to the flag. Lord Salisbury's speeches are useful to his own side, both because they excite them and because they furnish materials which inferior men can use over again, while his opponents cannot afford to leave them unanswered. Their real weakness lies partly in the flimsiness of their reasonings, for they are often built on very slender premises, but still more in the distrust felt in Lord Salisbury's own wisdom and constancy of purpose.

Sir Stafford Northcote is as unlike his colleague, both in character and in oratory, as one able man can be to another. He is in reality a much sounder thinker, and on the whole an abler man, than the more showy Marquis. He has a wonderful power of mastering a subject,

and a scarcely less remarkable capacity for finding arguments on the spur of the moment with which to support his own thesis and refute his antagonist. He never vapors or talks nonsense: whether you agree with him or not, you feel that there is solid substance in his speeches, something which is worth considering and replying to. He can sketch out a programme for his party as plausibly, can detect the faults of an opponent's programme, and criticise it in detail, as acutely, as any English statesman. But he wants the *verve* and dash which Lord Salisbury possesses, and which makes him tell on an audience. There is a sort of levelness and tameness about Sir Stafford's style as well as his delivery which makes him seem commonplace even when he is not. No one in listening to him feels inclined to relieve his feelings by a cheer. Very sensible, very ingenious, very fair and candid—these are the warmest words of praise which his best performances win. His character for judgment stands much higher than Lord Salisbury's, and would make him the unquestioned chief of the party had he more of what people call "backbone." He does not want courage, but he does want decision, and, what is not less important, the air of being decided. His own followers complain that he is too fair, too considerate, and, in their want of obedience to him, commit indiscretions from which he would have saved them. He does not inspirit or excite those with whom he comes in contact; or, as you express it in America, he is not "magnetic." However, he is after all a very able man, of great experience and unsullied reputation, and the Tory leader in the House of Commons; so that provincial audiences receive him with heartiness, and even the Radical municipality of Glasgow pays him the compliment of presenting him with the freedom of their city.

Mr. Edward Gibson is a personage of much less note than the two of whom I have spoken, and has become conspicuous only during the last three years. Perhaps he would not have become conspicuous at all had not Irish questions formed the staple of debate in the House of Commons. With these, as an Irish barrister who has filled the office of Attorney-General for Ireland, he was of course familiar; and, as Ireland returns few Tory members, and only one other of any political eminence (Mr. Plunkett), the task of attacking and criticising the Irish policy of the present Ministry devolved mainly on Mr. Gibson. In discharging that task he showed a readiness, skill, and force which rapidly raised him to a leading position in his party. Success stimulated his ambition, and he has now ventured into general politics, and is welcomed by Conservative associations all over England as a vigorous assailant of the Liberal Government and Radicalism in general. Although an Irishman, his oratory has nothing distinctively Celtic about it except its facility. He is not flowery nor emotional; he is a sober, hard-headed, clear-headed lawyer, who is making the best case for his own side and dissecting that of his adversaries, yet with more fairness and a greater air of honest conviction than lawyers in Parliament usually attain. Ireland is an exciting subject, especially to Irishmen; but Mr. Gibson never loses the balance of his judgment in discussing it, and has won great authority and respect in the House of Commons by this moderation not less than by his power of fluent argument. However, he has not distinguished himself on any other topic, nor perhaps would he fill so large a place but for the oratorical poverty of his party.

The other men of mark whom it contains—Sir Richard Cross, Sir Michael Hicks Beach, Mr. W. H. Smith, and the Duke of Richmond—are all tame and uninteresting speakers, although all, and especially the two latter, are respected for their practical ability as administrators. Mr. Plunkett possesses real eloquence, but too seldom displays it to rank among the combatant members of his party. Lord Cranbrook is a fluent declaimer, who can work up into his own heat the audience that listens to him, but he produces no effect on the country. Among the others there is no one important enough to require special description. Yet the Conservative party does not greatly suffer by this deficiency in popular gifts. It rests upon instincts and interests which would make it strong if it had nobody who could put five sentences pleasantly together; and the day of its return to office would probably be nearer than is now thought if it wanted the most brilliant of its speakers—for Lord Salisbury's errors in judgment do it more harm than his orations accomplish in quickening its aggressive life. Y.

LE ROI S'AMUSE.

PARIS, October 11, 1882.

VICTOR HUGO is fast assuming the proportions of a demigod. He can witness in his lifetime his own apotheosis. Great processions passed before him on the occasion of his entering a new decade of his already long life. He receives all this homage with grace and candor: there is nothing surprising in it for him. He cannot be said to be vain or proud. Such words are not made for him: he is not made after the common pattern of mankind. The tragical fall of the Second Empire seemed to be simply the accomplishment of the prophecies of the 'Châtiments.' From his rock on the ocean he had said to Napoleon III., then at the height of his triumph:

"Ah! tu finiras bien par crier, misérable!"

Providence works for Hugo, and works with him. He has said many times: the poet is the prophet—he alone sees into the dark abyss of futurity. Kings and Emperors are his inferiors, not his equals. The Emperor of Brazil called first on him. Is he not something much greater than an earthly monarch?

"Nous portons tous les deux au front une couronne."

He represents the people; he represents Humanity. I see him occasionally in the Senate; he comes in and takes his place on the benches of the Left; he does not pay any attention to the debate; he remains quiet, smiling. With his white beard, he looks like a god of antiquity. His colleagues treat him as such; he is an idol. It has sometimes seemed strange to me that he should have become so quiet, so serene, so happy; it must be supposed that old age softens everything, for Victor Hugo has gone through terrible ordeals. He lost his children under the most painful circumstances, and he has now only two grandchildren, between whom he likes to be photographed.

The great event of our next theatrical season will be the representation of "Le Roi s'amuse." The rehearsals are taking place now. Victor Hugo is not able to give much attention to them, for his mind has completely lost the critical faculty. M. Perrin, the Director of the Français, is fortunately a critic and a scholar of much eminence, and under his direction it is to be hoped that the drama of Hugo will be well studied. Nothing can be more extraordinary than these daily rehearsals; they take place between two and five in the afternoon. Fancy the immense theatre in the dark, only four or five persons in the chairs of the pit; at the front of the stage a sort of large box, from which a little light is thrown on the stage, and which contains the Director and the prompter; on the stage itself a few accessories (it is the technical word), and the actors and actresses playing in their everyday clothes. Fancy *Hernani* in a pea-jacket, the *King of France* or *Charles V.* with felt hats; the illusion of costume is completely suppressed, and the actors are obliged to give their attention wholly to the intellectual part of their rôle. I have admired the great trouble which M. Perrin takes with his comedians: every attitude is studied, every intonation is the object of a remark. The comedians are a vain race—they are not always very willing to give in; but they all have to bow finally before the authority of the Director. M. Perrin has always been a great and even enthusiastic admirer of Victor Hugo, and he spares no trouble to give us a representation of the "Roi s'amuse" worthy to be compared to the representations of "Hernani." The drama itself is not so good, in my opinion—not so simple, so clear; but the public has been made quite familiar with the subject by the opera of "Rigoletto," which is simply the "Roi s'amuse" set to music. All over the world, it may be said, the principal characters of the drama are now well known. *Francis I.* has been in the opera transformed into the Italian *Duke*, and *Triboulet*, his jester, has become *Rigoletto;* but nothing has been changed in the situations.

Victor Hugo began the "Roi s'amuse" in June, 1832, at a time when Paris was still in a revolutionary state, when the Republicans made insurrections, when they fought at the cloister of Saint Merry. The times were not very favorable to literature: the Romantic honeymoon which had begun under the Restoration, had now come to an end. Victor Hugo had offended the monarchical party in "Marion Delorme," which he wrote before 1830; in the "Roi s'amuse" he gave an odious character to Francis I. His best friends were uneasy; the enthusiasts of the first representations of "Hernani" had now grown older, and had been sobered by the great political events; and, curiously enough, all the Liberals were then Classics, and all the Romantics, or nearly all, belonged to the party of "l'autel et le trône"—they were Legitimists. The *National*, which was edited by the men who came to power in 1830, attacked the Romantic writers with the greatest violence. Victor Hugo had made his début as a royalist; the writers of the new school all stood for Gothic ideas, Gothic churches, Gothic institutions. Victor Hugo found himself toward 1832 abandoned on both sides: by the Liberals he was abandoned as a Romantic, by the Legitimists as one who had accepted too rapidly the results of the Revolution of 1830. The Republicans as well as the men of the *juste-milieu*, the Constitutionalists, looked with contempt on the poetical and dramatic work of a man who affected to ignore the rules and beauties of classical antiquity. In the "Roi s'amuse" Victor Hugo flattered the passions of the enemies of the monarchical principle, yet he could not count upon their support.

During the rehearsals Victor Hugo was absent; he was spending the month of September with his children in the country. He came back in October. The Minister who had the theatres under his care, M. d'Argout, had heard that the new drama contained passages offensive to the friends of monarchy, and asked to see the manuscript. Victor Hugo refused to give it, but he consented to have an interview with M. d'Argout. Curiously enough, he was introduced to the Minister's rooms by M. Mérimée, the famous novelist, who was then a modest *chef du cabinet*. M. d'Argout asked Victor Hugo if it was true that there were allusions in the new drama directed against King Louis Philippe. Victor Hugo said, in answer, that he never made any allusions, that he always spoke directly; that he had painted Francis I., and only Francis I.; that really it seemed impossible to find any resemblance between him and Louis Philippe. M.

d'Argout said that Francis I. was one of the most popular kings of France, and he regretted that Victor Hugo should have found it necessary to paint him in odious colors. He, however, declared himself satisfied, and did not insist any more on the subject.

The disciples of the new school were present at the first representation; they were headed by Théophile Gautier, the poet, and by Célestin Nanteuil, the engraver and lithographer — a giant with a long beard and a very soft and kind countenance. I knew Nanteuil in later years. He was the most extraordinary enthusiast; he always expressed excessive ideas with the voice of a girl and the modesty of a child. He was kind; he had much talent; but he underrated himself, and he spent his talent in the dark—in illustrations of popular books, or even of *romances* and theatrical works. These two leaders had enlisted about one hundred and fifty young men, who took their places in the pit and in the second gallery. They spent the time in singing the "Marseillaise" and the "Carmagnole" till the curtain was lifted. A moment before, a rumor went through the theatre: the life of Louis Philippe had been again attempted. This "threw a cold," as the French say. The rumor was false, but it seemed a bad omen for the drama. Among the spectators were three Princes of Orléans. The Théâtre-Français was their theatre, and they did not seem to be afraid of the allusions which had frightened M. d'Argout. Alfred de Musset was there, with Mérimée, with Eugène Delacroix, the painter; Armand Carrel, the editor of the *National;* Alexandre Dumas, Scribe, and many stars of the second magnitude.

The part of *Francis I.* was played by an actor named Perrier, now forgotten. He had no elegance, no distinction, and he could not save the part, which is naturally odious. Mlle. Anaïs, who was an elegant *grande coquette*, had not the passion necessary for the part of *Blanche*. Beauvallet was very good in the part of the bravo *Saltabadil*. But even before the beginning of the first act, it was evident that things would not go well; the magnetism of the audience was repulsive instead of attractive. When once this kind of hostility is felt, the smallest incident becomes the occasion of a storm. Some of the verses, it must be said, are eminently ludicrous. The pleasantries of the courtiers of Francis are as heavy as the stone which the bear throws on the head of the man asleep, in La Fontaine's fable. *Triboulet*, the buffoon, is not often amusing. One of the auditors was heard to say: "Si le Roi s'amuse, je ne m'amuse pas, moi."

In this hostile state of mind of the public, how could verses like these be received?—

"Je veux mettre des ailes
A mon donjon royal!—C'est en faire un moulin."

Murmurs were heard all the time—exclamations of "Oh! oh!" The actors lost their presence of mind, and made mistakes. Hisses were heard after a while, and then the representation became a perfect storm. The public would no longer listen in patience, it would no longer be moved, even when *Triboulet* speaks to his daughter in admirable verses — even when *Saint-Vallier* makes his fine tirades, when *Blanche* arrives on the stage, with her hair dishevelled, mad with fear, with shame, with horror. The charm was broken; the passion which had kept "Hernani" afloat was no longer to be found.

The last act seemed too realistic—the famous act which has inspired Verdi with his sublime quartette, the musical page which Rossini proclaimed the finest of our time. When *Triboulet* holds his daughter in the bag which he believes contains the cadaver of *Francis I.*, a man screamed in the pit, "Out with it!" ("Vide ton sac"); and this stupid pleasantry made everybody laugh. The tumult was deafening; the actors seemed to move in a pantomime, as nobody caught what they said. The curtain fell, and when, according to an old custom, Ligier came to say: "The piece which we have had the honor of representing before you is by M. Victor Hugo," he could not even make himself heard.

The next day, M. d'Argout pronounced the interdiction of the play; so it was only played once. Victor Hugo complained, instituted a lawsuit, asked for damages, and spoke himself before the competent court. His speech ended thus: "There has been only one great man in our century, Napoleon; and only one great thing, liberty. We have no longer the great man; let us try to have the great thing." Simplicity has never been the characteristic of Victor Hugo.

It is not difficult to prophesy that the approaching representation of "Le Roi s'amuse" will be more quiet than the first. Fifty years have elapsed. Everybody feels what is due to the old age of Victor Hugo; everybody is inclined to do homage to his genius, whatever may have been his vagaries in late years. "Dormitat Homerus." He will himself assist at this first representation of his drama, somewhat as a remnant of past ages. It is a great pity that our first modern actress, Sarah Bernhardt, has left the part of *Blanche* to Mlle. Bartet. Alas! she has left the French Theatre; she leads a meteoric, a cometary life, which will land her God knows where. She will have one, two theatres of her own. She has made her son of eighteen years the manager of one. She has been married. She has asked Louise Abbema, her friend, to paint the curtain of one of her new theatres, and she is represented on it in the most dramatic circumstances of her life—in a balloon, on her way to America, etc. She has lost none of her wonderful qualities, but her oddities are growing into manias. She cannot be vulgar, though she tries in every way to vulgarize herself. Everybody will regret her when the "Roi s'amuse" is played. "Pends-toi, brave Crillon; on s'est battu sans toi."

Correspondence.

THE FLAGS OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Björnstjerne Björnson sends me the enclosed circular-letter, a copy of which he begs me to forward to you with the request that you would have the kindness to answer the questions contained therein through your valuable paper. You are probably aware that there is at the present time a constitutional struggle of considerable magnitude raging throughout Norway, and that Björnson and Sverdrup are the leaders of the Liberal Opposition, which during a long series of years has had, and still has, an overwhelming majority in the national Parliament (Storthing). Among the many important questions which are at present being agitated by this party is the "purification of the flag"—*i. e.*, the removal of the "union mark" in the upper corner, which is apt to give the impression to foreign nations that Norway is a dependency of Sweden. The Liberal party has no desire to sever the union with Sweden, as has been falsely asserted in the telegrams to the Associated Press, but it merely wishes to have the flag so made that it will not misrepresent the Norse people before the world, but boldly proclaim its independence. The Government press has attempted to discourage this movement by asserting that a change in the flag would be sure to injure the commerce of Norway (which is far greater than that of Sweden), and it is in order to have this question settled that Mr. Björnson has taken the liberty to appeal to the editors of the principal papers in all the great seaports having commercial relations with Norway. Hoping that you will favor him with a reply, I remain, respectfully, Hjalmar H. Boyesen.

New York, October 25, 1882.

[We have not room to print the circular referred to by Professor Boyesen, which is embellished by colored representations of the Swedish and Norwegian flags, showing that they have only the Union jack in common. Björnson, after a statement of the nature of the peculiar union of the two countries—"exclusively a personal one," through the King of Sweden being also the King of Norway—puts the following questions:

"(1) If the Swedish and the Norwegian flags both were *without* the emblem of union, and thus what we call 'pure' flags, would they not also convey a 'purer' conception of the absolute independence of the countries?

"(2) Would it hurt the commerce or freight-carrying business of Sweden or Norway in America, if their flags were without the emblem of union?"

To the first question, *ex vi termini*, there can be but one answer—in the affirmative. Nor, secondly, can we imagine that any change in the flags would alter the commercial relations of the two countries to the United States, or have any effect upon the spirit of enterprise which makes Norway's ships outnumber Sweden's upon the ocean, and Sweden's commerce greatly surpass Norway's in volume and importance.—Ed. Nation.]

A QUESTION OF GERMAN SYNTAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a review of Sawyer's 'German Grammar' the *Nation* of October 19 says:

"But few blemishes betray that German is not the author's native language. On page 106 we find the rule that the pronoun follows the sex (and not the grammatical gender) in 'Ein Mädchen *die* etwas von sich hält,' and 'Welches Weib *die* zehn Groschen hat.' The contrary rule generally holds good in the best writers."

You have here hit upon a point in German syntax which, if it is to be discussed at all, deserves more careful treatment. If, however, only a brief statement is to be made, Professor Sawyer's is more nearly correct than his critic's.

Professor Whitney says:

"As a general rule, the pronoun of the third person, in the singular, takes the gender of the noun to which it relates. Excepted from this rule are such words as *Weib*, which are neuter, though designating female persons; also diminutives of personal appellations, such as *Mädchen, Fräulein, Knäblein:* a pronoun referring to one of these usually follows the natural gender, instead of the grammatical" ('German Grammar,' § 154, 1).

So Heyse's 'Schulgrammatik,' edition of 1872, page 362, reads:

"Wenn Personen mit sächlichen Substantiven benannt werden, namentlich mit Verkleinerungswörtern (wie: das Söhnchen, Mädchen, Fräulein, etc.), verkleinerten Eigennamen (wie: Hänschen, Gretchen, etc.), oder den Wörtern das Weib, das Frauenzimmer: so gebraucht man ein Adjectiv oder Pronomen im Verhältnisse der Beziehung zu einem solchen Substantiv in der Regel in der männlichen oder weiblichen Geschlechtsform, lässt also im Fortgange der Rede das Sprachgeschlecht dem natürlichen Geschlechte weichen. Dies geschieht jedoch allgemeiner beim weiblichen als beim männlichen Geschlecht, und um so nothwendiger, je entfernter und loser das Beziehungsverhältniss ist."

Finally, Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten in der deutschen Sprache,' edition of 1879, the most recent authority, contains the following:

"Fügung nach dem Sinn: 1) Namentlich bei Fürwörtern, in Bezug auf das natürliche statt des grammatischen Geschlechts: a) Verkleinerte weibliche Namen: *Das* (nicht: *die*) fleissige Hannchen, etc. Dagegen: 'Wie befindet sich Hannchen?' *Sie* (nicht: es) ist wohl. Mundartlich freilich auch hier das Neutrum, s. zahlreiche Belege in Auerbach's Dorfgeschichten, etc. . . . —c) Bei Fräulein finden sich selbst die davorstehnden Artikel, etc., im Femininum (neben dem Neutrum). . . . —o) Das Mädchen, häufiger folgt sie, etc., als es, etc. . . . —s) Ein Weib, *das*, etc.; *es*, etc.; häufiger: *die*, etc.; *sie*, etc., und in Vermischung beider Fügungen."

On considering these statements and examining the instances of this idiom which occur so often in German literature and in German conversation, it is apparent that agreement according to grammatical gender takes place only when the neuter substantive, as such, is distinctly in mind; but as soon as this impression fades, and only the personality referred to by the substantive is prominent in the mind, agreement according to natural gender at once takes place. So a relative pronoun immediately following its antecedent, especially when the pronoun is restrictive, readily (but not necessarily) agrees in grammatical gender with its antecedent, but a personal or a possessive pronoun, coming a little further on, almost invariably follows the natural gender.

Furthermore, a desire to speak accurately, when not accompanied by a thorough knowledge of those syntactical laws of which grammatical rules are but the development, often leads even good writers to twist their mother-tongue into a constrained and artificial form. So some Germans would say: "Ich habe das Mariechen gestern gesehen; es sollte mich nicht wundern wenn *es* nicht lange lebe." It is the same ignorant seeking after correctness that leads some among us to say: "It looks so *prettily*, but twenty-five cents *are* too much for it."

Very respectfully, GEORGE HEMPL.

LA PORTE, IND., October 22, 1882.

[Our remark had reference strictly to the *relative* pronoun immediately following the noun in the sentences quoted, and we qualified it by saying: "The contrary rule *generally* holds good in the best writers." Neither Professor Whitney nor Heyse contradicts us; both elucidate the subject with reference to the *personal* or *possessive* pronoun following the noun more or less remotely. We fully agree with their conclusions as summed up by Mr. Hempl. But does he not adopt our view when he states that "a *relative* pronoun immediately following its antecedent, especially when the pronoun is restrictive, *readily* (but not necessarily) agrees in grammatical gender with its antecedent"? With all deference to Sanders's "häufiger: *die*," it remains to be shown that the best writers do generally say: "Welches Weib *die*," etc., and "Ein Mädchen *die*," etc.—ED. NATION.]

THE *MONITOR* AT HAMPTON ROADS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my 'Young Folks' History of the War for the Union,' which you were kind enough to commend at the time of publication, occurs the following sentence (p. 235):

"The authorities at Washington, frightened at the prospect of a visit from the *Merrimac*, had telegraphed to have the *Monitor* sent there as soon as she should arrive at Fortress Monroe; but Captain Marston, thinking it important to do what he could to save the rest of the fleet, ordered Lieutenant John L. Worden, her commander, to go to the aid of the *Minnesota*."

Exceptions have been taken to this passage by some of the participators in the event, and as it has seemed to me important to settle the question of responsibility for the action of the *Monitor* on that ever-memorable Sunday, I have been at some pains to investigate the facts through official sources not easily attainable when the earlier histories of the war were written. From these it appears that the Navy Department concentrated at Hampton Roads five frigates, principally in expectation of the coming of the *Merrimac*; that the *Monitor*, then building, was urged to completion, and ordered to go there on the 20th of February; and that upon the solicitation of General Wool, who said that Newport News was to be attacked, two frigates—the *Congress* and the *Cumberland*—were anchored off that point. So far as the Navy Department was advised by the officers (both Army and Navy) at Hampton Roads, the force there was ample to take care of the *Merrimac*. There was nothing asked for that was not at once provided. The construction and projected raid of the Confederate vessel had been duly reported to Captain Marston, the senior naval officer at the Roads, by Union friends at Norfolk. As early as February 11, that officer wrote to the Department that a Russian who had worked on the *Merrimac* had informed him that she was coming out of dock, and was not a failure. His despatch closed by saying: "I trust that we shall be able to give the Rebels a warm reception." This was the tone of all letters, official and private.

General McClellan's plan to move the Army of the Potomac, in March, 1862, back to Annapolis, and thence down the Chesapeake and up the Rappahannock to Urbana, in the rear of the Confederates, was finally consented to by Mr. Lincoln, on condition that the major part of the army should go down the Potomac; and to effect this he desired that the Confederate batteries along the river should be taken. In consequence of this, and not on account of any fear of a visit from the *Merrimac*, a telegram, dated March 5, was sent to Baltimore, to go thence by boat to Hampton Roads, directing Captain Marston to send the *Monitor* to Washington. The next day it was found that she had not left New York, and a telegram of similar purport was sent there, but she had sailed before this was received. On the 6th, Captain Marston was directed to send two frigates into the Potomac, with the object of clearing it of Confederate batteries to permit the passage down of the army, as the President desired. But upon the representation of Assistant-Secretary of the Navy Fox that, as the *Merrimac* was expected daily, no part of the force at Hampton Roads should be withdrawn without the approval of the commanding officers there, Captain Marston was directed to suspend this order until the arrival of the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, who was sent to Hampton Roads by the President, to make such orders as the exigency demanded, after consultation with the commanding officers there.

Mr. Fox arrived at the Roads Sunday morning in time to witness the first iron-clad contest, but one day after the *Merrimac* had made an end of wooden navies forever. The *Monitor* had arrived the evening before, after the destruction of the *Congress* and *Cumberland*, and had found the *Minnesota* ashore and the whole fleet, so confident before, utterly helpless. Of course Captain Marston did not deliver to Lieutenant Worden the order of the Department to come to Washington. If he had done so, Worden, according to military usage, should have disobeyed it. History does not forgive Marshal Grouchy for standing on the technical orders of the Emperor, on the 18th of June, instead of marching to the field of Waterloo, the cannon of which he could hear.

After the repulse of the *Merrimac* and the saving of the *Minnesota*, telegraphic communication was established for the first time between Washington and Hampton Roads, and the Assistant Secretary sent to Mr. Welles a concise account of the fight. But during the interval of one day between the news of the havoc made by the *Merrimac*, and that of the arrival and gallant stand of the little *Monitor*, a panic arose, beginning at Hampton Roads with the reaction from over-assurance, which spread all over the North. Admiral Dahlgren and the Quartermaster-General proposed to block up the Potomac River; and Secretary Stanton ordered a telegram sent to Commodore Vanderbilt asking him to enter into a contract to destroy the *Merrimac*. In spite of this panic General McClellan determined to use Fortress Monroe as a base, and sent General McDowell to Assistant-Secretary Fox to get his opinion in regard to the *Merrimac's* field of operations. He received from the General the following telegram in answer:

"WASHINGTON, D. C.,
"March 13, 1862, 9:15 P. M.

"*Major-General McClellan:*

"I have seen Fox. He says the *Merrimac* is not able to come into the Chesapeake, and is slower than the *Monitor*. The latter fought under very disadvantageous circumstances, is uninjured, and is capable of mastering her adversary. He seems to regard the operations of the *Merrimac* as confined to Hampton Roads above the Fort. The Secretary has telegraphed concerning Burnside and Wool. No troops ordered to Fremont from this army. IRVIN MCDOWELL,
"Brigadier-General."

The Confederates justly claimed a victory on the 8th of March, and they tried hard to make their people believe that they drove the *Monitor* away on the 9th. But on that day J. P. Benjamin, their Secretary of War, telegraphed to General Huger at Norfolk to know why the *Virginia* withdrew "without destroying the *Minnesota*." Huger answered on the 10th: "Erickson battery prevented the *Virginia* from taking *Minnesota*, which got off, and has gone to Hampton Roads."

This is a confession of that which history has already settled—that Lieutenant Worden in the *Monitor* bravely prevented further destruction by the *Merrimac*. Furthermore, he acted wholly on his own responsibility, for it does not appear that he received any orders, either from Washington, or from his superiors at Hampton Roads. JOHN D. CHAMPLIN, JR.

FREE CANALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been somewhat disappointed every week for some time that my *Nation* has offered me nothing on the question of "free canals," except here and there what seems to me a tacit approval of the apparently popular notion that the constitutional amendment about to be voted for is a "good thing," and "should be carried." To me this is not so obvious as not to need discussion. I rather incline to the belief that the canals should not be free, and will vote in accordance unless I am otherwise convinced before the time for doing so.

If you can afford me space to repeat them, I find the advocate of "free canals" offering three main reasons for his views: first, they will regulate the charges of the railroads; second, they will reduce costs to the consumers; and, third, they will induce business to enter the State.

Now, as to the first, we know that at the same cost the railroad is the preferred carrier; hence if the railroad can compete with the canal as to cost, the canal will be worthless, and so, falling into disuse, will preclude any expense for maintenance. But if the canal, being free, can so far reduce the cost of transportation below the railroad as to become preferred, the railroad will be regulated "out of existence" as a freight carrier at every point where it meets the canal as a competitor, and this is far from desirable. Either case, then, seems to me to demonstrate that the railroad is a subject for other and better regulation than by the canal; namely, by a commission.

The second reason, I think, belies itself. For while in some cases in connection with this subject the taxpayer is a consumer, in most others the consumer is not a taxpayer. This is obvious when it is known that the canal carries for other States and countries than our own. But even if every consumer of the goods carried over the canal were a citizen and taxpayer of New York, I think it can be shown that the producer would receive some of the benefits of a free canal.

What is offered as a third reason, I am not prepared to deny as a simple fact; but its value as a reason strikes me as very slight. The canal as a highway is at best an artificial one, more so, to my thinking, than the railroad. I also think that trade which does not come naturally, will be found generally to benefit but comparatively few—how few in this case will be seen by any one who candidly considers the number and mode of distribution of our State's population. Should not, then, they who wish to follow a particular form of trade, do so at its natural place of settlement? This with reference to the particular class of men who seem most anxiously interested in the canal question.

Not to multiply words, I think that some reasons why the canal should not be free will be found in my consideration of those given as why it should. There are others important to be considered by the agriculturists of the State, whom they mostly concern.

These views are only presented to know whether their author or the great mass of his fellow-citizens most need enlightenment on the subject of them. If you show this, you will greatly favor at least the former, and perhaps many of the latter.—Very respectfully,

S. W. S.

New York, October 28, 1882.

Notes.

Mr. W. M. Griswold has added a tenth number to his Q. P. Indexes (Bangor, Me.), in the shape of a 'General Index to the *North American Review*' for vols. 92-134, covering the years 1861-1882. For the volumes 92-125 it competes with the corresponding portion of Mr. Cushing's *North American* Index, and, of course, is less full, though it adds some topics. Mr. Griswold has hit upon a most happy device for a seal or stamp or trade-mark upon the cover of this volume. In very artistic fashion it illustrates Pope's distich:

> "How index learning turns no student pale,
> Yet *holds the eel of science by the tail.*"

T. Whittaker will shortly issue 'Edens of Italy,' by the Rev. Joseph Cross, D. D., embellished with more than one hundred fine woodcuts, and duly provided with an index and a map.

Macmillan & Co. will be the publishers of the first complete edition of the poet Gray's writings ever attempted, the editor being Mr. E. W. Gosse, who has lately, in the "English Men of Letters," given evidence of special qualifications for the task. It is hardly probable that any of Gray's MSS. are preserved in this country, but Mr. Gosse desires to learn of them anywhere. His address is 29, Delamere Terrace, W., London.

While Mr. Bernard Quaritch is bringing out photolithographic facsimiles of the most important Shakspere Quartos, executed by W. Griggs, under the superintendence of Mr. F. J. Furnivall, a "Unique Edition" of the dramatist's works is being undertaken by William Paterson, Princes Street, Edinburgh (New York: J. W. Bouton). The text of the Folio of 1623 will be followed verbally and as regards the spelling and punctuation, in this edition, and "will thus," to quote the publisher's prospectus, "appear for the first time in a handy form and in clear, legible [last century] type." The second original feature will be thirty-eight etchings by M. Monziès, after designs by M. Pille; for this kind of art has never before been employed to illustrate Shakspere's collected works. The paper will also be of a sort never before used in book-printing. There will be four impressions, with every copy numbered; and the set of eight volumes will cost accordingly from $120 to $28.

Mr. Quaritch is engaged in publishing a series of photo-chromo-lithographic representations of the industrial art of all nations, chiefly selected from the collections of the South Kensington Museum, Mr. Griggs again being the executant. They appear in "portfolios" in shilling parts, containing two plates each.

The fourth volume of Stewart and Long's translation of 'Plutarch's Lives' (London: Geo. Bell & Sons) has come to hand. We have already, in the case of each of the preceding volumes, expressed our opinion of the task now completed, and deem it unnecessary to submit this one to a critical examination.

The Longfellow Engraving Co., of this city, send us a line-and-stipple engraving by Samuel Hollyer, representing the poet in his study, and as if pausing in the midst of composition. As a work of art this plate, which measures 14 x 20 inches, cannot be very highly praised either for the mechanical execution or for the draughtsmanship. Luckily, however, the face is the best part of the performance, and those who hang the print on their walls will have a fair reminder both of the man and of his workshop.

Latest of the series is 'The Bryant Birthday Book,' arranged by Janet E. Ruutz-Rees, and published by Appleton & Co. Its broad pages are rubricated, and there is an excellent steel-engraving of the poet.

And the newest calendar is 'Kate Sanborn's Sunshine Calendar' (Boston: Osgood), with the usual block for the days of the year, to each leaf of which a cheerful verse or prosé anecdote or sentiment is assigned.

Two "first numbers" of new periodicals lie on our table. One, a monthly, *Capital and Labor*, is the avowed "organ of the manufacturers in the labor question, and devoted to their interests generally"; but not alone to their interests, as is shown by several articles on "Industrial Arbitration and Conciliation," "Practical Operation of Arbitration and Conciliation in France and England," "Arbitration in the United States," and "Pensions and Benefits in Industrial Establishments." The editor and publisher is Mr. Charles Lenz, at 23 Park Row. The other magazine is a quarterly, and illustrated, and is called the *Gallery of Spirit Art*. It is enough to say that it supplies the world for the first time with an authentic likeness of Confucius (to mention no other of the famous men of antiquity whose portraits are also given). We owe these precious productions to Mr. and Mrs. Anderson, working under spirit influence (Leonardo da Vinci being "the ornamental artist," when his services are required). We are told that the picture is invariably painted upward from the feet, in order to give the spirits "all the time possible to practise on the face and expression."

It would be worth the cost of Lieut. Thomas Symons's 'Report of an Examination of the Upper Columbia River,' just issued from the Government Printing Office, if his suggestion looking to a new name for Washington Territory when it becomes a State should be carried into effect. He proposes Tacoma, which is the Indian name of Mt. Ranier, "the highest and grandest mountain" in the Territory, and of Alpine difficulty in the ascent. The report contains much interesting matter, original and incorporated, concerning a region destined to sustain a vast and prosperous population. The Upper Columbia is chartered anew.

The London *Spectator* has discovered perpetual motion. Recording the trial of a launch which was driven on the Thames eight miles an hour against the tide by forty-five electrical accumulators, each of ten-inch cube, it says "the practical problem must be to reduce the size and weight of the accumulators. Once small enough to be carried, they might drive a steamer across the Atlantic, *being perpetually recharged by a dynamo driven by the motion itself.*"

Following the example of Bibliophile Jacob, M. Arsène Houssaye reviews in *Le Livre* for October his own literary career, setting forth the order and origin of his writings, their successes and failures, and summing up the result with a melancholy forecast of speedy oblivion. On the other hand, *Le Livre* helps to perpetuate his memory by means of a fine engraving of his handsome English or German, rather than French, face. Among the book reviews we notice one of Mallock—'Vivre: la vie en vaut-elle la peine'; one of Yves Guyot, 'La Prostitution,' the too reckless author and his temperate reviewer agreeing that Government inspection of prostitutes is an evil which ought to be abolished; and one in highest praise of Larousse's new 'Grand Dictionnaire Universel du XIXe Siècle.' The news department contains the circular addressed to all the French councils-general by the committee in charge of the statue to be erected in honor of J. J. Rousseau.

—To a portrait of Col. Richard Varick (one of Arnold's military family at the time of his treason), in the November number of the *Magazine of American History*, the editor, Mr. Henry P. Johnston, adds some very interesting inedited particulars of the circumstances of the exposure and flight of Arnold. Mr. John B. Dunbar concludes his instructive papers on "The Pawnee Indians: their Habits and Customs"; and among the Minor Topics the question of the Washington pedigree is mooted in connection with representations of the carved coat of arms of the Northampton Washingtons at Sulgrave manor, and of the brass inscription of the tombstone of Lawrence Washington, Gent., 1564. The *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, No. 22, has naturally much to say of William Penn and the bi-centenary which has just been observed. Mr. F. D. Stone, the Librarian of the Historical Society, reprints Philip Ford's "Vindication" of the founder during his absence from England, and in a separate paper discusses with much learning and fairness the question whether Penn's Treaty with the Indians took place in 1682 or 1683, making a good case in favor of the latter date. Mr. Stone even concludes that the Shackamaxon elm has a fair title to the honor ascribed to it by tradition of marking the spot where the treaty was concluded. We notice, by the way, that the late popular celebration of Penn's landing at Chester and Philadelphia was in accordance with the old-style date, and that the Historical Society stood upon its dignity, and will hold its

own festival on November 8. This well illustrates the contest between scholars and the public over the Pilgrim anniversary in Massachusetts. We may as well mention here a handsome privately-printed volume, in which Mr. George L. Harrison describes his bootless errand last year, as State Commissioner, to negotiate the transfer of Penn's remains to Pennsylvania, in accordance with a resolution taken by the State Legislature. The numerous views of Stoke-Poges, of the Penn graves and the adjoining Jordans' meeting-house, at Newport Pagnel, of Isaac Penington's Grange, of Milton's Cottage at Chalfont, etc., with the author's account of his visit to the obscure burial-lot, make 'The Remains of William Penn' a valuable memorial. But the student of character will perhaps find his edification, and certainly his amusement, rather in the documents showing the English Quaker way of thwarting the Commissioner. Mr. Harrison admits that he got no support from the Friends on either side as a body. One curious fact mentioned by him is that a Colonel Stuart, a lineal descendant of Penn, and his co-heirs in England, are in receipt of an annuity of $20,000 from the British Government, in recompense for the Penn estate in Pennsylvania confiscated during the Revolution. This group naturally preferred *quieta non movere*.

—The first number of *Longman's Magazine* contains a table of contents in which there are to be found in due proportion science, fiction, literature, poetry, and what for want of a better term we may call sociology. Mr. Howells has a pleasant article on Lexington, which will probably be read with a more intelligent interest by Americans than by Englishmen. Mr. Anstey, the author of 'Vice Versâ,' contributes a farcical story called "The Black Poodle"; the author of 'John Halifax,' a poem called "Departed"; Mr. Freeman, "Some Points in American Speech and Manners"; Mr. Tyndall, an article on "Atoms, Molecules, and Ether Waves"; James Payn, the opening chapters of a serial called "Thicker than Water," and Richard Owen, some comfort for anti-Darwinians in the shape of a discussion of "Our Origin as a Species." As all these writers' names may be found on the title-pages of other magazines, and the subjects they write about are not in the main new ones, it is not easy to see what special claim upon public attention *Longman's* is expected to have beyond its cheapness. This undoubtedly does constitute a claim, for cheap magazines containing varied tables of contents will probably always find readers. It is an evidence of the publishers' enterprise that they have not failed to secure in Mr. Freeman the services of an international observer. No magazine which tries to do its whole duty by its readers can afford to neglect this, and what Mr. Freeman has to say about American speech and customs will find *Longman's* some American readers. It is a very civil article, and not likely to offend any one on either side of the Atlantic. To our minds it is more readable than the other articles on America which Mr. Freeman has been publishing lately, though very little of it is new. A good deal of the current speculation about the differences between the American and English use of words is of little value, because it leads to nothing. Mr. Freeman confesses himself unable to solve the mysteries involved in our use of the words "store" and the term "dry-goods." We doubt if they can be solved. He does not notice the fact, by the way, that when ladies go to a "dry-goods store," they are always said to be "shopping" and never "storing." Will not some "Britisher," as Mr. Freeman calls himself, who has the leisure, look into this? Mr. Freeman appears to be an acute observer of linguistic differences, but having been in this country only a few weeks, he is hardly in a position to write with authority on minute dialectic differences. He pronounces the Virginian kyarter, kyar, kyard (carter, car, card) to be genuine "West-Saxon," which may be true, for all we know; he does not discuss the question whether a great deal of the softening and modification of vowels in the South is not due to West-African influence. When a man once fairly abandons himself to the passion for analyzing linguistic differences, the lengths to which he will go, no matter how great his original caution, are amazing. Mr. Freeman has a little essay on the last letter of the alphabet, in which he declares that in New England it is always *zee*, in the South *zed*, while "Pennsylvania seems to halt between two opinions." *Zee*, he says, is a "schoolmaster's device" for getting rid of the strange sounding *zed*, but really the letter ought to be pronounced *ez*—a sound unheard from the lips of child or adult, so far as we know, in any part of the British empire, or even in our own free land.

—Military desertion is discussed in a somewhat rambling way by Colonel Holabird in the *United Service* for November, with the promise of a continuation. The evil is grave, and our Army has suffered from it ever since we have had an army. But the bulk of the desertions during the Rebellion (to which the writer refers with what seems exaggeration) and those now going on are essentially different in cause. The present necessity for enlisting three men where two are wanted depends quite as much upon civil as upon military failings. The average civilian will harbor and protect the deserter—or certainly will not report him—under the feeling that he is shielding a fugitive from a merciless despotism. The same man would be prompt to point out a runaway policeman or a watchman who had betrayed his trust, while the soldier who violates his oath is regarded as a fugitive from bondage. It is partly owing to this false and lax public sentiment that the mass of desertions are of those who have served the shortest time. Recruits in their civil training have not been educated to regard the military oath with solemnity, and they repudiate the contract without compunction whenever it seems to them desirable, encouraged further by the knowledge that, once free from actual military surveillance, the odds are against their apprehension. Undoubtedly there are impelling causes from within; there are many inconveniences, there is often hardship, there is sometimes injustice. But that these are not vital, follows from the rarity with which old soldiers desert. The crime is in inverse proportion to the length of service. Colonel Holabird makes in this first paper various suggestions looking to the amelioration of the condition of the enlisted men, some of which seem practicable and others appear hardly feasible. But the subject is one of importance, both in dollars and in morals, and deserves all the study that civil and military philosophers can bestow.

—The *Churchman* has been guilty of a piece of "journalism" of which a religious paper ought to be ashamed, in asserting that the *Nation* had made "the rash statement" that when Dr. Pusey was called to a Professorship at Oxford "no clergyman in the Anglican Church knew any Hebrew." The *Nation* made no such statement. What it said was, that "the best that has been said for him [as a Hebraist] is, that the chair which he took when no clergyman in the Anglican Church knew any Hebrew, did not decline in his hands." This was true at the time it was written. Inaccurate quotation to the detriment of an adversary is a peculiarly grave offence in a religious paper.

—A recent number of the *St. James's Gazette* has given some interesting figures showing the growth of English commercial interests and the general progress of the nation during the reign of Queen Victoria. The increase in manufactures is fairly indicated by the figures connected with seven of the principal items of commercial activity. In 1840 the power of stationary engines employed was estimated at 600,000 horse-power, while in 1880 the estimate was 2,200,000. During the same forty years the production of pig-iron has increased from 1,396,000 tons to 8,326,000 per annum, and the production of coals from 36,000,000 to 147,000,000. The annual consumption of cotton has grown from 437,000,000 lbs. to 1,404,000,000, and the consumption of wool from 124,000,000 to 401,000,000. The value of cotton manufactures has increased during the same period from £26,000,000 to £95,000,000; and the number of yards of linen produced has grown from 186,000,000 to 429,000,000. These figures show that manufactures have increased in about equal ratio with the output of coal—that is to say, have about quadrupled. Meanwhile, the population has arisen only thirty-three per cent. It is interesting, also, to note that, while public wealth has more than doubled, it has multiplied the number of those who are above the need of public support. In 1850 the United Kingdom had 476 paupers per 10,000 inhabitants, while in 1880 the number was only 289 per 10,000—a decline of about forty per cent. In the same period the deposits in the savings banks arose from £28,000,000 to £81,000,000, or from the ratio of 21s. to 46s. per inhabitant. The probate returns also show that the proportion of persons leaving property at the time of their death has increased from one in thirty in the year 1837 to one in sixteen in 1880. Meanwhile the national debt has been reduced £19,000,000—from £788,000,000 to £769,000,000. These figures show that while in 1837 the debt amounted to 19.5 per cent. of the national wealth, in 1880 it amounted to only 8.8 per cent. The accumulative power of the country is still further shown by the fact that during the first decade of Queen Victoria's reign the number of new houses built annually was 39,100, while in the years from 1870-80 the average amounted to 80,300. This item alone shows that since 1840 the number of new houses built, not counting houses rebuilt, has been not less than about 2,218,000, representing an estimated value of £1,371,000,000, or about double the national debt. From these interesting figures the writer draws the singular conclusion that "bricklayers in twenty years have been able to pay off the public debt, or (which is the same) to increase the public wealth to that amount."

—There were three noteworthy educational events in Cleveland, Ohio, on Thursday of last week. Adelbert College, of Western Reserve University, was formally opened. Its name is significant. For many years Western Reserve College at Hudson, Ohio, has maintained a high position among all kindred institutions west of the Alleghanies. The Trustees have now removed the foundation from its rural site to an urban home, where two fine structures have been built by Mr. Amasa Stone in memory of his son Adelbert, who was drowned many years ago while a student in New Haven. The foundation, to which a medical school is already attached, will bear the name of Western Reserve University; and it is hoped that Adelbert College will prove to be the nucleus around which other educational establishments will be clustered, under a more complete university organization to be gradually developed. The nearest neighbor of Adelbert College will be the Case School of Science, which now occupies temporary quarters in the heart of the city, but will presently be removed to the fine site, at the eastern extremity of Euclid Avenue, given by the citizens of Cleveland to

the two kindred establishments. Just opposite this site is the Wade Park, a generous gift to the city from the gentleman whose name it bears. With these auspicious beginnings the citizens of Cleveland are not amiss in hoping ere long to see other magnificent gifts for such purposes as a library, a museum, an observatory, a laboratory, or a college for women. The outlook is one of the most promising in any part of the country. The opening ceremonies at Adelbert College included an address, on the "Dawn of a University," by President Gilman of the Johns Hopkins University, speeches in bestowing and accepting the gift by Mr. Stone, President Cutler, and ex-President Hayes, and after-dinner speeches by a large number of prominent men, chiefly from Cleveland and its neighborhood.

—In the afternoon of the same day, the Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund for the Education of Freedmen tendered the appointment of General Agent to Rev. Dr. Haygood, of Oxford, Georgia, who accepted it. He will at once begin to consider the methods for organizing the work intrusted to him, so as to mature a plan for the consideration of the Trustees when they meet in Atlanta next February or March. No income will be available for distribution until that time. As a basis for Dr. Haygood's plan, the Trustees have given him several suggestions looking toward the establishment of scholarships in existing institutions, which shall give instruction in manual arts as well as in mental training. Dr. Haygood impresses all who meet him as remarkably well qualified by character and disposition to deal with the great problem which he is called upon to investigate. Finally, on Thursday evening, before an immense assembly brought together by the American Missionary Association in the Tabernacle, the subject of national aid to public education was discussed in three admirable speeches—by ex-President Hayes, who reviewed the history of the various measures which have been brought forward in Congress, and presented the arguments from a statesman's point of view; by President A. D. White, who brought many historical illustrations to bear upon the problem, and incidentally proved the need of civil-service reform by showing how Congressmen were too busy with appointments, under existing circumstances, fairly to consider such a question as national preventives of ignorance; and, finally, by Dr. Curry, of Richmond, who appeared as the agent of the Peabody Trustees engaged in promoting Southern education through the operations of that fund.

—The three numbers of Memoirs of the Science Department of the University of Tokio (6, 7, 8) are among the most valuable as well as most interesting of the series. The "Report on the Meteorology of Tokio," and "The Wave-Lengths of some of the Principal Fraunhofer Lines of the Solar Spectrum," are by Professor T. C. Mendenhall, whose presence was noted at the Congress of Science at Montreal this summer. Since the birth of the science of spectroscopy, the length of a light-wave of given color has ranked among the most accurately determined physical constants; yet, as every student of spectroscopy is aware, these measurements (by Angström, Van der Willigen, and Mascart) differ very considerably, as is shown in Watts's Index of Spectra. The lack of agreement is so great—amounting in the case of some lines to two units—as to throw all the results seriously into doubt. The Tokio University having, early in 1880, received a spectrometer of unusual power and excellence of construction, the Professor of Physics spent the months of November and December, when unusually clear weather prevails in the Mikado's capital, in his researches. Employing the last refinements of the experimenter's art, and making due corrections, Professor Mendenhall secured results for eleven lines of the spectrum which accord very closely with Angström's, whose values have been held as the universally-recognized standard. The difference amounts in no case to a unit, whereas, in the case of other observers, the divergences amount to several units. In view of these facts, Professor Mendenhall's assertion is justified, "that any other wave-length measurements that differ widely or irregularly from these must be incorrect." It may be mentioned that Angström's splendid map of the spectrum, published in 1869, in which each characteristic ray is laid down according to its wave-length, contains about 800 lines. The laborious computation of eleven of these lines, yielding such closely agreeing results, strengthens the authority of Angström as well as adds to the reputation of the American investigator.

—Japanese weather appears to be far less fickle than common fame would lead us to suppose. By nearly all the apparatus known to the modern spy upon Nature, it has been scrutinized, interviewed, photographed, and reduced to diagrams. In addition to tables of barometer and thermometer readings, and charts of wind records, we have the force and direction of the moving air shown by loops or bags, which, despite their scientific surroundings, resemble closely the receptacle upon the back of Futen, the wind-imp or Boreas of native art. The rain-fall, humidity, the proportionate occurrence of wind and rain together, and the number of cloudy days are also depicted in the most suitable graphic designs, which the eye seizes at once. December is the finest month of the year, having the greatest number of clear days, and the rain or snow-fall being close to zero. January is nearly equal to December in fairness. The times of heavy rain are late in September, and in May or June. March is the month in which Futen is hardest at work, though, on October 4, wind reached a velocity of one hundred miles an hour. The column of mercury climbs highest in the thermometer in August, and in the barometer in February. Besides chapters on the local magnetism, and calculations of the height of Fuji-no-yama, the volume closes with an exhaustive essay on fires in Tokio, full of curious information, with a list of conflagrations since 1657. As even the capital city of the Mikado's Empire is built almost entirely of wood—until two decades ago having not one stone or brick house in it—the whole city is burned over twice in every century, and several of the most densely inhabited portions once in every seven years. These "flowers of Yedo" bloom very luxuriantly after earthquakes, which upset lamps and braziers, and attain their annual maximum in March, the month of high winds; so that a table of earthquakes and winds, and another of fires, make nearly parallel records. The abundant use of petroleum has of late years helped on the devastation. The average value of houses in Tokio is about $30 for every thirty-six square feet built upon, and, notwithstanding this cheapness of material, the absolute loss yearly to the citizens by fire is $3,000,000. Like the Americans, the Japanese prefer to pay a pound for prevention rather than apply an ounce of cure. Their building material is entirely from the lumber-yard. Their firemen, though brave, act without proper direction, and their apparatus is little better than a toy. Their only protection from the flames is heavy walled houses, which are nothing more than fire-proof safes set out on the street. These fire-proofs are made by plastering a foot of mud on heavy timber frames, and making the one door and very few windows of the shape and thickness of our ordinary office iron safes. On the approach of a fire, candles set in sockets are lighted to convert the air inside into carbonic-acid gas, in which no flame can live. The cracks of the shutters are smeared on the outside with mud, and the well-to-do shopkeeper sallies off to the lumber-yard to contract for new material before the wood-sawyers get up a strike, or the merchants a "corner" in building lumber. The recent introduction of brick as a material of construction may alter this state of things, which is, and has been for centuries, steadily draining the wealth of Japan.

—In the "Chemistry of Saké-Brewing," Professor R. W. Atkinson treats of the chemical history of the national beverage of the Japanese from the transmutation of the rice-grain into kōji or ferment until it becomes good beer —not "wine," as most tourists call it. Like almost all the arts of Japan, that of saké-brewing is referred to Corea. Perhaps we may say that it was not so much imported as brought over by a branch of the same race that anciently inhabited the peninsula and the archipelago alike. Saké is a clear, yellowish, unfoaming liquid, usually much stronger than common beer, which is drunk hot by the Japanese. To Westerners it has a more or less smoky taste, in which the raw alcohol does not appear properly covered up. Some varieties, however, are delicious, and others are sweetish. The saké receives various names which are more or less high-sounding. The native tapster, understanding well that the bouquet will be as fragrant, and the liquid taste inwardly better, by reason of quasi-medical names, wins over many an outwardly professing teetotaller and the Timothys of Tokio who crave a little wine for the stomach's sake. Without the aid of printer's ink, or the board-fence, he beats his American rival in advertising drams "strictly for medicinal purposes," and the plain brew of rice blooms on the shop signs as "Long-life-and-never-grow-old-Spirit," "Wine of a Thousand Years," "Tortoise-longevity Cordial." These tonics are warranted "to strengthen the body against the decay of old age, increase the energies, reform all trouble within the viscera, to smooth out wrinkles, and make the old face young again. The "Eye-openers," "Essence of Long Life," "Spirit of Violets," "Honeysuckle Nectar," and "Blood Purifier" are drunk in quantities which afford about one-fifth of the total revenue of the Government. Some idea of the industry of saké-brewing may be obtained by remembering that the total acreage of rice-fields in Japan in 1878 was 3,947,268 acres, yielding 138,964,000 bushels of rice, or, on an average, thirty-five bushels to the acre. Of this amount enough grain was taken to produce 206,756,409 gallons of rice-beer, which with license fees yielded in revenue 10,795,025 *yen* or dollars, the total estimated revenue of the Government being 56,616,907 *yen* or dollars. The annual consumption of saké is six gallons per head, reckoning the population at 33,000,000 souls; or, if diluted to the ordinary strength of English beer, the rate is twelve gallons per head. In England the rate of consumption of beer is thirty-four gallons per head. The difference is to be ascribed to the enormous consumption of tea in Japan, which serves at all times, in summer and in winter, as the most common beverage. The percentage of alcohol in ordinary saké is about twelve per cent. To preserve it in hot weather it must be heated repeatedly, and one purpose of Professor Atkinson's valuable monograph is to call the attention of Japanese brewers to improved European methods and machinery for abbreviating the tedious and expensive native process. We may add our hope that the Japanese Government may not, in consequence of its action in recently doubling the taxes on saké production, be troubled by the growth of "moonshiners"; and that the happy coöperation of workers in industrial and pure science illustrated in Professor Atkinson's me-

moir may continue, with increasing advantage to the sum total of existing knowledge.

—Theological literature has lost one of the most diligent workers in its field in the person of Johann Jakob Herzog, so widely known as the editor of the 'Realencyklopädie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche,' who died in Erlangen at the end of last month. He was born in Basel in 1805, studied at the university of his native city, and subsequently in Berlin, and in 1835 became Professor of Historical Theology at the Academy of Lausanne. Here he published, in 1843, a life of Œcolampadius, in two volumes. The religious strifes which in 1847 culminated in the war of the Swiss Sonderbund induced him to resign his professorship a year before the outbreak. He was shortly after appointed Professor at the University of Halle, and in 1851 was sent by the Prussian Government on a literary journey through western Europe, with the object of collecting materials for a history of the Waldenses, which he issued in 1853, under the title 'Die romanischen Waldenser.' In 1854 he became Professor at the University of Erlangen. In the same year he began the publication of the theological cyclopædia on which his fame rests. It was finished in 1868, in twenty-two large volumes, including a supplement. The coöperation of a vast number of scholars of eminent rank made it a work of high authority and great critical value, though the general tenor of its historical criticism was strongly affected by theological prepossessions. Herzog retired from the University in 1877, having previously begun a new edition of his cyclopædia, with the editorial assistance of Professor Plitt. On the death of the latter, Professor A. Hauck became associate editor. Of this edition ten volumes have appeared. Shortly before his death, Herzog completed his 'Abriss der gesammten Kirchengeschichte,' in three volumes.

—In John Arany (Arany János), whose death was announced a few days ago, Hungary has lost the last of her three favorite poets of the revolutionary era. The youngest and greatest of the three—the greatest, in fact, of all Magyar poets—Petöfi, born in the first hour of the year 1823, died as early as July 31, 1849, or at least disappeared on that day, on the battle-field of Schässburg in Transylvania, where the Hungarian army under Bem succumbed to the Russians. Tompa, born in 1819, died in 1868. Arany, the oldest, born in 1817, survived this rival fourteen years, and his unrivalled friend thirty-three years—"that genius," of whom he once sang that

> "He came and vanished, as the comets soar,
> But once seen by an age, and never more."

Arany died almost at the moment when the first national monument to Petöfi was unveiled at Buda-Pesth. The three poets were of a kindred spirit in life and song—patriotic, freedom-loving bards of nature; sentimental admirers of their country's plain; fanciful imitators of her folklore. Petöfi excelled chiefly in lyrics, Tompa in legends and fairy-tales, Arany in comic epics. Petöfi was the most original and most striking, Tompa the most feeling, Arany the most humorous. A peculiar national flavor distinguishes the verses of all the three; it is stronger in Tompa than in Petöfi, and surpassingly charming in Arany. None of them will ever be well translated; Arany's diction is perfectly inimitable. His fame will probably conventionally rest on his "Toldi" (an epic in twelve cantos, which won the prize of the Kisfaludy Society in 1847) and its complements, "Toldi estéje" ("Toldi's Evening," 1854) and "Toldi szerelme" ("Toldi's Love," 1880). The hero of the trilogy is a legendary Hungarian Samson, whom popular tradition vaguely connects with King Louis the Great in the fourteenth century, or King Matthias Corvinus in the fifteenth. The most prominent of the poet's other epics are "Nagyidai cigányok" ("The Gipsies of Nagy-Ida," 1852) and "Buda halála" ("Buda's Death," 1864). His minor poems are very numerous. He excelled also as a literary critic and editor, and as a translator, his translations including several plays of Shakspere. He became a member of the Hungarian Academy in 1858, and its Secretary in 1861.

—The spelling reformers may be pleased with the argument in their favor which is furnished by the continual mistakes of foreigners, even the most careful, in spelling extracts from English works. The *Bulletin Critique*, for instance, which revels in the mistakes of unlucky editors of Greek or Latin or early French texts, quotes from the *Athenæum* about Renan's 'Ecclesiastes,' "He accept nearly alle the emendations in the text proposed by prof. Graetz, and adde some of his own." And on the same page (v. iii., p. 158) it speaks of the 'Dictionary of Anonyms' of M. Halekt (Halkett). Petzholdt, in his *Neuer Anzeiger*, seldom quotes an English title without a misprint, mentioning, for example, "the *Bibliographer*, a journal of book-love," and citing from an English paper the fact that American libraries are "Boycolting English sensational fiction."

—Readers of 'Vingt ans après,' and of the 'Vicomte de Bragelonne,' may remember that the English of those entertaining works is far from being above reproach. And speaking generally, it is fair to say that only American auction catalogues equal the blunders of reputable foreign works. The last we have seen was from a place where errors might be expected, a Paris journal, which said that "*La France* a envoyé un de ses rédacteurs à Naples pour interwiewer M. de Lesseps." Perhaps it was thought in this case that the act—unknown twenty years ago in France—had become so thoroughly naturalized that it deserved a French orthography. How completely it has been adopted, so that in fact the pupils have far distanced the masters, was shown lately on occasion of Mlle. Feyghine's suicide on account of her desertion by the Duc de Morny. The reporter forced himself into the Duke's hôtel, in spite of the obstruction of the "concierge, homme poli mais glacial," and rewards the Duke for receiving him by describing him as having a "physionomie assez banale." Then he went to the Russian Church, where the second pope, who received him, is described as being in a most disorderly parlor, and having a dirty beard and, apparently, manners to correspond, for he declares that the doctor was right in calling Mlle. Feyghine mad—she must have been mad to kill herself for a De Morny: she ought to have spat in his face. Then he goes to the hôtel of Mlle. Feyghine, and thence to her teacher, M. Worms, of the Comédie-Française, who will not believe that she slew herself for love, since De Morny is "so insignificant." Finally, to leave no stone unturned, he "interwiews" the mistress of another duke, who may be supposed to know the rights of such matters, and here again the poor Duke comes off badly: "She might have become an artist, with study; as a woman she would have gained by losing the Duke." It is plain that in one branch of journalism the politest nation in Europe has nothing to learn from us.

MR. WILKINSON'S WEBSTER ODE.

Webster: An Ode. O nostrum et decus et columen. 1782–1852. Chas. Scribner's Sons.

He who fancies an ode to be a fountain of brilliant words, rising in symmetry and falling in spray, will hardly find what he expects in this sumptuous quarto volume. The ode on Webster has the somewhat rugged style that belonged to the verse of our revolutionary period, and rather suggests "Adams and Liberty" or the "Columbian Oracle" than an age of more smoothly-flowing strains. Indeed, these prolonged fifteen stanzas more resemble the heads of a discourse or the successive points of a lawyer's plea than any recognized poetic model.

This the author, indeed, frankly recognizes, for he honestly states that his object is truth, not poetry; that his work is "an attempt to revive a sentiment far gone toward being extinguished in the public mind" (p. 43); that, in short, he will be satisfied with nothing but a complete vindication of the public and private fame of Mr. Webster. "The attempt will not succeed," he admits, "and it ought not to, unless the accusations against the uprightness of Webster's character can be shown to be in the main unfounded" (p. 43). For this Mr. Wilkinson gives us forty pages of laborious rhyme; for this he adds more than eighty quarto pages of evidence, in small print, arranged with commendable fairness, and citing some of the severest criticism on Webster, as well as many statements in defence.

After all, it is a doubtful act of friendship. The maxim, "Qui s'excuse s'accuse," covers a man's friends as well as himself. No man feels prospective gratitude for the posthumous zeal of that admirer who shall celebrate his centennial by demonstrating that he did not rob a henroost or defraud his grandmother. There are charges which, whether true or false, can be best treated by ignoring them. Probably people think worse of Henry VIII., on the whole, than if Mr. Froude had not insisted on reopening the case and proving that he killed his successive wives from elevated motives. The defence has simply refreshed the world's memory of the charges. If this is true where sins are open and palpable, it is far more true of the personal foibles of a great man. The world is not so very severe, after all. If a man is an eminent lawyer, the members of "the profession" are not severe on his peccadilloes; if he has, being an eminent lawyer, spoken well of the Christian religion, the clergy are not disposed to unveil his infirmities. Mr. Wilkinson is an exception: more honest or more unkind than the rest, he calls attention to these alleged peccadilloes in order to maintain the proposition that they never existed. It is a questionable service.

On a man's centennial birthday, all charges against his private morals rest mainly on tradition. It is the most impalpable of all evidence, and therefore the most formidable. To admit that after a hundred years the belief in a man's undesirable habits is very general, so that respect for him in this direction is far gone toward being extinguished in the public mind, is to assert that the case is hopeless. The general conviction is made up, and the trouble is that, by the very nature of the case, there is no new evidence to introduce for the defence. What is called new evidence is merely negative testimony—the assertion of some one that he personally never saw the defendant do anything out of the way. But such testimony is powerless to reverse a popular verdict, when that verdict has simply registered the unwritten consensus of opinion among a man's own contemporaries.

It is easy to illustrate. It is almost the universal impression among those who have ever heard of Aaron Burr or Thomas Paine that the former was licentious and the latter intemperate; yet it may be safely asserted that there is not a person on earth who can prove either fact by his direct testimony. The grave covers

every mistress of the one, every boon companion of the other. Does that protect their memory? Unfortunately, it is fatal to it. The lapse of time, annihilating all possibility of rebutting evidence, leaves the popular impression in full force—an impression formed while the facts were accessible, and irrevocable now that they are beyond reach. The same is true, though perhaps in a less conspicuous degree, in the case of Mr. Webster. If there is a difference, it is to his disadvantage in this respect, that evidence is even now occasionally appearing against him—as in the letters of M. Bacourt, noticed in our very last number—which must count for more in the public mind than any number of eager disclaimers by admiring clergymen.

To show how frankly Mr. Wilkinson states the verdict he tries to reverse, we quote the following:

"More to abhor, abhorrent more to truth,
Lies foully fit to that soft, social heart
And genial warmth of vital temperament,
The tales they forge of reason, conscience, will—
That reason, and that conscience, and that will!—
Through sensual appetite sold into shame:
Shame that had been a tragedy of shame!
And shame that should, for me, abide not hid,
Full shown, a blot of contrast boldly black,
Against the clear, large splendor of his fame.

"Still, mother State, and though the hideous lie
Were hideous truth, still I would plead forgive—
Blame, but forgive, nor cast the shadow wide,
Making it one eclipse to darken all.

"But pity and forgiveness proudly spare!
Simple and pure, though faultless not, yet pure
Even to the end thy grave, great son remained" (p. 29).

In these last seven lines are condensed the difference between the attitude of an impartial posterity and that which Mr. Wilkinson would maintain. The existing generation has grown up in the belief, transmitted from the previous generation, that Mr. Webster, with all his magnificent gifts, had certain personal weaknesses. It is already willing—perhaps more than willing—to condone these faults in consideration of his personal services; but when Mr. Wilkinson insists on a posthumous verdict of acquittal, he asks what cannot now be obtained, and his asking it only calls attention anew to what was slowly fading from the public mind.

He is but little more fortunate when he comes to consider Mr. Webster's seventh of March speech. There again the public mind, ever since the Civil War, has been more and more ready to condone the offence in view of the great previous services of Mr. Webster in maintaining the Union sentiment. That the public mind held it as an offence is proved by another admission of Mr. Wilkinson's, where he says: "There have been two verdicts—the verdict of the few in his favor, and a verdict of the many against him. It is the verdict of the many against him concerning which I raise the question whether it should not be revised and reversed" (page 81). He then, after this very damaging admission, attempts this task as frankly as the other, reprinting for the purpose a paper by himself which appeared in *Scribner's Monthly* for July, 1876.

Mr. Wilkinson has here to attempt a feat harder than his previous one, because it includes a reversal of judgment not alone on Mr. Webster, but on all his associates at the so-called "compromise period." He includes avowedly such public men as Mr. Clay (page 98), and by implication such Northern divines as Rev. Moses Stuart (page 65). If Webster was right in his seventh of March speech, they were all right; and Mr. Wilkinson does not shrink from the alternative. His whole position may be reduced to this: that the compromises so much condemned by the anti-slavery press were in reality a benefit to the nation, by staving off the Civil War till the nation was ready for it, and was prepared to end it by making an end of slavery, which could not earlier have been the case.

We hold the position to be utterly untenable. Granting all you please about Webster's antecedent services to the Union, the fact remains that he and his fellow-compromisers, so far as they had influence, weakened instead of strengthening the moral sentiment without which slavery never would have been abolished. They postponed the battle; but they demoralized the forces. President Lincoln's anti-slavery proclamation was issued and enforced in spite of their influence, not by reason of it. The proof of this is that, as a rule, the men who had sustained Webster and the Fugitive Slave Law were found in bitter opposition to that proclamation; while the President's hands were held up by the public sentiment which had revolted against Webster. The "ten years gained," over which Mr. Wilkinson and others have exulted, would have been ten years lost but for the growth of the anti-slavery sentiment in spite of the great compromisers. Had their teachings had the weight they desired, there would have been no Proclamation of Emancipation at all. Undoubtedly the earlier labors of Mr. Webster in behalf of the sentiment of union in the nation were a great source of strength to it in carrying through the war. This is a fact which his sternest opponents have lived to recognize. But when any one goes beyond this, and tries to show that the seventh of March speech was a source of anything but aid and comfort to the Slave Power, he contradicts the common sense of the community. The Webster who helped us in the hour of conflict was not the Webster of the compromises, but of the reply to Hayne. Those who looked for later inspiration had to look quite another way. What did the "Webster Regiment" itself sing, as it marched through Boston to the front? The seventh of March speech set to music? Not at all; it sang the "John Brown Song."

OLD TROY AND NEW ILIUM.

Troia und Neu-Ilion. Von Dr. E. Brentano. Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger. 1882.

Dr. Brentano, the same scholar, if we mistake not, who gave to the world a few years since some flighty speculations about the tradition of the comedies of Aristophanes, has published two lectures on the interminable question of Hissarlik, under the title of 'Troia und Neu-Ilion.' He has been for several years a determined opponent of the Schliemann theory, and this pamphlet is intended to present in a convenient form the literary and historical evidence that has come down to us about the Homeric and the Greek city. Bunarbashi Dr. Brentano considers out of the question, the so-called village of the Ilians in the valley of the Dumbrek being the only site that finds favor in his eyes. Nor is his confidence shaken by the recent excavations, which have only served to show the worthlessness of former conclusions, once eagerly accepted and hotly advocated. The diminutive size of Schliemann's first Ilios puzzled many persons of a sceptical turn, but it will be remembered how gallantly Mr. Gladstone came to the rescue by asserting that Homer never called Troy "broad-streeted"—a most convincing and ingenious observation, which, unfortunately, candor compelled him to withdraw almost as soon as made. But even though this difficulty be overcome and a more capacious city be unearthed, Dr. Brentano contends that spade and mattock are naught without historical evidence, and his lectures give us a clear and interesting summary of the documents. He has made use of Mr. Jebb's article in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, and is naturally delighted to have such good company in his admiration of Demetrius of Skepsis, about whom so much of the controversy revolves.

The first lecture treats of the Homeric, the second of the Greek Ilium. The site of the Homeric Ilium was familiar to the poet in all its topographical details. The city itself had vanished in the time of Homer; the walls and palaces existed only in his imagination, but the poet of the "Iliad" knew every foot of the ground, and Virchow's testimony is cited to show that Homer's description of the surroundings of Troy cannot have been mere theatrical scenery. Dr. Brentano thinks that such a view does not postulate the historical character of the Trojan war, but it is certainly worth noticing that since Schliemann's explorations the solar hypothesis has been growing fainter and fainter. That Troy was utterly destroyed in fulfilment of the prophecy of Hector—destroyed in sheer literalness, not one stone left on another, razed, ploughed under, and done away with—was the general belief of antiquity. So the tragic poets, so that careful literary gentleman, the orator Lycurgus, so Plato, so Isocrates. According to Demetrius of Skepsis, an antiquarian who flourished in the second half of the second century B. C., there was but one author who maintained the identity of this Homeric Ilion and the Greek Ilion, and this author was Hellanicus, an easy-going and obliging chronicler, who is said to have advocated the identity from a desire to curry favor with the inhabitants of the Greek Ilium, who were exceedingly proud of the identification and made abundant capital of it. Of course Schliemann and his following have done all they could to blast the reputation of Demetrius. Skepsis was in the neighborhood of Ilium, and Demetrius's criticism is attributed to mere local envy. Dr. Brentano, who considers Demetrius a great authority on his side, has much to say about his competency and honesty, and goes off into a long discourse on the Scamander and the Simois, which he identifies respectively with Menderes and Dumbrek. Both parties to the controversy cite Dion Chrysostomos. Dion's eleventh "oration" is nothing but an elaborate sophistic reversal of the tale of Troy—an anticipation of such mock reconstructions of history as Archbishop Whately's 'Historic Doubts'—and the persiflage of the claims of the Ilians does not enter into the argument at all. Dr. Brentano has no more right to cite him than Schliemann has; no more right to cite him than he has to spell his name *Chrysosthomos*, as he does persistently.

In the second lecture the fortunes and pretensions of the Greek Ilium are followed, and the importance of the place traced to the Palladium, which the priestess of Athena Ilias identified with the Trojan Palladium. The respect paid to the Greek city, the sacrifices offered by Xerxes, by the Spartan general Mindarus, by Alexander the Great, may be accounted for in this way without assuming the identification. New Ilium was on Trojan territory, and had been its religious centre even though it was not the sacred city of Troy itself. In summing up his argument, Dr. Brentano refuses to believe—and small blame to him—in the seven cities heaped one on the other in a space 100 metres broad and 76 metres deep; nor will he admit that non-Hellenic means necessarily pre-Hellenic. The primitive pottery of the barbarians might easily have been contemporaneous with the finer ceramics of the Greek inhabitants. Any German village would present the same conditions, and it might be added that an American town would show a still wilder confusion of styles. A landslide that should bury a resort of summer boarders in America would preserve for the future Schliemanns a jumble of styles which would make the problems of Hissarlik contemptibly easy in comparison.

Like all other antagonists of Schliemann, Dr. Brentano feels that he is in danger of incurring grave censure, as if dissent from Schliemann's views were an insult to the character of a man

whose energy and liberality have been crowned with brilliant success and rewarded with abundant honor. That is a German way of looking at things. We may acknowledge that we owe all that has been revealed by Schliemann's efforts to his vision of the buried world of Troy, and that all controversy must redound in one form or another to his praise. But the great explorer himself will hardly be satisfied with anything short of absolute coincidence. We must be prepared to follow him in all his speculations. It is not enough that we believe in the mask of Agamemnon, we must put our faith in the sty of Eumæus.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—I.

Mr. Geo. Cary Eggleston prefaces his book, 'Wreck of the Red Bird' (Putnams), with a dedication. The opportunity is one of which an indiscreet person might avail himself to become painfully effusive. Mr. Eggleston escapes this peril, and gives expression to his grief in a manner which cannot fail to secure for him the respect and sympathy of his readers. He has to tell of three lads, on the coast of South Carolina, who embark, for a brief excursion to a neighboring island, in a small boat. Although they arrive safely at their destination, and land their provisions, they shortly after meet with misfortune in the partial wreck of their craft. Deprived of means to return to the mainland, they set bravely to work to rebuild their little vessel; and while thus engaged they meet with a variety of adventures. The story is an interesting one, and has a peculiar attractiveness from the *mise-en-scène* among the Sea Islands.

'Off to the Wilds' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is an account of the doings of an Englishman and his two sons in the southern portions of Africa. Certain domestic complications, which will be found fully explained in the text, supply the *raison d'être* of the expedition. Mr. Rogers, for such is the name of the father, his two sons, a Zulu and his two boys, compose the expeditionary force. After a complete and careful outfit they leave civilization behind them, and enter the wilds of Africa. All the adventures and dangers of which the country is capable are encountered, and successfully overcome, and our explorers return to their homes vastly improved in health and spirits. Mr. Manville Fenn is a writer of experience, and has thoroughly saturated himself with the narratives of explorers of the "dark Continent"; consequently he tells his story fluently and with a verisimilitude which will impose pleasantly upon the most sceptical. It is, indeed, an excellent piece of work.

'Red Cloud, the Solitary Sioux,' by Lieut.-Col. Butler (Roberts Bros.), is an impossible Indian story, reminding one of a mixture of the 'Swiss Family Robinson' and a mild Jules Verne. An English lad, reared in Ireland until he is seventeen, immediately passes into the Saskatchewan country and falls in with an educated savage, who conducts him through a series of astonishing adventures, and bestows upon him a fortune in native gold—all within a year. The scenery follows nature, but the men and their situations are factitious as well as fictitious. But the plot is exciting, and the various thrilling escapes are ingenious to the last degree. Still, no American boy—certainly none above the age of twelve and the grade of a dime-novel reader—is likely to lose his head over such a romance, and wildly dash into the Northwest on such an expedition; and we suppose the English lads for whom it is specially written will also judiciously stay at home. In view of the well-known chief of that name, the title 'Red Cloud' is misleading; and no self-respecting Dakota will accept the nick-name "Sioux," as the hero persistently calls himself.

Mr. William O. Stoddard's 'The Talking Leaves' (Harpers), on the other hand, is a capital Indian story of Arizona, any incident of which might be true; and the whole bears evidence of local color studied on the spot. The author and the artist combine to furnish the Apaches with rather more clothing than the customs of the country warrant, and with a higher style of tepee. But a blemish in favor of decency is pardonable, and it is balanced by the fidelity to nature of the horses, which usually so sorely tempt the artist to transform them into thoroughbreds or monstrosities. There are fights and escapes enough to satisfy the most exacting youngster, but the combination is not impossible. There is a sprinkling of sarcastic comment which the brighter boys will appreciate and which the duller ones will not be the worse for. The action is rapid and natural, and the story thrilling, yet not likely to upset the imagination. The book is a good one for boys to read, and they can't help liking it.

The same author's 'Saltillo Boys' (Scribner) is a pleasant story, the scene of which is laid in a town in central New York thirty years ago. The boys described are from thirteen to sixteen years old, and belong to a school in which the master endeavors to impress the value of self-government upon his pupils. This lesson is fairly well brought out in the various incidents given of life in and out of school. The only instance in which it seems to us the author fails to leave a right impression is in his description of a cock-fight, where the interest in the victory of the boy's bird is rather stronger than the rebuke for "so cruel and brutal an amusement." Mr. Stoddard, in our opinion, would have been still more successful in his endeavor to teach his young readers true manliness had he adopted a different style in the narrative portions of his story. We do not find fault with his endeavor to represent the boys' talk to the eye by clipping words and running them together, though such realism is not to our taste and after a time becomes wearisome. But his narrative frequently reads like his boys' talk, and here, we think, he makes a mistake in art. There should run through a book which aims to enforce a moral the quiet and dignified tone and style which a master would have in school. This the author fails to give, though there are passages which show that his failure was not from lack of power, but from a mistaken desire to be always bright and interesting. With these reservations we can heartily recommend 'Saltillo Boys' as a thoroughly good book.

Of Mr. Towle's 'Drake, the Sea-King of Devon' (Lee & Shepard) it would be enough to say that it is one of the best, certainly one of the most interesting, of the excellent series ("Heroes of History") to which it belongs. As, however, it is announced that this work completes the series, we may say a word upon one or two features in which we could wish the author had followed a different plan. In the first place, the title is a misnomer: many of the subjects are true heroes—all of them may be so regarded from some point of view—but all are travellers and discoverers. A title should have been chosen which really described them in this distinctive character. In the next place, the illustrations are not of the kind that we like; they are, without exception, "made up," and some of them made up very badly: what in the world are the three truculent individuals standing for their portraits in the foreground of the picture opposite page 44 supposed to be doing? We ought at least to have a portrait of the hero of each volume. In the next place, the form in which the story is cast—neither a history nor a romance—is one in which it is difficult to maintain the balance between fiction and truth. The adventures here narrated are no doubt true; the conversations are probably fictitious; where is the line drawn between them? To illustrate what we mean: the adventures of Drake on the Spanish main form, we believe, the foundation in facts of the fascinating adventures of Sir Amyas Leigh in fiction. But the story of Sir Amyas Leigh does not profess to be anything but fiction, and we read it as comfortably as we should a novel of the present day. But in the book before us we are all the time tormented by a suspicion that this or that picturesque incident is the creation of the author. No doubt the boy reads and enjoys the whole without any such disquietude, but we do not know that this helps the matter. He is not merely enjoying himself—he is learning what may after all turn out to be false. We would not be understood as disparaging Mr. Towle's books, but rather as criticising the class of books of which they are among the best examples. He has avoided the faults indicated as much as could be expected, and has produced a set of books which ought to be in every library for the young.

There is hardly one of the familiar sports and amusements of boys twelve years and upward of age that is not described and explained in Mr. D. C. Beard's 'What to Do, and How to Do It: The American Boy's Handy-book' (Scribner). These and many which are unfamiliar are noticed under the headings of the season to which they are most appropriate. There is a long chapter on kites which might instruct even the Chinese; and one on "Knots, Bends, and Hitches," which, with that on the "Rigging and Sailing of Small Boats," forms the best two in the book. That on "How to Camp Without a Tent" has a good many useful hints, but, as some of the other chapters do, assumes an almost preternatural skill on the part of the boys in the use of tools, and a stock of industry such as few of them have. The chapters on fishing are not good: they describe various novel contrivances, but say nothing of the habits of fish or the best methods of catching them. The chapter on "Trapping" had better have been omitted: boys can find enough ways of destroying small and game-birds without learning how to make and use the numerous snares and springes Mr. Beard writes of. There is an excellent chapter on taxidermy for boys, and one on sleighs and snow-shoes; and the book concludes with a list of indoor amusements for winter. On the whole, it is a good book for boys—the best we have yet seen here of its kind. The printing and illustrations are capital.

Mr. Horace Scudder, in his loyalty to the "Bodley Family," follows them down even to 'The Bodley Grandchildren, and their Journey in Holland' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This is a clever account of the relation of Holland to old New York, and to the Dutch episode of the wanderings of the Pilgrim Fathers—interwoven with a description of Holland at the present day. It is interesting in the first aspect, and graphic and accurate in the last—a good picture of modern Dutch life as it appears to New York children. It would not have been an ungraceful act for the publishers to credit Waring's 'A Farmer's Vacation' with some twenty of the better illustrations of the book, which are here inserted as belonging to the text.

Olive Thorne Miller has, in several acceptable books for the young, already betrayed an unusual gift for interesting this class of readers. Equal skill in method and in style marks her 'Little People of Asia' (Dutton & Co.), which takes account of the "salted baby" of Turkey, the Tartar "buttered baby," the Siamese "dyed baby," the Japanese "happiest of all" baby,

etc. It has cost much research, and called for judgment and accuracy in compilation. While bestowing attention principally on the little folk, of course it incidentally conveys much information concerning their parents. Children of eight or nine and upward will be charmed by it. The illustrations are numerous.

Life of Edwin H. Chapin, D.D. By Sumner Ellis, D.D. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 1882. Pp. 332.

NEITHER the place nor date of Dr. Chapin's birth is given by his biographer, apparently from inability to fix on either, though the year 1816 is inferrible from a statement on page 39. The father, a most unstable character, was a strolling portrait painter, whose migratory habit made a matrimonial alliance with a member of the famous Bedouin family, the Hubbells, very natural and appropriate. Dr. Ellis insists that their issue owed much to his Hubbell lineage; but except the lot of a wanderer for the first half of his life, the heredity on this side is rather obscure. The only instructor who had any influence on his character and career, Mr. James Ballard, head of the academy at Bennington, was a relative on the mother's side, and is said to have been "an ardent lover of eloquence; and the more impassioned it was, the better it pleased him. It was no gentle breeze, but a whirlwind, of oratory that he admired and sought in his models and his pupils." Young Chapin, just arrived from the spouting Siddonian Club in Boston, and almost stage-struck, was at once taken in hand as a promising apprentice in the art of declamation.

This was his chief equipment when, in 1836, he went to Troy and began the study of law. It is admitted that he had no legal aptitude whatever, lacking the necessary application. Yet the discipline, such as it was (for it lasted but a few months, and was not even continuous), was all he had before he began preaching in Universalist pulpits in the space of less than two years after leaving the academy. He was a convert to Universalism, but he cared so little for it as a dogma that throughout his clerical service he abstained from enforcing it in his sermons. It is true, as he frankly admitted to his first congregation, that he did not "see it so clearly revealed in the Bible" as to "feel justified in pronouncing it a plain, unequivocal doctrine of the Gospel." But his further reason for having "dwelt but little upon the points of doctrine," viz., that, more than for sects and parties, he preferred to labor "for spiritual advancement, for moral and intellectual progress," would have permitted him to occupy a Calvinist pulpit.

Such a preference proved no obstacle to his preaching in a slave State like Virginia, at its capital, from which he had accepted his first call. He went to Richmond in May, 1838, and remained without mental or bodily discomfort till 1840, when a congregation in Charlestown, Mass., persuaded him to succeed the father of Starr King. Dr. Ellis gives a chapter to Chapin the Reformer. It is not long, and it might have been as brief as the chapter on snakes in Iceland. There were no reformers south of Mason and Dixon's line in 1838. Dr. Chapin, we may well believe, was always humane and sympathetic, but it never cost him the least effort to be silent on the subject of slavery while on slave soil. Consider, for example, the capacity of an address in a slave city (it was to the Odd-Fellows of Baltimore, in 1845), on "The Practical Recognition of Human Brotherhood the Great Want of Society," and then reflect that no notice could possibly be taken then and there of the greatest of all violations of human brotherhood staring the orator in the face and claiming reverence as a sacred institution. The mere selection of such a topic was a travesty on reform. Dr. Chapin's subsequent participation, in his fashion, in the anti-slavery, the temperance, and other causes proves nothing. They were so many fields for his elocution, but there is not the slightest evidence that he would ever have taken the initiative in an unpopular movement. On the other hand, it is notorious that the leading members of his congregation in New York were hostile to the Abolitionists and even to the War for the Union. He did not budge when pew-doors were slammed by departing occupants, but it was not exactly a reformer who retorted: "*I shall not go out of my way to seek these topics*, but when they are fairly before me I shall not turn aside to avoid them, though your pew-doors should clap to like platoons of musketry." What characterizes the reformer is, that he lugs in his topics.

The candor of Dr. Ellis checks at every point his overestimate of Dr. Chapin. He styles him, in the preface, "this truly great man and almost peerless orator," and then supplies the reader with data for forming a quite different opinion of him. That his greatness was inseparable from his oratory, we presume his admirers would be the first to admit. Now, of this Dr. Ellis gives not more than three or four samples; but here is one, spoken at the close of the Crimean War, of which he says: "With many strokes of thought and rhetoric equally pertinent and overpowering, he [Dr. Chapin] moved through his half-hour of eloquence":

"I love to hear the rumbling of the steam-power press better than the rattle and roar of artillery. It is silently attacking and vanquishing the Malakoffs of vice and the Redans of evil, and its approaches cannot be resisted. I like the click of the type in the composing-stick better than the click of the musket in the hand of the soldier. It bears a leaden messenger of deadlier power, of sublimer force, and a surer aim, which will hit its mark, though it is a thousand years ahead."

This passage is really only a metaphor, with hardly a trace of "thought" in it, and, while "pertinent," is very far from being "overpowering." Dr. Ellis thinks "it was a significant witness of Dr. Chapin's triumphant eloquence, that those who were wont to hear him generally regarded his last effort as his greatest. Their latest tumult of emotion made it quite impossible for them to exercise a rational remembrance." Judgments formed under such circumstances were apt to be very much tempered when an opportunity for reflection presented itself. Dr. Ellis intimates that Dr. Chapin's sermons were dull reading. They do not, whether in manuscript or in print, "disclose to the reader many of the looked-for passages by which he wrought overwhelming effects in delivery." And again:

"So great and perfect was his command of his muscles and vocal powers and passions that, if he saw fit, he could make a thrilling climax of a platitude, electrify and awe his hearers with a commonplace, make a molehill play the part of a mountain, with its crags and caverns and clouds; and the reader of one of his printed sermons would hardly be able to tell where, in the preaching of it, if it were preached in his mid-years, he swept his audience into breathless moods of wonder and rapture. In fact, he did it very much at his pleasure."

Naturally, his pleasure was to "do it" when his ideas were scantiest:

"The subtle mind of Starr King, his youthful parishioner, detected at a glance, as his eloquent young pastor entered the pulpit, the order of oratory which was about to be displayed. If Chapin came with poor outfit for the service, he dashed into the pulpit with a sort of frenzy (as King noticed), rushed from seat to desk, and desk to seat, worked his body into a fever and sweat, gave his arms to a wildness of gesture, and pressed his voice to an uproar."

When to the foregoing we add Dr. Ellis's very plain account of Chapin's mode of composing (he very seldom finished writing out his sermons), of patching together old and new, of ringing the changes on his "gems," we have a very fair measure of the preacher's mental powers. A little light still remains to be thrown upon them. It is well known that Dr. Chapin was a bibliophile, who amassed in the course of forty years a library of 10,000 volumes, and was an incessant reader of books. Yet, says Dr. Ellis, "he rarely made a reference, and more rarely a quotation, which indicated the range of his reading." And the more he read the less he yielded back. "In his earlier years he was much more given to reflecting his wealth of literary treasures than later in life. His first and last book reveal a marked contrast in this respect—not that the former is at all pedantic, but that the latter is strangely exempt from all echoes and glimpses of the great authors." In short, making every allowance for Dr. Chapin's good taste in refraining from incoherent embellishments which betray the lack of originality and of independent thinking, we must conclude that he was one of the *gens qui ont besoin de beaucoup lire et peu méditer*.

Dr. Chapin's success as a lecturer was as great as that as a preacher, and perhaps more remunerative. One lecture, on "Orders of Nobility," is estimated, from the recorded repetitions of it, to have netted him twenty thousand dollars. Among the exceptional rewards of literary labor this might rank very near the front. Chapin's popularity had much to do with swelling the class of high-priced declaimers who filled our lyceums before the war and brought the lecture system into contempt and decay. We fear that Dr. Ellis's eulogistic biography, despite its candor, will tend to encourage untrained and empty oratory.

The March to the Sea. Franklin and Nashville. By Jacob D. Cox, LL.D., Late Major-General Commanding Twenty-third Army Corps. [Campaigns of the Civil War.—X.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

IN this volume, the sequel to 'Atlanta,' General Cox has given us a concise but clear narrative of Thomas's defence of Tennessee against Hood in the fall of 1864, and of Sherman's "March to the Sea" and his subsequent campaign in the Carolinas down to the close of the war. His book is, indeed, a comprehensive sketch of those military operations in Sherman's department, during the last six months of the war, which brought speedy and complete disaster to the Confederate cause. The story is simply told: the situation after the fall of Atlanta is clearly set forth; the difficulties and perplexities which beset Sherman when he found Hood moving against his communications are, perhaps, too much elaborated; the well-devised plans of the Federal general for marching to the Georgia coast with the greater part of his army, while he provided for Thomas, in his rear, a force sufficient to overwhelm Hood, are clearly described. The operations of Schofield and Thomas in Tennessee, where the main interest of the campaign centred (for Sherman met with no serious opposition), are carefully and fully narrated. The picture of Thomas—his modesty in accepting command, his slowness in concentrating his forces, his hesitation in attacking Hood, even with greatly superior numbers, his stubborn tenacity when attacked, and his overpowering assault, at last, at Nashville, when driven to it by his superiors—is well drawn.

The absorbing interest of this campaign grows out of the influence it exercised on the fate of

the Confederacy. General Cox speaks of the difficulties which surrounded Sherman after the fall of Atlanta, and gives him credit for boldness in attempting the march to Savannah. Still, if Sherman's position at the head of 60,000 victorious troops, with 50,000 others gathering under Thomas to protect his rear, had difficulties, how small must they have been compared with those of Hood, who, with 40,000 defeated men and a country too exhausted to reinforce him, had to decide how to make headway against the large armies that threatened soon to close round him! The Confederate Government was at this time sorely straitened. It held its capital, against a great host, only by the veteran courage of a dwindling army and the consummate skill of its commander. From every quarter came the cry for reinforcements, while there were none to give. The utmost efforts of the Confederacy did not suffice to maintain the numbers already in the field. It seemed to the Richmond authorities that only by audacity, energy, and skill could the immense preponderance of force against them be neutralized. It was because Johnston's cautious policy seemed to them to promise nothing but certain, if slow, strangulation, that he had been removed and Hood substituted. The latter's efforts to save Atlanta had been failures, but active and aggressive operations still appeared, both to the Confederate general and to his superiors, the only course that promised any relief. The risks to be incurred were, of course, immense, but similar audacity had more than once in Virginia rolled back the tide of war from the James and the Rappahannock, to the Potomac. Hence Hood's plan to transfer his army to Sherman's rear, attack his long line of communications, break up his depots, regain possession of the State of Tennessee, and thus force Sherman to leave Georgia, was approved.

While Hood's plan must rest for its justification largely on the straits to which he was reduced, General Cox's narrative shows that it was feasible, and that had it been executed with an energy and skill equal to the boldness of its conception, it would, in all probability, have accomplished the object intended. Hood started on his campaign about the 1st of October, and after doing much damage in Sherman's rear, and drawing the main body of the Federal army as far as Rome and Kingston after him, reached the Tennessee River and secured a crossing by November 1. Now it was that Hood lost his chance of success by delay. Early in November Schofield's corps was sent back, by Sherman, to aid Thomas, who with that and the Fourth corps had, even before the troops ordered to him from Missouri arrived, an army of over 54,000 men with which to oppose Hood. Feeling now that Thomas would be strong enough to take care of Hood, Sherman, in those same early days of November, turned back from following him, and, concentrating his forces at Atlanta, set out about the middle of the month, with 62,000 men, on his march toward Savannah. Those first two weeks in November were priceless to Hood. Thomas's troops were not ready to oppose him early in November. Sherman was moving back toward Atlanta, but was not yet fully committed to his seaward march. Had Hood crossed the Tennessee and pushed boldly northward, by forced marches, he would have passed over more than half the distance to Nashville without opposition, and by falling upon such of Thomas's gathering forces as were in his path, might have gained important advantages, and reached Nashville before the enemy could have concentrated sufficiently to prevent it. This sudden and formidable irruption into the heart of Tennessee would have produced the recall of Sherman, to whose plan Grant and Lincoln had given only a hesitating approval. Hood charges his delay to the difficulty of obtaining supplies, and there can be no doubt that his trials on that score were severe enough. But this was a case when the utmost celerity was *indispensable*. Such difficulties as Hood met with might properly have prevented his undertaking the campaign at all. Once embarked on it, however, in a friendly country, with Forrest's large body of cavalry under his control to prevent interference with his foragers, the question of supplies should not have cost him three days, much less three weeks.

Hood finally moved north from Florence on November 20. Schofield fell back to Columbia, which position he was compelled to abandon by Hood, who crossed the river on his flanks and struck at Spring Hill in his rear. Here again Hood's movement, which had been boldly and skilfully managed, lost vigor at the critical moment, and the Federal army was permitted to retreat during the night, without material loss, in sight of the Confederate campfires. The errors of that day were atoned for in blood, at Franklin, on the next. Having permitted the Federals to gather a good force in his front, and, after dislodging this force from Columbia, having permitted it to reach Franklin in safety, Hood unwisely attacked Schofield at the latter place in a strong position, only to meet with fearful losses. Schofield retreated during the night so that he might unite with the other portions of Thomas's forces in front of Nashville, but he had struck Hood a terrible blow before doing it, and bore off all the real advantages of the combat.

The part of Hood's campaign most open to criticism now follows. After the heavy losses at Franklin, Hood could not muster 30,000 men present for duty, exclusive of Forrest's cavalry, and yet he advanced toward Nashville, where Thomas's forces were now swelled to nearly 70,000 men. He remained in the latter's front until attacked by the Federal commander on December 15, when he was defeated and driven southward. Hood's advance after Franklin is indefensible. General Cox does not hesitate to criticise Thomas's slowness in attacking Hood, and to admit that, notwithstanding his immense superiority of force, he had to be finally goaded to it by the Federal Administration. It is impossible to deny that the means under Thomas's control after the middle of November were sufficient, if used with energy and skill, to have stopped Hood far short of the heart of Tennessee.

Sherman's march to Savannah, and thence through the Carolinas, was that of a triumphant army to whose progress the Confederates could oppose but a few thousand men of fragmentary commands. The resistance was too feeble to constitute any serious obstacle to Sherman. Of the excesses of his army on this march General Cox speaks in a lenient tone, or in one of (at most) mild disapproval.

In the statement of comparative numbers, General Cox uniformly uses the "Present for duty" on the returns as giving the Federal strength, but declines to take the same columns on the Confederate returns for the same purpose. He uses the Confederate "Present" instead (which included all of the sick, extra-duty men, and those in arrest), under an erroneous impression that the extra-duty men were such as would go into ranks in a fight. As the Confederate conscription placed everybody in military service, all teamsters, etc., had to be detailed, and such constituted in large part the "extra-duty" men on the returns. This error is the more to be regretted because of the fairness of tone and general accuracy of statement which characterize this valuable contribution to the history of the war.

The Growth of English Industry and Commerce. By W. Cunningham, M.A., late Deputy to the Knightsbridge Professor in the University of Cambridge. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1882.

Mr. Cunningham has undertaken to produce one of the most important desiderata of political economy—a succinct, comprehensive, and judicious summary of the development of English commerce and industry. He has performed the task, in many respects, with great success. In his first chapters he treats of a great many disputed points, about which authorities would not agree that his statements are correct; but he has acted in such matters with good judgment, and he deserves the confidence of the class of readers for which he writes. It is hardly to be expected that his book will have any great effect on those people who are fitted out with a few stupid commonplaces about the industrial history of England. Of course, the current commonplaces are the widest possible generalizations. Mr. Cunningham does not deal in generalizations of that character; he offers the material by which a careful reader may correct errors. Experience proves, however, that people are very slow to avail themselves of such means of correcting old false notions.

Mr. Cunningham is disappointing when it comes to the critical observation of the forces at work in the history which he presents. There is great need that the history of the first industrial nation in the world should be critically analyzed by a strong and highly-trained scholar, who could give to the forces in it their due proportion, and could firmly repress the pet notions of our time. For instance, the history of the fourteenth century and the effects of the reduction of population by the Black Death, all of which are well described by our author, are rich in instruction for the student of social arrangements in regard to labor and land. How can it be affirmed, as Mr. Cunningham affirms (pp. 391, 392), that capital always has the advantage over labor, when the case referred to distinctly proves that no general assertion of that kind will hold? The condition of things in the United States at the present time is another clear instance to prove that the relations of labor and capital depend on the relations of supply and demand, and that sometimes one and sometimes the other has the advantage.

Mr. Cunningham very judiciously sets aside the question whether laborers are better off now than formerly, but he does not do this until he has given some attention to that question. He cannot find a standard of comparison, since indeed there is none. There is only one form in which the question could be put to give it any sense, and that is this: If any person now living, who has no capital, could understand the position and mode of life of a man similarly situated, who lived in the fourteenth century, would he envy the latter? It cannot be believed that he would do so. Yet there are readers of Cunningham and Thorold Rogers who have noted the comparative changes in prices and rates of wages, and have spoken as if the contrary were true. In all such speculations it is assumed that the "laborer" is a person having a fixed definition, and that "the laboring class" has been a closed caste which has been perpetuated without changing its social boundaries. There could be no more false assumption. Nearly all the middle capitalist class of England, and nearly all the population of the United States, have been produced out of those who were destitute of land and capital five centuries ago. Therefore, in measuring the advance of laborers in the last five hundred years, the whole gain of the *bourgeoisie* must be credited to their improvement. Mr. Cunningham thinks that society has gained during the

period in review, but he doubts if the individual man has gained. He thinks that, under competition, the individual is crushed down. This inference seems to us incorrect, because it is not in line with the facts. The fact which Mr. Cunningham's book plainly shows is this: With advancing population there has been advancing civilization—*i. e.*, increasing power to support population. The men of each generation have sought to win as much of this, each for himself, as possible. That is what free competition and civil liberty mean. Those who have won in this struggle have risen out of the laboring into the capitalist class, and the English nation and civilization have advanced by and through them. Those who have not succeeded and their children are the "laborers" of to-day. When the truth of the matter is thus apprehended there is no "social question" any more for anybody to make speeches and essays about, but only another repetition of the threadbare old precept to the individual man—if you are not satisfied with your position in life, go to work, save your product, and do as well for yourself as you can.

There is another lesson of this history which we should have been glad to see more clearly brought out; indeed, the author sometimes speaks as if he had not thoroughly perceived it himself. When the introduction of sheep-farming lowered the profits of tillage, the class of yeomen farmers began to disappear. There were those who lamented this change, and who thought that the state should try to check it (p. 269). No such step was taken, and in time the trouble cured itself. One such instance is of the utmost value as an illustration and warning of the folly of statesmen who are ready to interfere with the course of things which seems to be bringing what they do not like. It is also a warning to us that we are constantly liable to error if we stand ready with our little tape-measures to estimate the good or ill of the industrial and social changes which come in the course of time. The wise man is he who follows and adjusts himself to the changes which come about. The industrial history of any great nation shows us that the changes are never unmixed gains. New and incidental evils spring out of the improvements on which we pride ourselves most. The true view is that the life of the society goes on, bringing constant changes and developments. We have to "keep up," to learn the new and to discard the old. Every new chance brings a new responsibility. If it offers a greater gain, it offers a proportionately greater chance of loss, and the penalty of mistake is to perish while the society pushes on.

Hence we cannot regard it as profitable or to the point to say, as our author does: "The amount of social misery need not lead us to underestimate the greatness of the economic improvement, though it may lead us to see that the question how far economic improvements are matters for congratulation is one that admits of more difference of opinion than may at first sight appear" (p. 259). We are familiar with this kind of writing, but it belongs in another kind of literature than that to which Mr. Cunningham's book belongs. How can there be any question whether we should congratulate ourselves on economic improvement? We are working for it all the time. Can we possibly regret it or be indifferent to it? What we need to understand about economic improvement is that it is only a *chance*. It has no moral value in itself: its moral value depends on the use men make of it; but to win more chances for men to live happier lives, if they are wise enough to use the chances, is certainly a subject of congratulation.

Zoölogical Sketches. By Felix L. Oswald. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1883 (*sic*).

We have here ten chapters of zoölogical anecdotes related in a lively and entertaining fashion, and illustrated by thirty-six woodcuts after Hermann Faber. These last are artistic enough and not glaringly inaccurate, but are far from being comparable to the illustrations of Hamerton's 'Chapters about Animals,' for instance. The blurry technique which, by leaving much to the imagination, may prove effective for the representation of love-lorn damsels or distant landscape, is wholly unsuited for the art of animal-representation. The creatures' coats seem fresh from a mud-bath or paste-pot, and the strong free lines of muscle and bone, in nature merely draped by skin and fur, are lost in the blotchy and mushy illustrations with which magazine literature of late has teemed. Those gathered here are not by any means the worst of their kind, but we find their truth to nature diminishing (as perhaps might be expected) as we pass from the familiar dogs and monkeys to camels, bats, and even the bighorn of our Western mountains.

The text is more satisfactory, and exhibits more thorough study from the life than the illustrations. The anecdotes, if sometimes a little suspiciously *human*, are refreshingly new, and related with more of the art of the writer, and familiarity with the scientific side of the subject, than is usual in books of this sort. To the general reader the volume may be recommended, and even the naturalist will find something here and there to repay perusal. It is neatly printed and bound.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, L. How to Succeed: a Series of Essays by Various Authors. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Adams, H. John Randolph. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Baker, G. A., jr. Point Lace and Diamonds. R. Worthington. $1 25.
Balch, W. R. The Mines, Miners, and Mining Interests of the United States in 1882. Philadelphia: The Mining Industrial Publishing Bureau.
Baldwin, J. An Introduction to the Study of English Literature and Literary Criticism. Vol. I. Poetry. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co.
Bancroft, H. H. History of Central America. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Barnard, Edna A. Maple Range: a Frontier Romance. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co. $1 25.
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Bates, Charlotte F. The Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $5.
Beale, L. S. On Slight Ailments: their Causes, Nature, and Treatment. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 75 cents.
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Besant-Rice. All Sorts and Conditions of Men. Harper's Franklin Square Library.
Bishop, J. P. Commentaries on the Written Laws and their Interpretation. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
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Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 32-39. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Browning, R. Agamemnon, La Saisiaz, and Dramatic Idyls. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Bryant, J. C., and Clinton, G. W. The Business Man's Commercial Law and Business Forms Combined. Buffalo: J. C. Bryant.
Carter, Susan H. Drawing in Black and White. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Challamel, A. History of Fashion in France. Scribner & Welford.
Church, Ella Rodman. The Home Needle. D. Appleton & Co.
Converse, J. O. Garfield the Ideal Man. Cleveland: W. W. Williams.
Cory, W. A Guide to Modern English History. Part 2. 1830-1835. Henry Holt & Co. $3 50.
Creighton, M. A History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation. In 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $10.
Cushing, Henriette, and Farrar, S. E. Pussy Willow and Other Child Songs. White & Stokes. $2.
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Democracy: An American Novel. Henry Holt & Co. 25 cents.
Detmold, C. E. The Historical, Political, and Diplomatic Writings of Niccolò Machiavelli. Translation, in 4 vols. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
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Dow, Sabrina H. Artistic Singing. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Ewing, Juliana H. Brothers of Pity, and other Tales of Beasts and Men. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
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Green, W. H. Moses and the Prophets. Robert Carter & Bros.
Griffis, W. E. Corea, the Hermit Nation. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3 50.
Griswold, W. M. General Index to the *North American Review*, Vols. 92-134 (1861-1882). Bangor, Maine: Q. P. Index.
Guthrie, T. Gems of Illustration from his Sermons and other Writings. Funk & Wagnalls.
Guthrie, M. On Mr. Spencer's Unification of Knowledge. London: Trübner & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 9, 1882.

The Week.

THE defeats of the Republican party in New York, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Connecticut, New Jersey, and even in Massachusetts, following upon that in Ohio, are extraordinary. The anti-Republican majorities in some of these States have scarcely any parallel. The so-called tidal wave of 1874 was only a lively ripple compared with this overwhelming flood. There has been nothing like it since the final downfall of the Whig party, perhaps not even since the breaking down of the old Federal party. No sensible man will pretend that this is a mere Democratic party triumph. Nothing can be more evident than that all over the country Republicans rose up by thousands against their own party, and deliberately voted against its candidates. In no other way can the majority of Mr. Cleveland be explained, which is somewhere between 150,000 and 200,000. It was obviously so in Pennsylvania, where more than 100,000 Republicans voted either for an Independent candidate of their own or directly for the candidate of the Democrats. It must have been so in Massachusetts, where General Butler was permitted to have a plurality by thousands of Republicans who stayed at home or frittered away their votes, and where they openly and demonstratively defeated some of the Republican candidates for Congress. What is the meaning of it? In some States there were certain local causes of dissatisfaction: in Ohio the temperance trouble, in Pennsylvania the especially despotic arrogance of Boss Cameron, in New York the interference of the National Administration with our State affairs, and the scandals at the Convention. But these things cannot account for the sweep of disaster all over the country unless they be regarded as symptoms of evils pervading the party more or less everywhere, and causing a general feeling of distrust and discomfort among its members. Tuesday's elections have left no doubt of this. The result was brought about, not by this or that local trouble, but by a trouble that prevails in a greater or less degree everywhere.

The defeat of Mr. Robeson in New Jersey shows that he was wrong when he said that not only was he what he had been, but that what he was he was going to remain. What he was—a member of Congress—he ought never to have been, and is not going to remain. He will now go back to the position which he ought never to have left—that of an industrious country lawyer. He has talents enough undoubtedly for a wider sphere, and, perhaps, has virtue enough too, but somehow he has utterly failed to persuade the country that he is honest. Ever since he was Secretary of the Navy there has been a widespread and unconquerable belief that he was grossly corrupt. He thought, apparently, that by getting elected to Congress he could vindicate himself, and put this belief down. But unhappily his appearance and doings in Congress only strengthened it and spread it, and he has been, for the last two years at least, since Speaker Keifer put the House of Representatives into his hands, a new burden for the unfortunate Republican party. The audacity with which he met the general odium has often pulled worse men than Mr. Robeson out of bad scrapes, but in his case it was total failure. His defeat will help the party to recover itself in time for 1884, and it may have a purifying influence on Mr. Robeson himself.

Butler had come sufficiently near the Governorship in Massachusetts already to make it plain that if he kept on trying, and should light on a year of great Republican apathy and discontent, like the present, he would probably succeed. The result has justified the anxiety which many Republicans in that State have been feeling for some weeks past. They had nothing to appeal to against him. The doings of the present Administration in the State were a distinct hindrance. The State delegation in Congress had discredited itself by a sort of new Hunkerism with regard to the tariff, with regard to Government expenditures, with regard to civil-service reform. It had nothing to say or to show to touch the imagination of the new generation. Even Senator Hoar could only say of Hubbell's operations that they were "indelicate," and his devotion to the tariff as it is had some of the features of fanaticism. When the storm came, therefore, there was nothing to resist it. The voters were eager for some means of showing their disgust, and Butler was ready at hand as an instrument of chastisement. It must be said, however, that some of the causes of his triumph are probably not so transient as these. The foreign population of Massachusetts, in which Butler finds most of his strength, is only thirty-three per cent. of the whole, and has only increased one per cent. since 1870. But the children of foreign parents are coming on the stage as voters pretty rapidly, and it is not rash to assume that they go to swell the element which does not share the disgust of the old New Englanders over Butler's demagogy, mendacity, and humbug. Nothing has been done, as we have said, within the last ten years to win these new voters over to Republicanism. The talk of the chiefs has been of

> "—old, unhappy, far-off things,
> And battles long ago,"

and they got into the habit—fatal for politicians in our day—of sneering at change and progress, and of preaching the perfection and permanence of everything that is. Butler's election to the Governorship is, of course, a bitter pill, but it will be wise to treat it as medicine, and not as misfortune simply. If the respectability and intelligence of Massachusetts wish to keep control of the Government, they must be led in politics by men of a more vigorous and aggressive type than they have put forward since the close of the anti-slavery struggle. One of the good signs of the crisis is that two of the old set of "practical men," who had been conspicuous in Congress by their contempt for civil-service reform—Messrs. Bowman and Candler—were singled out for punishment by the reformers, and both defeated; Mr. Candler's place being taken by an excellent member of the newer and better school of politicians, Mr. Theodore Lyman.

We must also observe that even the best Republicans in Massachusetts cannot divest themselves of all responsibility for Butler's being not only what he is, but where he is. As long ago as 1867 we began, at the cost of much obloquy and some ridicule, to point out in the *Nation* the danger which lay in fostering Butler as a politician by a party which professed to be based on the supremacy of moral ideas, and, in fact, drew its strength largely from that source, for it could not then be said to have given the country either prosperity or peace. Between that year and his final expulsion from the party in 1874, hardly a week passed in which we did not call attention to his vices and defects, both personal and political, and we have during the past month found some grim consolation in going back in our own columns, thirteen or fourteen years ago, to the very list of objections to him which we find in the Boston papers of to-day. They have literally produced nothing against him during the late canvass which the *Nation* had omitted. Nevertheless, when the late Mr. R. H. Dana gallantly took the field against him in 1868, to save the party from the disgrace of sending him back to Congress even three years after the war, he got no encouragement from any of the leading Republicans of the State. The handful who supported him, either with money or speeches, were comparatively unknown in the political field, and were sneered at for their pains. There can be no question, however, that the ostentatious and deliberate disregard, by the Republican party of the State, of personal character in a public man like Butler was as bad a lesson in political immorality as could have been taught to the younger or more ignorant voters, and that it prepared the way for the scandal and shame of his election to the Governorship. As he has himself often pointed out, it is useless to tell the colored people or the Irish now that he is too wicked for high office as a Democrat, when for ten years after the war he was, as a Republican, treated with positive consideration, and all his sins ignored or pooh-poohed. The descriptions of him in the *Advertiser*, *Transcript*, and *Journal*, odious as they are, were, unhappily, as correct in 1868 as they are to-day.

Governor Hoyt, of Pennsylvania, "revolted," before the election, in a letter to the Independents, in which he said he had, since the canvass began, expected to drift along with the regular Republican or Cameronian ticket; but even this passive rôle was too much for him, so he threw off the yoke and denounced the Boss and the Machine in the lusty fashion now so common.

The story he tells about himself is most pitiful, and would puzzle historians a century or two hence, if there were no newspaper accounts of the workings of the Machine, for it describes the "humiliation" inflicted upon him, the administrative impropriety to which he was compelled, and the "insulting methods applied to him by means of threats, intrigue, and bad faith" (he being the Governor of a great State), by a man who holds no State office at all, and who is not known to possess any of the ordinary claims to political power or popularity. A more striking illustration of the strength of the boss system we have not yet had, for Governor Hoyt is a much more powerful and independent man as regards the State Boss than Governor Cornell, who revolted also under very similar circumstances.

The decision of the Superior Court in the Williams and Hatch suits is a severe blow to the business of consolidation, brought to its present pitch of perfection, if not invented, by Jay Gould. If consolidation were what its name implies—the mere union of the stock of different companies in one—there would not be any harm in it; but if it meant this, Jay Gould would never have cared a straw about it. With Gould, to consolidate means first to get control of two companies by delicate manipulations of the stock, and then buy the stock of one with that of the other, watering, or, as the Superior Court Judges euphemistically term it, "diluting" the capital to provide means for doing it. Thus, when Gould consolidated the Western Union with the American Union and the Atlantic and Pacific Telegraph Companies, he made an agreement—in consolidating, it does not take two to make a bargain—by which the first company bought out the other two, at $15,000,000 and $8,400,000, and, to pay for this, increased the Western Union stock some $40,000,000, which was about $18,000,000 too much. To make it all right, it was provided by the same agreement that the greater part of this $18,000,000—to be exact, $15,526,590—should be issued as a stock dividend to Western Union shareholders. Gould being the chief shareholder, the net result of the consolidation is believed to have been profitable to Gould, and to have been against the interest of the companies.

However wrong this suspicion may be, and however admirable the arrangement may have been, it is evident that consolidation of this sort would place in the hands of wicked and unscrupulous operators a dangerous power, and therefore it is satisfactory to learn from the decision of the Superior Court that it is entirely illegal, and in direct violation of the following statute:

"It shall not be lawful for the directors or managers of any incorporated company in this State to make dividends except from the surplus profits arising from the business of such corporation; and it shall not be lawful for the directors of any such company to divide, withdraw, or in any way pay to the shareholders, or any part of them, any part of the capital stock of such company, or to reduce the said capital stock without the consent of the Legislature."

The theory on which the $15,000,000 had been divided was that it represented past surplus profits which the company had invested in the purchase, construction, and equipment of lines, wires, and general plant, and might, therefore, properly be treated as capital. As to this the Court says:

"It seems too clear for argument that in the face of that statute the issue of the stock to the shareholders of the Western Union Company cannot be upheld as a dividend from surplus profits because the profits were no longer on hand. They were converted into other property. Even if such other property remained and still is of equal value, it nevertheless took the place of profits. It became capital. Unless otherwise provided by the charter or by-laws of a corporation, the profits and surplus funds of a corporation whenever they have accrued are, until separated from the capital by the declaration of a dividend, a part of the stock itself, and will pass with the stock under this name in a transfer or bequest."

What the consequences of the decision will be it is too early to predict, for it is possible that the decision may be reversed, and it will in any case be difficult to settle equitably all the conflicting interests involved. The Court says that the charges of fraud in the consolidation are not proved; and both Gould and his lawyer, Judge Dillon, neither of whom is a dull man, insist that it will all come out right yet.

The vigor of the humorous faculty in Mr. Thurlow Weed at his advanced age is a very interesting phenomenon. It does not seem, either, to be in the least enfeebled by sickness, if we may judge from his letter in the *Tribune* of Saturday, which is even more racy and amusing than any of his late contributions to its columns. Of course, he is disturbed by the present condition of Republican politics in this State; but there are not many men of eighty-two or three with enough boyish mirth still bubbling within them to ascribe the trouble, as Mr. Weed does, to civil-service reform, which, he says, is "the first, if not the worst," of "the bad elements" with which "the atmosphere is charged." His assertion, too, that "the spoils system awakens and stimulates the best elements in the American character," and that if "we abolish the system and enact the civil-service project into law, political devotion, gallantry, and love of country will become obsolete," is worthy of Dean Swift in his best days, and indeed recalls some of the most comic passages in the "Advice to Servants." We are glad to see, too, that our venerable friend has caught and enjoys the joke about President Arthur's visit to this city "for the classification of his private papers." He says truly that if there had been less time given to this, and "there had been fewer Cabinet meetings on railroads and in hotels, the present outlook of the Republican party would have been much more satisfactory." Some of our country readers may not see the fun of this, but it lies in the fact that "classification of the President's private papers" means, in the slang of the Machine, Presidential "conferences" or interviews in New York with Clint, Steve, Mike, Barney, Jake, Bob, and Johnny.

We have always supposed Mr. Wayne MacVeagh to be a shrewd, perspicacious man of the world, and we think so still, but we confess an interview with him reported in the Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph* of Thursday is well calculated to shake the confidence of those who do not know him as well as we do, in both his shrewdness and perspicacity. The reporter went to see him about a letter of Mr. James G. Blaine to Mr. James W. Bosler, a very notorious person, who had been nominated in the Thirty-second Senatorial District in Pennsylvania in the Cameron interest. The letter is a very warm one, and runs as follows:

"If I were able to take the stump, it would give me the greatest pleasure to come to your district and urge your election as Senator. In addition to your eminent fitness for the position, I am sure every friend of mine in Cumberland and Adams will be ready to give you a cordial and cheerful support in recognition of the zeal and fidelity with which, in past political contests, you have always maintained my interests. But I can only send my good wishes, and await your election with confidence."

What the reporter wished to know from Mr. MacVeagh was, what he thought of that letter and what he thought of Bosler. Mr. MacVeagh said he regretted to see the letter very much, and thought that "it was probably written upon impulse and without proper reflection." The reason for this view is that Bosler has grown rich as a cattle contractor at the Indian Department at Washington, and even in that field had but a poor reputation; that in addition to this it was proved before a committee of Congress, before the Star-route prosecutions began—

"that Dorsey and Bosler were interested together in a good many of the routes Brady had expedited, that he acted as a clerk for them, and the records showed that in a single route—No. 40,104—Dorsey and Bosler were receiving at the rate of $24,000 per annum, without a pretence of doing anything whatever to earn it. When asked if anybody had any interest in this route but Dorsey, Rerdell answered: 'He and his partner, Mr. Bosler.' He had previously stated that he was then acting as a clerk for the firm of Dorsey & Co., and attending to their Star-route contracts. He was asked 'who constitute the firm you represent?' He answered, 'S. W. Dorsey and J. W. Bosler.'"

Mr. MacVeagh then added—and this is the singular part of his statement—

"I cannot believe that if Mr. Blaine had known these facts he would have asked Republicans to promote men of the Bosler type just now, when we are trying to set up higher standards, not lower, in our public service."

Now, our explanation of this is that Mr. MacVeagh, in the hurry of business, had not read Mr. Blaine's letter to Bosler carefully. Mr. Blaine does say there that Bosler is "eminently fit for the position," but he does not go into particulars on that point. What most affects him, he frankly avows, is the zeal and fidelity with which Bosler has, in times past, "always maintained his [my] interests." Well, it is the most natural thing in the world for the author of the Mulligan letters and the man who, as Speaker of the House, called the attention of the Arkansas and Fort Smith railroad speculators to the service he had rendered them in the Chair, and asked for his reward, to consider entitled to his sympathy any one who has grown rich as an Indian-cattle and Star-route contractor, and who has with Dorsey drawn $24,000 a year from the Post-office without any pretence of earning it; and to think that service rendered to him personally qualifies such a man for any office in the gift of the people which he (Blaine) does not happen to want for himself. So that Mr. MacVeagh's assumption that he wrote to Bosler in a moment of gush, without being aware of his antece-

dents, is somewhat startling to those who know that Mr. MacVeagh is a lawyer, in middle life, who has served in the same Cabinet with Mr. Blaine. They not unnaturally ask, Can it be possible that Mr. MacVeagh believes also that when Mr. Blaine selected the late General Hurlbut for the mission to Peru, as his agent in building up the great Pan-American Confederation, he did not know that Hurlbut had been convicted of fraud, forgery, and bribe-taking as a general in the war, and was not influenced by Hurlbut's attention to "his interests" in the Chicago Convention? And they ask further, Does Mr. MacVeagh really believe that when Mr. Blaine sent another Blaine delegate, General Kilpatrick, from the same Convention down as Minister to Chili, he did not know that he was the same General Kilpatrick who had to come home from that same quarter of the world under General Grant, for having disgraced the American name by the publicity and shamelessness of his vice?

The public debt was reduced $15,629,180 during the month of October, which makes a total reduction since July 1, the beginning of the fiscal year, of $60,423,418. The Treasury during the last week took in more money than it paid out, and the domestic exchanges so ruled that the New York banks were compelled to send currency to the South. Naturally enough, therefore, their reserve fell off, and, on an average statement for the week, was a little short of 25 per cent. of the deposit liabilities. Foreign exchange was weak. At the Stock Exchange, dulness was the chief characteristic, although at times this was relieved by the renewal of litigation respecting the telegraph and the elevated-railroad companies. Railroad earnings continue very large. Domestic trade is fairly good. The foreign-trade figures for the month of October show increasing exports and decreasing imports, although the latter continue to exceed the former.

The Adjutant-General of the Army of the United States reports that during the last fiscal year there have been 3,741 desertions from the ranks. The numerical strength of the Army is about 25,000. It appears, therefore, that nearly 15 per cent. of the Army deserted in one single year. It is needless to say that no army in any civilized country shows anything like such a proportion of desertions in time of peace. Our case is probably without parallel. In the Adjutant-General's opinion, "the chief cause of desertion is the fact that the money value of clothing drawn by the recruit after enlistment—a large amount, necessarily—is charged against him on the rolls, and, absorbing his pay for months, induces discontent and restlessness." He therefore suggests "that the first complete outfit of clothing to a recruit be settled only at the end of the first year of service." It can readily be imagined that a soldier will become discontented if during the first months of his service his whole pay consists in his clothes. But the cause and the remedy suggested would seem to apply only to cases of desertion that occur shortly after enlistment, probably a minority of the whole number. The evil certainly lies deeper. As a general rule, it may safely be assumed that but few men who have any desire to work, and see before them a tolerable chance of making an honest living, will enter our regular Army as privates in times of peace. The material enlisted is therefore not the most promising one. Young men of that class are apt to have but a slight sense of obligation, and when they find that army life does not give them as easy and amusing a time as they expected to find, the thought of getting a pleasant change by running away will be very apt to strike them. Such cases will not be cured by a mere amendment of the regulations with regard to clothing. In other armies a certain intellectual interest is imparted to military life by the attention which is devoted to the schooling of the men, not only in routine duty, but in the various elements of knowledge. Military service is thus made to supplement early education. If more general and intelligent efforts were made in this direction in our Army, they might serve not only to relieve the deadly dulness of the garrisons and frontier posts, but at the same time quicken the ambition and improve the character of the men. How far such efforts would reduce desertions we do not venture to predict, but the experiment is certainly worth making.

What may be called a neighborly murder occurred in Kentucky the other day which well illustrates the remarks we have recently been making on Southern homicides. The Stiverses and Scullys had adjoining farms, and the women of the two families quarrelled about turkeys, as is so often the case in the country. ("Hens," as the old lady said, "has been the cause of more trouble in families than any other one thing.") Whereupon the boy, Sherman Stivers, took his shotgun and shot certain turkeys claimed by the Scullys as their property. This resulted in Sherman's being taken out of a spring wagon by Mr. Scully and having his ears boxed. At the North the matter, if it went further, would have resulted in a lawsuit, or an exchange of vituperation. But Mr. Hooker Stivers, Sherman's elder brother, on hearing of it soon after, decided that it necessitated at least one death. So he calmly harnessed his horses, took with him his beloved shotgun, which seems in some parts of the South to be taking the place of the family Bible as a consoler in times of affliction and perplexity, and drove off in search of Mr. Scully without either heat or passion. On meeting Mr. Scully in the neighboring town of Paris, he called out to him, and on his approaching shot him dead. Mr. Stivers has been arrested, of course, but we fear that if anybody supposes he will be punished, that person will be greatly mistaken. He will be liberated on bail, and his trial will be a great show, at which he will prove not that his shot was fired without premeditation, in the heat of passion, but was committed under the influence of a solemn sense of duty to his brother and the Stivers family, and was done with great deliberation; and the jury will conclude that a man of his temperament, on hearing that his brother's ears had been boxed for killing a turkey, really could not be expected to act otherwise.

There appear to be materials for a very nice little controversy between Great Britain and Spain in the wrongful surrender to the Spaniards by a British magistrate at Gibraltar of three Cuban refugees. They were apparently arrested within the British lines, and carried before the magistrate, who surrendered them to the Spanish authorities, although England has no extradition treaty with Spain. Lord Granville has said that though the surrender was made by a magistrate, yet, as it was under a mistake, he thought it would be a graceful and courteous thing for the Spanish Government to restore them. To this the Spanish Minister has, it is said, replied that, anxious as he is to oblige England, he will not do anything of the sort. It is now expected by many that Lord Granville will speak in more peremptory fashion, but it is not likely. There is little to be gained by bullying the Spaniards, who are so sensitive about Gibraltar already that the Ministry could hardly afford to make concessions in any matter of disputed right or title connected with it. In fact, we are inclined to think that when the Minister asserts, as he has done, that the fugitives were captured on "Spanish soil," he means soil that is rightfully Spanish, but now held by Great Britain.

Dr. Schweinfurth, the explorer, who has thus far been the principal source of information as to the doings of the False Prophet, seems to have promised too much for that now notorious divine. He was by this time to have taken Khartum, after having massacred the bulk of the Egyptian Army, but Abd-el-Kader, who commands up there, telegraphs that he has defeated him at three different points. Khartum is therefore apparently in no danger. If it be also true, as Abd-el-Kader telegraphs, that the Prophet's followers were demoralized by the news that the English were coming, he cannot be much of a prophet, after all. If he were what he has been said to be, his disciples ought to be rejoiced to hear that the English were coming, so that they might have more infidels to convert or devour, for we presume that his "Man-eaters" always give an infidel not the pristine alternative of "the Koran or the sword," but the Koran or the pot or gridiron; and the question he would have to answer would be, "Will you believe or be cooked?" Conversions on an immense scale, we feel sure, would follow the trial of this method. But if the Prophet fears the infidel and flies from him, of course the spread of the true faith is impossible. Apropos of this, the Egyptian despatches from the front during the war have been published, and they are a very amusing mixture of piety and mendacity. Arabi, it appears, won great battles nearly every day, and bore testimony to the constant anxiety of the British troops to escape from their cruel taskmasters, the officers, and reach the Egyptian lines in order to embrace the Mussulman faith. The reports are interesting, inasmuch as there appears to be no doubt of Arabi's religious fervor and knowledge of the Koran, and they, therefore, raise the question whether the separation of religion from morals is going on as rapidly in Islam as it seems to be in some parts of Christendom.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, November 1, to TUESDAY, November 7, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE elections on Tuesday resulted in a "Democratic deluge." As we go to press it is impossible to give the result in all the States, but the Democrats have undoubtedly carried New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Delaware, Arkansas, and Texas. Both parties claim the victory in Colorado and California, but the Legislature of the latter State is probably Republican. In New Hampshire the Republicans are confident of Hale's election. State officers were elected in twenty-two States, members of Congress in thirty-three, and Legislatures in twenty-four.

In New York, Grover Cleveland, the Democratic candidate for Governor, was elected by a majority estimated at 170,000, which is the largest majority ever given a candidate in any State in the Union; and the Citizens' ticket in New York city was defeated by about 20,000 majority.

Gen. B. F. Butler has been elected Governor of Massachusetts by a majority of about 10,000. His Council and the Legislature are Republican.

Pattison, the Democratic candidate for Governor in Pennsylvania, has been elected by a plurality of about 35,000 over Beaver and Stewart. The latter, who was the Independent candidate, received about 75,000 votes.

In Connecticut, Waller, Democrat, was elected Governor.

The Democrats have undoubtedly secured a considerable majority in Congress, probably in the neighborhood of 174 members, against 150 Republicans. All these figures are only approximately correct, however.

Messrs. George William Curtis, Sherman S. Rogers, Charles T. Russell, Henry Hitchcock, and Charles J. Bonaparte, a committee appointed by the National Civil-Service Reform League, have presented to the voters of the United States, in behalf of the League, a statement of their principles of reform and the reasons for their adoption, and they ask the support of all good citizens therefor. The report concludes by saying that there is no question before the country of more commanding importance than the reform of the civil service, because it touches the fundamental principle of the Government—freedom of the suffrage—and advises good citizens in the Congressional elections to support only those candidates "who will actively favor in Congress the passage of the bills now pending in both Houses, or bills founded on the same general principle, establishing non-partisan and open competition and probation for subordinate appointments in the civil service. Such legislation would abolish the most dangerous survival of royal privilege in the country, restore political parties to their legitimate function, emancipate elections from dangerous corruption, purify American politics, and wipe a disgraceful stain from the American name."

Mr. James G. Blaine wrote a letter to Mr. J. W. Bosler, who is a candidate for State Senator in Pennsylvania, saying that it would give him the greatest pleasure to take the stump for him and urge his election if it were possible for him to do so. He added that every friend of his would cordially support him "in recognition of the zeal and fidelity with which in past political contests you have always maintained my interests." In a recent interview, ex-Attorney-General MacVeagh, commenting on this letter, said that Mr. Bosler was the partner of ex-Senator Dorsey in the Star-route frauds, being the second member of the firm for which Rerdell, recently convicted, acted as clerk. Mr. MacVeagh said he could hardly believe that the district would care to send such a man to the State Senate, and that he could not believe that Mr. Blaine knew the facts about the partnership when he urged Bosler's election. Ex-Postmaster-General James also sent a despatch to Mr. MacVeagh, cordially endorsing what he had said in regard to Bosler.

On Wednesday, Attorney-General Brewster sent despatches to the United States Marshal in Charleston, and to the United States Attorney at Columbia, South Carolina, in which he says that his attention has been called to the probability that recent homicides in Lancaster County in that State will tend to prevent a full and free ballot at the approaching election for member of Congress in that county, and directing that special attention be given to the county, and that the laws therein be strictly enforced.

The statement issued by the Treasury Department on the 1st of November shows that in the month of October the reduction of the public debt amounted to $15,629,180, which is $3,000,000 more than the average monthly reduction for the fiscal year which ended June 30, 1882. The decrease in the debt for the first four months of the current fiscal year has been more than $60,000,000. The 6 per cent. bonds of the loan of 1863, continued at 3½ per cent., disappear for the first time from the interest-bearing debt in the statement for November. The amount of debt bearing no interest has increased $22,750,000 since the issue of last month's statement, owing to an increase of $21,500,000 in gold certificates and a little more than $2,000,000 in silver certificates. There has been an increase of $28,500,000 in the total cash in the Treasury, owing mainly to the deposits of gold for the new gold certificates.

The report of the Post-office Department shows that the revenue of this department has doubled since 1871. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1871, the revenue was $20,037,045; for the last fiscal year it was $41,876,410. The revenue of the Department already exceeds that of the mail service of any country in the world, being $10,000,000 more than that of the United Kingdom. While receipts are increasing at the rate of 14 per cent. per annum, the expenditures increase at the rate of less than 2 per cent. The excess of receipts over expenditures for the past year was over $1,500,000

On Wednesday, some Kentucky troops, detailed by Governor Blackburn to escort Neal and Craft, the Ashland murderers, from Catlettsburg to Lexington, were met at the former place by some citizens of Ashland, who demanded the prisoners. The demand was refused, and the troops, with the prisoners, embarked on a boat to proceed to Lexington. When they reached Ashland, the citizens took a ferryboat and put out to intercept them. A revolver was recklessly discharged by a boy on the ferryboat, and was answered by a volley from the soldiers. The balls pierced the boiler of the ferryboat and disabled the mob. Meanwhile a great crowd had gathered on the banks of the river, within range of the soldiers firing from the steamboat. The result was that three men and an infant in its mother's arms were killed and twenty-three persons wounded. There is great indignation against the soldiery. The commander of the soldiers has since made a statement that all the shots were directed at the mob on the ferryboat, and that if persons standing on the bank were injured, it was through carelessness in being near a lawless mob attacking State troops, and not because the troops fired at them.

Dr. Dudley A. Sargent, for the Athletic Committee of the Harvard Faculty, has issued a set of rules which will make a considerable change in the management and direction of athletic sports at Harvard. No club or athletic association of Harvard University is allowed to compete with professionals. No person is allowed to assume the functions of trainer or instructor in athletics in the College grounds without written authority from the Committee. No person after this year will be allowed to row in any College crew unless he can swim, and no base-ball match can hereafter be played outside of Cambridge on any other day than Saturday, without permission from the Committee.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons, on Wednesday, Lord Randolph Churchill made a long speech lecturing the Tory leaders on their "foolish action" in proposing a two-thirds majority in the closure resolutions. He said that such a course would be most damaging to the Conservatives, either in or out of power. On Thursday, Mr. Parnell made a speech on the closure. He thought the adoption of the closure would tend to increase rather than diminish the friction of Parliamentary business, and would stimulate the tendency of the House of Lords to throw out measures coming from the House of Commons. He said the Irish members would vote against Mr. Gibson's amendment, requiring for the declaration of closure a two-thirds majority instead of the bare majority proposed by the Government, but that, on the further question of closure or no closure, they left themselves free to act as the party might determine. After some further speaking, the House divided on the amendment, and it was rejected by a vote of 322 to 238. On Monday an amendment providing that any division on closure should be taken by secret ballot was rejected, and the Speaker then put the closure resolution to the House. Sir Stafford Northcote moved its rejection. He said he feared interference with free speech, and predicted that obstruction would only be encouraged and stimulated. A strange destiny, he said, seemed to dog the footsteps of the Government, whose doctrine, when assuming office, appeared to be that force was no remedy. Yet in Ireland, in Egypt, and in the House of Commons they seemed to have no other remedy but force. Sir William Harcourt asked the House to pass the resolution. The Liberals, he said, were as anxious for freedom of discussion as their opponents, and there was hardly one of the great Liberal reforms which had not seriously alarmed the Tories, but happily their fears were never realized.

On Monday, Lord Randolph Churchill published a long letter, in which he attempted to prove that the Government would only succeed in carrying the closure resolutions by a majority of from 15 to 30. He considered that if the closure succeeded by such a small majority, it would be the duty of Sir Stafford Northcote to announce that he refused to allow the question of procedure to go forward without an appeal to the constituencies, and the general election would probably be decisive against closure, for the number of Parnellites would be doubled, perhaps trebled, while it was highly improbable that the Conservatives would be weakened. If closure is not thus prevented, he said, the Liberals may in two or three years manipulate the electorate, and the chance of the Tories will then be gone.

Mr. P. J. Smyth, Member of Parliament for Tipperary, in a recent letter, said that the examples of unprincipled tergiversation, as shown in the voting of the Parnellites in the House of Commons for gag law, degrade the nation. Never, he says, since the world began, was a country saved by swindling, political or financial.

At a meeting in London, on Wednesday, of the Committee of the House of Commons to investigate the imprisonment of Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, it was decided by a vote of 10 to 4 that the proceedings should be private. The minority were Irish members. Mr. Gray was examined before the Committee, and made a long statement. He complained of Judge Lawson's vindictiveness, and explained that he did not attend to his duties as High Sheriff of Dublin because he had to attend to his Parliamentary duties. On Thursday the Committee

agreed that a copy of the minutes of its meetings should be sent to Judge Lawson, and that it should be left to his discretion whether he would appear before the Committee to answer the charges made against him, in regard to his treatment of Mr. Gray, by the Irish members.

On Friday, Mr. Gladstone stated in the House of Commons that the Government thought a contribution should be demanded from Egypt for the expenses of British occupation. Sir Stafford Northcote asked whether the Government could continue the occupation without the authority of Parliament. Mr. Gladstone replied that the occupation was the result of the war—which created a "general demonstration" in the House, as he had hitherto denied that England was at "war" with Egypt.

While addressing a large meeting of farmers at Newbridge, County Galway, Ireland, on Wednesday, Matthew Harris, a member of the late Land League, and certain others were arrested under the Prevention of Crime Act. Great excitement ensued, and a collision between the people and police occurred. Harris when arrested was urging the people to prevent hunting, and refused to stop the meeting when ordered to do so.

In a speech at a meeting at Inverness, Scotland, on Saturday, Mr. Davitt denounced the manner in which the depopulation of the Highlands was going on. This, he said, was an instance of the iniquity of the Land Law, and he advocated nationalization of land as a remedy.

The Prince of Wales has consented to act as Chairman of the Longfellow Memorial Committee. In a letter accepting the chairmanship he expresses much satisfaction in acceding to the request, and adds that he is very glad an opportunity has been afforded him to show the high respect he entertains for the memory of the greatest of American poets, and his appreciation of the value and excellence of Longfellow's works. On Wednesday a meeting of the Longfellow Memorial Committee was held in London. Lord Braye presided. Canon Rowsell, as a member of the Chapter of Westminster Abbey, addressed the meeting. He said a memorial of Longfellow would serve to cement the good feeling between England and the United States. Lord Granville said he had observed a growing feeling of cordiality between the two countries. He believed that Longfellow's death was as great a loss to England as it was to America. It was unanimously resolved that a bust of Longfellow be placed in the Poets' Corner of Westminster Abbey. One-third of the members of the Committee have already subscribed £500 toward the erection of the memorial.

The Socialistic disorders in France seem to have subsided. A secret dynamite factory is said to have been discovered at Charolles. Revolutionary manifestoes were placarded in Paris and Marseilles on Thursday night. At a Cabinet meeting on Thursday, M. Fallières, Minister of the Interior, said he believed the dispute between the master upholsterers and their workmen was at an end. The French Government addressed a complaint, couched in strong terms, to the Swiss Federal Council in regard to the proceedings of the Anarchists at Geneva, and the Federal Council ordered an investigation into the matter. A number of Anarchists were arrested on Monday at Creuzot, Lyons, Lille, and Marseilles.

The French Ministry, at a council on Saturday, discussed the bill of M. Devès, Minister of Justice, relating to the reform of the magistracy. The bill provides that the number of magistrates shall be reduced by 390. The system of appointment is to be by Government selection. The bill also provides for the institution of a Superior Judicial Council, to be composed mainly of members of the Court of Cassation, which shall have the right to dismiss magistrates upon motion of the Keeper of the Seals.

M. Tirard, Minister of Finance, has informed the Budget Committee that the receipts and expenditures for the current year will balance, without recourse to votes of credit.

The municipality of Paris has presented M. de Brazza, the African explorer, with a medal of the value of 3,000 francs, and has resolved to grant a subsidy for his next expedition in Africa.

The French will have complete control of the new Tunisian Government. The Bey's Cabinet will be under the presidency of Silazsis Bey. M. Cambon will be Minister of Foreign Affairs, General Forgemol Minister of War, and General Logerot Minister of Marine. It is believed that General Lambert will have charge of the Department of the Interior.

A correspondent at Berlin telegraphed on Monday to a London paper that Russian diplomacy was making great exertions to influence France to unite with Russia in a policy unfriendly to England. A despatch from Frankfort on the same day said that important diplomatic negotiations were in progress between Russia and France. If France accedes to the wishes of Russia in reference to the proposed extradition treaty, says the despatch, and limits the protection to be extended to political refugees, Russia will support the entire North-African policy of France, and more particularly her policy in regard to questions pending in Egypt and Tunis.

The acting French diplomatic agent at Cairo having asked Sherif Pasha, President of the Council, whether M. Brédif, the French Controller, would be invited to the sitting of the Council of Ministers, Sherif replied that the European Control being a joint institution, and Sir Auckland Colvin, the English Controller, having been instructed not to attend the sittings, the Council had decided not to invite M. Brédif to assist in its deliberations.

There are various rumors every day about the probable course of proceedings in Arabi's trial. It is said that evidence will be introduced to show that Arabi saved the life of Midshipman De Chair against the wish of Tulba Pasha, and also that he stopped the massacre at Alexandria by telegraphic order. It is said that the prosecution, on the other hand, will urge that it is impossible to believe that Arabi Pasha, who held the power, could not have prevented the massacre had he wished to. On Thursday the London *Times* said that it had reason to believe that a compromise had been offered, or was about to be offered, to the British Government, the purport of which was that Arabi should be allowed to expatriate himself and live in exile, but that the proposal was unacceptable. Mr. Broadley has protested against the Inquiry Commissioners examining witnesses in the absence of counsel. Ragheb Bey, who was the medium of communication between the Sultan and Arabi Pasha, will be summoned as a witness for the defence at the trial. Arabi's counsel say that they have reason to believe that when the translation of his papers is completed, the documents will prove that he had received direct encouragement from the Sultan. Among the papers is the text of the Sultan's firman, dated the 23d of June, conferring the order of the Medjidie upon Arabi, in recognition of his zeal, honesty, and intelligence. The idea which the Egyptian Ministry had entertained of employing English counsel to assist in the prosecution of Arabi and the other rebel leaders has been abandoned.

Alaiddin Pasha, Governor of the Egyptian Red Sea coast, is appointed to the command of the expedition to the Sudan against the False Prophet. In the House of Commons on Thursday Sir Charles Dilke said news had been received from Khartum, under date of October 30, that the False Prophet had been defeated with great slaughter last month, and that smallpox was raging among his followers. This, however, is not generally believed, as Dr. Schweinfurth, writing under date of Cairo, October 23, to the Anti-Slavery Society, said that all the provinces of Egypt lying south and east of Khartum were in the hands of the insurgents; that Khartum only hung by a thread, and that the Egyptian army had been cut down by constant disastrous combats with the False Prophet, and was reduced to half its original size. The mass of the people, he said, believe in the "ever-victorious False Prophet." Several amnestied officers who fought under Arabi Pasha, have expressed a desire to serve the Khedive in the Sudan, and several German officers will join the expedition. On Monday, it was telegraphed from Cairo, that Abd-el-Kader had telegraphed from Khartum, under date of November 5: "I have defeated the rebels at three different points. They were somewhat demoralized by the report that English troops were coming. Khartum is for the moment relieved."

The Porte was much alarmed at the decision of the British Government to send Lord Dufferin to Egypt, and the Council of Ministers decided to ask for explanations. The Grand Vizier on Wednesday requested Lord Dufferin to postpone his departure, but Lord Dufferin replied that it would be impossible for him to comply with the request. The Porte thereupon telegraphed to Lord Granville asking that his departure be delayed. Subsequently, however, Lord Dufferin had an interview with the Sultan in which he explained matters satisfactorily, so that he started for Egypt.

The elections for members of the Norwegian Storthing have resulted in a crushing defeat for the Government, four-fifths of the members returned being Radicals or Republicans.

At a council of the Spanish Ministers on Thursday, King Alfonso presiding, it was decided not to hand over the Cuban refugees to the British authorities. This decision has met with general approval in Spain. The Spanish Government, however, though persisting in its decision, has decided to institute an inquiry into the circumstances of the capture of the Cubans. A despatch from Madrid on Monday said that some interesting correspondence from American filibustering agents had been intercepted, showing that they were deeply interested in the liberation of the three Cuban leaders, and would work hard to accomplish their object.

On the reassembling of the Spanish Cortes it is understood that the Opposition will probably provoke debate in order to bring on a division. The Opposition journals estimate that on a division the Government will obtain only a majority of forty. It is thought that much will depend on the action of Señor Rodrigo, the leader of the group of fifty Liberals. The Ministry count upon his support, but the Opposition affirm that he will decide in favor of Marshal Serrano at the last moment.

The members of the Servian Cabinet have agreed to remain in office, King Milan having refused to accept their resignations, which they tendered, believing that he was dissatisfied with their failure to discover the recent plot to assassinate him.

The elections for members of the Italian Chamber of Deputies, held on the 29th of October, resulted in the return of 99 members of the Right, 65 of the Centre, 258 of the Left, 27 Radicals, and 2 Socialists. The elections throughout the country were orderly, except at Leghorn, where a mob attempted to destroy the urns and registers.

A despatch from Pressburg, Hungary, on Friday, said that excesses against the Jews had recommenced in that city, and that drunken rioters plundered their shops and killed a woman. Ten of the rioters were arrested.

MR. BOUTWELL ON THE CIVIL SERVICE.

THE dexterity of some of the friends of the spoils system in darkening counsel about civil-service reform was curiously illustrated in a speech of Mr. Boutwell's at Plymouth, Mass., last week. Mr. Boutwell is an old officeholder and officeseeker. For forty years, whenever he has not been holding office he has been seeking it, so that he speaks on the subject both with knowledge and experience. According to him, the notion held by the civil-service reformers that members of Congress "exert a great deal of influence in the appointment of officeholders, and thereby secure renominations and elections, and perpetuate themselves in power," is so fanciful that his audience, he said, "would, on reflection, all come to the conclusion that there can only be the slightest foundation for such a remark." This is almost, but not quite, up to the level of Mr. Thurlow Weed's humorous prediction that if the spoils system be abolished, "political devotion, gallantry, and love of country will become obsolete." The doings of the officeholders and their relations to Congressmen and politics are, of course, within the observation and knowledge of hundreds of thousands of persons all over the country. The charges made against the former by the civil-service reformers are not denied by them, and are met by the great bulk of the politicians with the answer that there is nothing wrong in what they do; so that when Mr. Boutwell mounts the platform to deny the fact before a body of intelligent Massachusetts voters, as if he were talking of something which was within his knowledge alone, he makes a display of what in a young man would be called an audacity which must be fatal to his future usefulness. The spoilsmen really must agree on their defence. It is ridiculous to have two-thirds of them pleading confession and avoidance, and the other third a general denial.

Mr. Boutwell is also troubled about the creation of an "officeholders' oligarchy," by which he meant, as he showed further on, not an officeholders' oligarchy at all, but a "profession of officeholders," thus indicating that when he used the former phrase he really did not know what he was saying, but was simply using one of the catchwords by which the Machine men try to frighten the public from interfering with their little games. He talked as if there were now no profession of officeholders, which every one knows is not the case. But it dawned on him as he went on that he himself was a striking illustration of the incorrectness of his assertion, so he confessed that it perhaps "did not come very well from a man who had held office almost all his life" to protest against the creation of such a profession. He was right in this. It came from him with a very bad grace indeed, and all the excuse he had to make for it was that he "had reached the point where he could speak not only with great freedom, but with an unusual absence of personal motive as to what he may say." But there is no point in a man's career at which he is entitled to be as inaccurate as he pleases, and it is not open to any one to justify an allegation which is not true, by the plea that he had nothing whatever to gain by making it.

About removals he was curiously evasive and slipshod. "It is asserted," said he, "that removals are frequent. It is not so. There are men in the revenue service of the country who have been there for twenty years. In 1869 and 1870 there were a large number of persons in the Treasury Department who had been there from a period before the war." Now, this seems to be a denial of something somebody has asserted. In reality it is nothing of the kind. To the assertion that "removals are frequent," every boy in the common schools above the age of twelve ought to know that the assertion that there are many men in the service who have been there for long periods, is not a negative. Mr. Boutwell might nearly as well reply that "it is not so; every clerk has half an hour for lunch." What the reformers say is that removals are so frequent that if a force of competent officers were not retained permanently, the service would go to pieces altogether; and this is literally true, and Mr. Boutwell does not deny it.

To competitive examinations he is violently opposed, of course, but on constitutional grounds he is in favor of the system which has been on the statute-book since 1853, but which he knows perfectly well has been a complete farce in practice—namely, of holding a pass-examination of those who have been nominated, to see if they are fit for the place. Of course, no one who is nominated by the right "influence" is ever found unfit; and it is not becoming for a man of Mr. Boutwell's years to allude to the subject at all in public without being perfectly frank about it. So far from this, he talked as if there were no such law in existence, but that it would be a good thing to pass one. He is not a great lawyer, and in fact we believe has had very little practice, and came to the study of the law late in life; and yet he declared with the utmost positiveness that to make competitive examinations imperative by statute, as to those officers whose appointment the Constitution allows Congress to vest "in the President alone, in the courts of law, or heads of departments," would be utterly unconstitutional. One does not need to argue a point of this sort with Mr. Boutwell. It is enough to say that vastly better lawyers than he is see nothing unconstitutional in defining the class of persons from which such officers shall be selected, and making it consist of those who have answered most questions in an open examination.

Mr. Boutwell and men of his time and training are kicking against the pricks, and fighting against the spirit of the age. The system in which they grew up and which they loved is doomed, and if they are wise, they will resign themselves with dignity to its destruction. They have the consolation of knowing that it is but sharing the fate of some of the best and noblest things in the world. Everything has its day and passes away—even the cloud-capped towers and gorgeous palaces, the laurel and the rose, great states and great creeds. Why should they expect spoils and rotation, and influence, and assessments, bosses and workers, to escape the fate which overtook Babylon, Nineveh, the Roman Empire, and the god Pan?

THE AMERICAN HEIR ABROAD.

ATTENTION was attracted a year ago to the proceedings taken by the Hedges family to recover an estate of $250,000,000, left them by a "common ancestor," and reported to have been accumulating in the Bank of England for some generations. It was also said that the Lord Chancellor had made a favorable decision as to the claim, and that practically all the Hedges family had to do was to go over, or send over, and collect the money. If we remember right, a meeting of the heirs was held, and able counsel retained for the purpose, who, we suppose, went to England; but since that time, as usual, not a word has been heard of the claim, at least as far as the newspapers are concerned, and, as our readers know, it is to the newspapers and not, as in other cases, to the law reports, that we have to go for information as to claims of this sort.

The procedure in England with regard to claims by American heirs is, as we have before now pointed out, very peculiar. In any other kind of claim there is always somebody in possession of the property who asserts that he has a better title than the claimant, and he usually produces a will or a deed under which he holds. But in the case of the American heir, the money is always discovered to be in the vaults of the Bank of England, no English descendants of the "common ancestor" seem to have claimed it, and the only judge who has jurisdiction over it is the Lord Chancellor, who, of course, tries the case—if he ever does try it—without a jury, or any of the safeguards thrown around the sanctity of property by the common law. As there are no defendants, it ought to be a very easy sort of case to try. The Bank can have no valid title to money deposited with it by an ancestor, yet the money must belong to somebody, and, on the production of proof of descent, all that the Lord Chancellor would have to do would be to direct the Bank to pay it over. But this is just what he never does. What he appears to do is to take the case and hold it under advisement, month after month, and year after year, with a view to tiring out the American heirs; and in this he seems to be uniformly successful. Not a dollar of the money has ever reached this country.

Now, we do not pretend to be able to explain this state of things, but there are certain facts which cannot be overlooked. The Lord Chancellor's is a political office, and he is a member of the Cabinet of the party in power. The Bank, if not a political machine, is dependent on Parliament for its existence and prosperity, and it is for its interest to be on good terms with both political parties. The Queen, no doubt a good woman, and beyond the suspicion of pecuniary corruption, is, as every one knows, a mere dummy in the hands of the Cabinet, and has to do what she is told. Again, we know that enormous sums of money are spent in all free countries, and especially England, in politics, of which no account is ever asked or rendered, and the English have not our system of assessing officeholders to resort to. Under these circumstances, the temptation to use the money of absent and unknown American heirs cannot but be great; and as long as the Lord

Chancellor can keep them at bay—and practically this can always be done—the money can be used by either party for the promotion of its own interests, and no one ever be a bit the wiser. We do not say that this is done; but if it were done, would it not amply account for the extraordinary secrecy which surrounds the use of money in English politics, and which offers so marked a contrast to the entire publicity of our own simple system? The money may, of course, be all in the Bank; but what is to prevent its being used in the way we have suggested; and if it is, how is the American heir to obtain redress? He could not proceed against the Queen or the Cabinet, for the same reason that he could get nothing out of the Bank—because the Lord Chancellor would, of course, take jurisdiction of the case, and then the heir would be just where he was at first.

Human ingenuity could not contrive a system of procedure better calculated than this to baffle an heir, and what has always puzzled us is that the American heir should not have abandoned the struggle long ago. The only other course open to him would be to get the State Department to take the matter up, and something like this course seems to have actually suggested itself to Mr. Blaine in connection with the Cochet claim against Peru. Had Mr. Blaine succeeded in that effort, he might have been induced to turn his attention to the case of the American heir in England, and, if he had, it would have been a better *casus belli* than any he had against Chili. The accumulations in the Bank belonging to the American heir are so vast (the best estimates that we have seen put them at $5,000,000,000) that they are well worth a war—to say nothing of the principle involved. But for work of this kind we need a bold man, and nothing can be hoped from a timid diplomat like Mr. Frelinghuysen.

But England, after all, is not the only country in which there have been common ancestors. Every country in Europe has contributed to our stock, and, considering the extraordinary procedure by which the heir is kept at bay in England, we have always been surprised that he has not turned his attention elsewhere. There are signs that he is now beginning to do so. The *Tribune* of Friday contained a full account of the five great estates in Holland, amounting in all to $2,000,000, which belong to the Haffs of Long Island. The chain of title, as the lawyers call it, is very interesting, not only from a legal, but from a purely philological point of view. The American ancestor in this case was William von der Holst, who came over to Gowanus, Long Island, two hundred years ago. From him are descended a number of families, the name having been gradually modified under the operation of Grimm's law, which it is unnecessary to say is valid in Holland and on Long Island, as follows: Von der Holst, Von Holst, Holst, Hooft, Huff, Haff, and we believe we violate no confidence in adding, Hiff, Hoof, Smith, Brown, and Jones. Peter, the Dutch ancestor, accumulated a fortune in Holland, and, in his Dutch way, invested part of the savings of his lifetime in a museum, which "successive Governments have kept open for the use of the public to this day." It was this museum, it seems, and "the story connected with it," the precise nature of which, for some no doubt excellent reason, is withheld, that "suggested the claims of the Haffs." It is not stated to whom it suggested them, but we risk little in saying that he was a legal gentleman.

At any rate, the Haffs have held a meeting to which some fifty odd claimants came. The most direct heir to the property is the Rev. Stephen Haff, of Bay Shore, a "strong, well-built, well-preserved man of sixty," who is the shoemaker of the village. Curiously enough, he is also pastor of the Bay Shore Congregational Church—a combination of occupations seldom met with at the East. He has a "big, generous heart" and a hopeful disposition, which is very fortunate. The agent of the Haffs, whose name is not given, has gone to Europe to look after the claim.

There is no Lord Chancellor in Holland, but there is a Bank of Amsterdam, and there, no doubt, the money is lying. But the question is, What is the Dutch procedure in such cases? Does the Bank pay it over on presentation of proper proofs of descent, or is there some official connected with the Government whose duty it is to baffle the heirs and keep them at bay? They have Roman law in Holland, and the chances of the American heir under that system may be better. On the other hand, they have representative institutions and constitutional party government as they have in England; and money, no doubt, is used in politics, though what is done with it is kept very close, as it is all over Europe. The King, too, may "square" the agent, which would be bad. All we can do is to await the result of this new attempt, and hope for the best.

AMERICA IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

THE London *Times* is objecting, rather ungraciously, to the placing of Mr. Longfellow's bust in Westminster Abbey, on the somewhat narrow ground that the Abbey should be reserved for memorials of English worthies exclusively, and that there is no space in it for international monuments. If this were all that could be said against giving American poets and scholars a place in it, we think it would be worth but little consideration. The great lights of English literature, wherever born, can never be foreigners, in the sense in which the *Times* uses the term, to the custodians of the Abbey, and they are not likely to be numerous enough in any age to make the question of room for their monuments a practical one.

The real difficulty seems to be much more serious. It does not arise in Mr. Longfellow's case, because there is a rare clearness in his title to his fame throughout the English-speaking world. But it will arise, we fear, in a great many cases for which the Longfellow Memorial will seem to furnish a precedent. It consists in the fact that it will be impossible for the guardians of the Abbey to decide American claims on their merits, partly through international delicacy, and partly through sheer and unavoidable ignorance. If Americans should ever get into the way of pushing the claims of their deceased worthies to monumental recognition in the Abbey—and that this is possible nobody can doubt who has seen anything of hero-worship—the Dean would find it an extremely ungracious and sometimes almost impossible task to repulse them as the advocates of an overestimated reputation, or, in other words, to tell them plainly that their deceased friend was not the man they supposed he was. In many cases, too, they would not accept his decision in a very gentle spirit, or treat it as the product of anything but English prejudice against American excellence. The rage for putting up monuments to other people as a means of making one's self known, has already shown itself among us, and Westminster Abbey is too attractive a theatre for this kind of display to have escaped observation. It would not be promotive of good feeling on either side of the water, and would be a distinct source of mortification to the best class of Americans, if it should become common for notoriety-hunters to beset the Dean of Westminster for the admission of monuments of Americans whose fame was acknowledged only by a limited circle of their own friends, one of these being a rich man, ready to draw his check for a first-class bust or statue on which his own name should be inscribed as the donor.

And then there is the great difficulty for Englishmen of deciding who our great men are. The ignorance of Englishmen, who know America only through books and newspapers, about the conditions of greatness in this country, is profound. They are very apt to suppose that a conspicuous man, who possesses what they have been taught to consider peculiarly "American traits," must be an object of respect, if not of reverence, to the best portion of his countrymen, when, as a matter of fact, he may be utterly repudiated as a national representative by the only class of Americans whose judgment Englishmen would be willing to take as a certificate of excellence in any intellectual or moral field. There are constantly, in England, Americans revelling in the receipt of consideration as American types which nobody at home would think of according them, who have in fact no social capital but their nativity and the novelty of their manners and ideas. So that Englishmen trying to satisfy themselves whether the American public would be flattered or gratified by the bestowal of an English honor on a given man of whom they know little or nothing themselves, would be plunged into a sea of trouble. They could not send over a commission of inquiry to find out whether Americans really rated A or B as highly as his friends in London said they did.

When Canon Kingsley was over here he delivered a lecture on Westminster Abbey, in the course of which he almost demanded a distinguished American for interment in the Abbey. The extremely humorous way in which the suggestion was met was an excellent illustration of the difficulty there would be in making the Abbey an Anglo-Saxon Valhalla. It elicited much nomination of living persons for the honor; but they were mostly persons of whom the public wished to get rid, and would be pleased to see buried anywhere—not of persons whom it would hold in revered remembrance. In other words, the Canon's proposal, to speak plainly, was treated as a huge joke. In fact, no one can reflect seriously on the question of monuments without

seeing the danger there is, always and everywhere, of putting up memorials of any but a very few of the greatest men immediately or very soon after their death. The popular judgment of any man who has played a conspicuous part, or been much talked of, is more or less disturbed by his disappearance from the scene. A year or two of reflection often reverses, always greatly modifies, the view taken even by his own countrymen of his character and services in the first days of mourning. This danger is doubly great when it is foreigners who have to decide whether he really reached the shining table-lands of deathless fame. For them it is almost a necessity to wait until more than one generation has passed on his work before setting up his image in their streets or churches.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.

PARIS, October 24, 1882.

THE third volume of the correspondence of Madame George Sand* begins at the French Revolution of 1848. On the eve of this great event Madame Sand had no suspicion of it. Speaking of a friend who felt uneasy, to her son Maurice, she said that she saw no reasonable pretext for a revolution in the affair of the *banquets*. "It is an intrigue between falling ministers and rising ministers. If there is a little noise around the banquet hall, there will be only a few murders committed by the police, and I see no reason why the people should side with M. Thiers against M. Guizot. Thiers, to be sure, is better; but he will not give any more bread to the people." She advises her son to avoid the neighborhood of the banqueting: "It would be too stupid to be killed for Odilon Barrot & Co." A few days afterward the Revolution was accomplished. Madame Sand had become the Egeria of some of its leaders: she was intimate with Michel de Bourges; she knew Ledru Rollin; she knew Jules Favre. The new Government sent to all the Communes a "Bulletin des Communes," and Madame Sand inspired this publication, which had for its object the defence of republican ideas. On the 6th of March she writes to her friend Girerd, at Nevers, where he was Commissioner of the Republic:

"The Republic is the best of families, the people is the best of friends. The Republic is saved in Paris; we must save it in the provinces, where its cause is not gained. I did not make your appointment, but I confirmed it, for the minister [Ledru Rollin] has made me, so to speak, responsible for the conduct of my friends, and has given me full powers for encouraging them, stimulating them, and reassuring them against all intrigue on the part of their enemies and all weakness on the part of the Government. So be vigorous, dear brother. In our situation, we need not only devotion and loyalty, we may need fanaticism."

She goes on in this vein; she says that the Government chosen by the people must be essentially revolutionary; that this Provisory Government must choose men as Commissioners who will "lancer l'élection dans une voie républicaine." Such were Madame Sand's ideas on the elections which were to give to France a Constituant Assembly. She felt that France was not republican in the provinces, and that she needed a little pressure. Politics were to her like a novel: the lover cannot succeed at once; he must be tender at times, and at times threatening.

Her peculiar horror was what she called "l'esprit bourgeois." The reign of Louis Philippe had been the triumph of the bourgeois; Madame Sand loved the workingman and the peasant, especially the workingman. "Il n'y a plus de démagogie," she said; she would not allow that odious word to be pronounced. Democracy and demagogy were the same thing. "The people has proved to be handsomer (*plus beau*), greater, purer than all the wealthy and the savants in the world." She would not hear of an aristocratic republic; she was essentially a socialist. Her enthusiasm at that first moment of the Revolution knew no bounds. This is her style:

"I have seen the people great, sublime, candid, generous—the French people in unison with the heart of France, with the heart of the world; the most admirable people in the universe! I have spent many nights without sleeping, many days without sitting down. We are mad, drunk, happy at having gone to sleep in the mud and waked up in the sky! The Republic is safe: we will all die rather than lose her."

She adds immediately that the members of the Provisory Government are all a little incomplete and insufficient. The *People* will do everything. She personifies constantly the People, as she does the Revolution; she is ready to die on the barricades in the defence of the new Republic. She writes to her son, who had been made Mayor of Nohant:

"I am as busy as a statesman. I have written two Government circulars to-day, one for the Minister of Public Instruction, the other for the Minister of the Interior. What amuses me is that as these are addressed to the mayors, you are going to receive officially the instructions of your *mother!* Ah, ah! Mr. Mayor, you will walk straight, and you will read every Sunday one of the 'Bulletins of the Republic' to your National Guard. After you have read it, you will explain it, and then you will post the bulletin on the door of the church."

Here and there curious details are found in the letters to Maurice: "Rothschild is *gardé à vue* by the Provisional Government; they will not let him run away with his money. The Government and the People are on the lookout for bad deputies, and are agreed to throw them out of the window. You will come, we will go together, and we will laugh." When Madame Sand says the People she means the people of Paris. It is impossible to express more candidly what she thought of the rich people, of the majority of the French electors, and of popular representation. If the elections are good—that is to say, go for us—very well; if they are bad, we will throw the deputies out of the window. The theatrical part of the Republic struck Madame Sand more than anything: "We plant liberty trees every day. I met three yesterday, great pines, borne on the shoulders of fifty workingmen; at their head a drum, a flag, and bands of these fine men, strong, grave, crowned with foliage, with axe or pick on their shoulders—it is magnificent!" In April, 1848, she wrote a letter to Lamartine, very characteristic, full of illusions, of hopes, of childish aspirations. It is almost apocalyptic in style; she prophesies the millennium, the reign of the *People*. "The reign of the People is nearer than you think, and if it is near, it is legitimate, it is holy, it is marked on the dial of the ages. . . . You believe that ruin has set in, that the last stones are falling," and so she goes on. I doubt if Lamartine, who was then at the head of the Government, paid much attention to this rambling epistle.

Poor Madame Sand! While she was in this state of fervor the elections took place in the provinces, and we learn from her own letters that in her dear Nohant a manifestation was made against her; the workingmen of La Châtre came in a procession before her château, screaming: "Down with Madame Dudevant! Down with Maurice Dudevant!" A reaction was beginning in Paris against the Communists; the National Guard and the workingmen, who were kept at work in the so-called *Ateliers Nationaux*, at the expense of the State, were at war. Madame Sand had given all her warmest sympathies to the cause of the workingmen, but almost all her personal friends were on the side of order, of conservatism, of the *moderate* Republic. Her heart was torn with conflicting emotions. She describes in her letters the numerous manifestations which were taking place almost daily around the Hôtel de Ville. She had the most extraordinary faculty of admiration. Barbès was "the most honest character she had ever come across; he is a hero." Caussidière was "very good," he was "une belle âme"; and so on, with all the gods and demigods of the democracy. She calls 1848 "l'année de la peur," and she wants to reassure everybody, and is furious with those who are always on the alert, waiting for the noise of the guns. One of her Bulletins, conceived in a sort of terrorist spirit, had produced a great irritation against her. "Je suis pourtant fort tranquille," said she. To be sure, *she* was; but the passions which she had flattered were at work, and were far from being tranquil. The Republic of 1848 was very sensational and operatic:

"The feast of Fraternity has been the finest day in our history. A million of men, forgetting all their differences, forgiving the past, laughing at the future, embracing each other from one end of Paris to the other, to the cry of 'Vive la fraternité!'—it was sublime. . . . From the summit of the Arch of Triumph the sky, the city, the horizon, the green country, the domes of the great buildings in the rain and in the sun—what a setting for the most gigantic human scene ever produced! From the Bastille, from the Observatory to the Arch of Triumph, and even further on, a distance of five leagues beyond Paris, 400,000 guns like a moving wall; the artillery, all the arms of the line, of the *mobile*, of the National Guard, all the costumes, all the pomps of the army, all the rags of the *sainte canaille* [this expression is taken from the 'Iambes' of Barbier]!"

Alas! alas! these four hundred thousand guns were not celebrating a feast of fraternity, and civil war was approaching. As soon as the new National Assembly met in Paris, the clubs made a manifestation against it; the Assembly was invaded, the deputies were expelled. Fortunately the National Guard met at once and saved the Assembly. Barbès, the hero, the leader of the manifestation, was thrown into prison. Madame Sand left Paris, and returned to Nohant. The bloody insurrection of June put an end to the struggle between the National Assembly of France and the clubs of Paris.

Madame Sand was now almost an exile at Nohant; she confided her thoughts only to distant friends—to Mazzini, for instance. She did not like the National Assembly; it was to her the personification of the bourgeoisie, though it had been elected by universal suffrage. All her tendencies were socialistic, and the Assembly was not socialistic. When she speaks of the bourgeoisie she becomes enraged. "Foolish caste! as rash as expiring monarchy, you are playing your last card," etc. She writes to Madame Marliani, in July, 1848: "I believe no longer in a republic which begins with killing its *prolétaires*." To Mazzini she writes, in September, 1848: "The majority of the French people are blind, credulous, ignorant, ungrateful, wicked, and stupid; in one word, bourgeois! There is a sublime minority in the industrial cities and in the great centres, without any connection with the peasants, and destined to be for a long time crushed by the majority. This minority is potentially the People of the future. It is the martyr of humanity." In the year 1849, Madame Sand corresponds with Barbès and with Mazzini. She is in despair; everything is going wrong. She is fallen from her Sinai; she sees the tide of reaction

* *George Sand. Correspondance.* 1812-1876. III. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

rising everywhere. She has even ceased to believe in many men: she sees through Ledru Rollin, through Louis Blanc, through Proudhon; the leaders of the popular cause are not much in her eyes. She preserves her love for the People in the abstract: "I have ten times a day," she writes to Mazzini, "a serious desire to see no more of all this, and to blow my brains out." She is irritated at the slowness and ponderousness of progress. She has come to the conclusion that there is really "nothing to do."

Madame Sand was cheerful by nature, but she writes now in a despairing mood. She says to Mazzini: "I am very happy and tranquil here at Nohant, if one only looks at the surface. The misfortune of my life is in myself. It is in my secret appreciation of all the things which seem so cheerful, but which vibrate in the bottom of my soul such lugubrious chords. . . . Be easy. I wear my costume well, but nobody will probably ever suspect that I am dying of sorrow." This is probably a little exaggerated. Still, it is clear that Madame Sand was not happy, though she had been educated without any moral ideas, and came of a stock in which morality seemed to be extinct (read her 'Memoirs'). She was probably conscious that she had taken a wrong view of life and of its duties. She was not contented with herself, and she was not contented with the world. She was made for a quiet country life, and she had been thrown into a tempest of passions.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN BONDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May another sufferer join the wail of his brother in affliction from Southern bonds? In this district the lands have been taxed for twelve years to pay for levees which were in many places never built. Large areas of our best lands have been sold to the State for taxes, and property has so depreciated that the State recently resold these same lands for less than the tax annually assessed on them, to pay the levee bonds. These bonds for these phantom levees, after twelve yearly payments, are still supposed to exceed in amount the original authorized issue. "One who trusted" and gave value for Southern bonds—a dollar, or ten cents for a dollar, as the case may have been—and loses them by repudiation, suffers a wrong. And the wrong, as he shows, avenges itself in the injured credit of the repudiating State. Though less known to the world, is there not hardship also in the case of the taxpayer who, through many years, pays for bonds he did not create, and from which, in many instances, he has derived no benefit?

Another Sufferer from Southern Bonds.

Friar's Point, Miss., October 30, 1882.

THE LATE ARKANSAS LOAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The statements in a communication in your paper of the 19th ultimo, headed "The Cure for Repudiation," are calculated to produce the impression abroad that the State of Arkansas has recently *failed* utterly to effect a loan of $100,000, after advertising for it. Permit me to say, in correction, that failure to secure the loan at the date bids were advertised to be opened, was due entirely to legal limitation of the *rate* of interest. Responsible bankers outside the State offered to take it at eight per cent., but the Board of Finance had no legal power to accept. Fortunately, the State did, a few days after the date of opening bids, and some two weeks before your correspondent's communication appeared in the *Nation*, effect at home the desired loan, for one year, at six per cent. interest.

It is unnecessary to controvert anything else in your correspondent's homily, but it may improve his frame of mind to learn that Arkansas has redeemed some $2,000,000 of floating and bonded debt since the escape from reconstruction processes, and so far, at least, deserves credit rather than abuse.—Respectfully, etc.,

W. E. Woodruff, Jr., Treasurer.

Little Rock, Ark., Nov. 1, 1882.

RESPECT FOR LIFE AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a Northern man residing in the South, and thus feeling both entitled and obligated to do my mite to stem the current of what I believe to be highly injurious and unjust opinion in regard to that afflicted section of the country, I would beg the privilege of your columns for a few remarks suggested by your last week's article on "The Influence of Homicide on Southern Progress," which implies rather than directly affirms that it is dangerous, or at least unwise, for a Northern man of "peaceful habits" to make his home in the South. I believe that this startling conclusion is entirely unwarranted by the general experience of the class of settlers to which it is intended to apply, and of which I myself am an humble member.

The best intentions of the North are constantly thwarted by the almost total absence of definite and trustworthy knowledge of the South. Misunderstanding is the mother of prejudice and bitterness, and it has proved prolific beyond expression in mutual wrong between the North and the South. It is the poison which alone keeps open and festering the scars and sores of sectional hate, and whose removal is the first condition for sectional harmony. This momentous task must devolve almost entirely on those who settle in the South for ordinary business purposes, who alone are identified with the interests of the South, are admitted to the political, business, and social confidence of the Southern people, and are thus enabled and induced to pass an honest and discerning judgment on Southern character. But little dependence can properly be placed on most of the accounts of Southern newspaper correspondents, who, unfortunately, furnish the bulk of the raw material for Northern public opinion. They often are sent, not in search of the truth, but of evidence to sustain opinions already prescribed for them by their employers. They are hired advocates, not candid judges; yet, sitting in the judgment-seat, they reverse the order of nature, and from ready-made verdicts evolve facts to match. Their letters are valuable in proportion as they are interesting; they are interesting in much the same degree that they are sensational; and, as sensation is a product requiring but a pitifully small outlay of honesty, sense, or industry, it is the staple resort of the mentally-famished correspondent.

Their methods all have a striking family likeness. For example, a little over a year ago, at Dallas, Texas, in an affray between two negroes, one struck the other on the head with a garden-rake, inflicting a wound from which he died the next day. A Northern despatch recited, in words of mysterious significance, that "a negro was killed at Dallas—murderer unknown," and this provided a text for more than one Northern newspaper sermon on *white leagues and intimidation*. The despatch was literally true, but adroitly worded to convey an impression grossly false. I mention this incident because I was present at the act and familiar with all the circumstances, and because it is a typical illustration of how truth is systematically prostituted to the purposes of falsehood.

It will also serve to illustrate an important truth which is generally overlooked, but which I am confident an intimate knowledge of the facts would establish, that the murderer and murdered are regularly of the same race and of the same social class. Castes and classes are well defined; they mingle without associating, and only exceptionally come into collision with each other. Desperadoes kill each other, but seldom annoy those who do not seek their associations. The surest protection is to go unprotected. Thus it is that "immigrants who above all things seek security" are as secure from violence in the South as they are anywhere. I say it with a profound conviction of its truth, that no Northern man who conducts himself with any regard for decency and propriety need fear but that his rights will be properly and peaceably respected. That light regard is too often shown for the value of human life, that the ghost of obsolete and perverted chivalry too often rises to dictate the mode of settling family feuds and broils—all this is unquestionably true; but it is equally unquestionable that these methods are confined to a very limited, and in that respect isolated, class, of which, like all bugbears, we hear very much and see very little, and whose eccentric performances are of about as much importance to ordinary citizens as are the mock duels of the German universities to the peasants of the Rhine. And so far is it from being the fact that "many murders take place of which we never hear," that more probably we hear of many murders which never take place. The South has long been regarded as the regular base of supplies for sensation mongers, and as the supply grows scantier the search grows warmer, until every petty symptom of violence is magnified in the microscope of malignant and hungry criticism into a crime of public depravity and portentous import. Great crimes sometimes occur, but it is as manifestly unjust to charge the whole people with the responsibility for these exceptional cases as it would be to visit the sins of the "Molly Maguires" in the Pennsylvania coal mines on the whole people of the North.

Reputation more often represents what its subject just *has been* than what it actually is: it is the follower, not the companion of conduct. The reputation of the South may possibly typify what the South has been; it certainly does great injustice to her present condition. The conclusion that murder is ever a "necessary incident of business," and that a murder trial must be a farce because "several of the jurors are probably murderers themselves, and all feel that they may have to murder any day as a condition of their residence in the locality," is a stretch of extravagant deduction many years at least behind the truth. No candid and capable person who has seen the South in her misery and degradation; who has received the warm welcome ever extended with a generous hand to all who know how to receive it; who has felt the true pulse of Southern sentiment, and has witnessed her heroic and ceaseless struggle to rise again from the mire of corruption and anarchy, can see without sorrow and pain the publication of such sentiments as these in a journal whose eminence stamps them with an authority which with many settles doubt, and places an injunction on investigation. While the tide of Western immigration is constantly rolling back in a vast undercurrent of discontent, it comparatively seldom occurs that bonâ fide Southern immigrants are disappointed. Surely this would not be the case if the shotgun of the assassin, the duellist, and the desperado were governor de facto over the terrorized victims of savage

ferocity; if the blood-wite of our heathen ancestors were the only mode of redress; if unprovoked and unpunished murder were a regular and "probable contingency of ordinary social life." These extravagant and terrible ideas are fictions of the present, woven from the traditions of the past, and, like a stump in the night which a fevered imagination has converted into a ghost, their terrors vanish on close acquaintance.

W. J. M.

NEW YORK, October 30, 1882.

[As to the first of our correspondent's objections, our answer is that it is wholly irrelevant. We have not been discussing negro murders or "outrages." We know all about the Northern stories on this subject which used to be got up and circulated for electioneering purposes. No journal has more persistently denounced and exposed them than the *Nation*, or began to do so earlier. All that is past, however. We are now concerned with a totally different matter, *the social murder of white men by white men*, and our evidence about them is not derived from the letters of the correspondents of Northern papers, but from Southern papers themselves. Moreover, our view of the matter is recognized as correct by such papers as the Vicksburg (Miss.) *Herald*, which copied our article as containing "many bitter and unpalatable truths, but truths nevertheless," and by the Louisville *Journal and Courier*, which copied it as "a timely article." Moreover, the last-named paper justifies it in an editorial article, which really disposes of our correspondent at one blow:

"Murder is no longer a crime; we reserve our pity and compassion for the 'unfortunate' man who is forced to take life in order to vindicate his honor or carry a political point, or to accomplish a personal end, and take no thought of his victim. Something in the atmosphere seems to have demoralized the very elect; perhaps the real secret of the matter is the fear which now haunts most of us, that some day we may be forced to do what society should make unnecessary—take the life of a man to save our own. . . .

"These are bitter words, but they are true every one of them. Public sentiment on this whole question is rotten to the core; juries are afflicted by it; officers are demoralized and lenient, and executive pardons make criminals of those who otherwise would await the due process of law, and stir up a mob spirit which only military force can suppress."

It is true, the writer refers to crimes occurring in Ohio, as well as in Southern States, in illustration of his thesis, but the rest of his scene is laid in the South.

Our correspondent, too, is in error in saying that we have laid any stress on the frequency of these murders. They *are* frequent, but the horror of them to us lies mainly in the fact that any one of any class in society is exposed to them, and that if at the South you should get into a quarrel with a neighbor, and he should announce his intention of killing you, you would get no support from the public in appealing to the police for protection. You have to arm yourself, and go out and fight like a savage or a wild beast, or else submit to social ostracism. You may live at the South for forty years without having this experience, but you may have it any day, if your boy kills a strange turkey, or your neighbor's cow breaks into your corn; and it is a risk which only the lion-hearted in our time like to incur.

Take the Harrall case, at Selma, Ala., in 1877. The Jones and Harrall families were friends, and people of good position. Young Jones and young Harrall, two boys, had a fight. Mrs. Jones thought her son was in the wrong and sent a note of apology to Mrs. Harrall, with a present of apples for the Harrall boy. Harrall received the note but did not open it, and set the boys to fight again outside his own door. Young Jones went home and told the pitiful tale, and his father, who was lame from a wound, then went to remonstrate with Mr. Harrall, and was met by him at his own door, with Mrs. Jones's apology in his hand, and shot dead. Could anything worse occur among the Ashantees? Yet this cowardly savage was an ex-officer of the Confederate Navy.

Take, again, the case of Colonel Alston in Georgia in 1879, who was murdered by one Cox, because his (Alston's) interest in a joint contract was sold to a person whom Cox did not like. Cox thereupon announced he would kill him, and he followed him with threats and challenges for several days, Alston all the while in great distress of mind, but evidently feeling that the law gave him no protection. He was at last attacked in the State Treasurer's office, and killed. Alston's uncle had been killed in a duel. His father murdered the slayer in the public street, and the slayer's brother soon after murdered him in the same manner.

Take the Cash-Shannon case in South Carolina last year, where an elderly lawyer, of high standing, had to fight a ruffian who did not like his conduct of a case in court, and was brutally murdered accordingly, and his murderer promptly acquitted. We could fill a volume with these horrors. They are numerous, they are atrocious; they cannot be defended, or palliated, or explained. They make Southern civilization a ghastly and shameful mockery. They have no longer the old excuse that they grew out of the hot temper bred by slavery. Slavery is dead. Every human being at the South lives now under the law. The country is blessed in sun, and soil, and station. It has churches, and schools, and courts, and police, and all the paraphernalia of culture, and a population capable of the greatest things either in war or peace, and yet it seems almost as indifferent to public bloodshed as a Central African tribe.—ED. NATION.]

ABRAHAM LINCOLN AS A CIVIL-SERVICE REFORMER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* is doing admirable service in the cause of political reform, and it will be gratifying to its editors to be informed that at least twenty-five years ago the honest, clear-headed and eminently patriotic Abraham Lincoln was very much of their present way of thinking as regards the civil service and the abominations of the "spoils system." I saw much of Mr. Lincoln during the few years immediately preceding his election to the Presidency, and had ample opportunities of ascertaining his "true inwardness" in reference to many subjects which were then, or have since become, questions of national thought and discussion.

I have a very distinct recollection of being present one evening, with a small company of "old Whig" friends, in Mr. Lincoln's room at the old Tremont House, in this city, in the autumn of 1857—he was in attendance at the United States Court, then in session here—when, among other things, the evils of partisan government, as carried out at Washington, were the subject of conversation. All present agreed that James Buchanan owed his nomination and election to the Presidency, the year before, to the potency of the official machinery of Pierce's Administration, which was brought to bear, with all its patronage and influence, in his favor. Mr. Lincoln was very emphatic in his expression of disgust with what is now known as the "spoils system" in politics. I do not recollect his exact words, but his sentiments I well remember. A political party, he said, that cannot maintain itself by virtue of the righteousness and popularity of its principles, and, when in official power, by earning and retaining the respect and confidence of the people, ought to find no permanent place in American politics. Out of power, and seeking power, it is a vagabond, and when in power a usurper and a tyrant. The system of rewards and punishments in party politics, as instituted by Andrew Jackson, and perpetuated by succeeding national administrations, he reprobated. A government, he thought, should be as prudent and discreet in its methods of business as a well-managed private manufacturing establishment, or a mercantile house, the managing heads of which seek trusty and efficient superintendents, agents, and clerks, and, having been fortunate enough to secure such, do not dismiss them without good cause; and when, by death or sale, a great business house changes proprietors and managers, the new administration is generally glad to retain, and deems it necessary to retain, all the experienced and faithful employees of the concern as long as they continue to fulfil their respective trusts. In private business, employers do not ask applicants for employment what their religion is, to which political party they belong, whom they voted for at the last election, or whom they are in favor of for the next President, Governor, or Sheriff; but seek to know whether or not the applicant is practically qualified for the work that he will be required to perform.

Some one suggested: "But did the Whigs keep Democratic appointees in their places when Taylor and Harrison were elected Presidents? and would the Republicans have kept Pierce's appointees in power if Fremont had been elected?" "No," remarked Mr. Lincoln, "there was a cold-blooded sweeping-out of all the Democrats when the Whigs came in, and so it would probably have been had Fremont been elected. But it is all wrong: the system is wrong; the principle of the thing is wrong, because it is not a *businesslike* way of doing business." It punishes the faithful servant by putting him out, merely because he belongs to the other party, and puts a new and untried man in his place simply because Senator Brown, Congressman Jones, or some State or county political leader wants to have him appointed as a reward for party or personal services performed or expected, no matter how mean, low, or dishonorable those services may be. The system is all wrong, Mr. Lincoln thought, and fraught with evil, and evil only. "Let every tub stand upon its own bottom," was one of his favorite expressions, and he thought every political party should be made to stand upon its own bottom of principles and intrinsic merits, and not be permitted to perpetuate itself as the governing power, in nation, State, or municipality, by the arbitrary and reckless use of official patronage, by which in time the very fountains of our political system would be corrupted and poisoned, and the governmental fabric itself go down in noisome rottenness.

I do not pretend to quote Mr. Lincoln's precise

language, but those who knew him well will not doubt the correctness of this report of his expressions, which does not depart materially from verbal fidelity, and is positively a true statement of his sentiments. I had been educated in the New York and Pennsylvania schools of politics, and his ideas, which struck me as very singular, coming from a recognized political leader, impressed me deeply; hence my distinct recollection of the conversation herein outlined. And I recall the fact, also, that nearly every one of the gentlemen present—active politicians—dissented from Mr. Lincoln's sentiments. They thought then, as so many politicians think now, that "to the victor belong the spoils." That brigandish sentiment had become an accepted proverb.

I do not doubt, with a knowledge of Mr. Lincoln's views and broad patriotism, that, but for the fact that a formidable rebellion and a long and bloody civil war absorbed and monopolized his attention during his entire Administration, he would have practically carried out his civil-service ideas, as above indicated, and that there would have been but few, if any, removals from office, except for cause other than political or partisan, and that in this respect his Administration would have been a model one.

May not the time come when, sick and disgusted with the wretched "spoils system," which has come to be the great bane and disgrace of American politics, the people of this country will insist upon placing at the head of the Government a man like Abraham Lincoln, who, relying upon the intrinsic righteousness and the genuine popularity of the *principles* which those represent who have placed him there, will have the courage and the patriotism to put a stop to the abominable system which has converted our Government, in its executive and legislative branches, into a mere machine for the use and the abuse of a horde of loaferish and hungry office-beggars? Lincoln was "the man for the times" as a war President; he met the demands of a very great emergency wisely and faithfully. I am satisfied that he would have done equally well as a peace President. Is it not possible for the American people to find another such as he was, to take his place? Lincoln saved the Government from the assaults of traitors; we need another such now, to save the Government from the assaults of a horde of spoilsmen who are as desperate as traitors, and almost as dangerous. And, in my humble judgment, we shall never have civil-service reform until we shall have established it at the very head of our national affairs—in the Presidential office itself. It must begin at the top, and work downward, until it shall have permeated and regenerated the entire body politic.—Respectfully yours,

ANDREW SHUMAN.

CHICAGO, October, 1882.

Notes.

"PATIENT waiters no losers," is every year brought home to the book-lover of small means. The American practice of making stereotype plates insures in time their use in the production of editions so cheap that even a library binding can be thrown in by the publishers. The latest editions of Mr. Geo. P. Marsh's works (Scribner) and of Hallam and May (Armstrong) are in point. Now we have from Roberts Brothers, Boston, for the admirers of Jean Ingelow, her novels — 'Sarah De Berenger,' 'Don John,' 'Fated to be Free,' and 'Off the Skelligs'—neatly bound in the semblance of calf, and boxed, and sold at a low figure; and, for Mr. P. G. Hamerton's admirers and readers (the terms in his case are almost synonymous, even when opinions differ), his works, got up in the same style, somewhat more elegantly stamped, and making ten volumes, not dearer, proportionately, than their greater size demands. These comprise his varied round of 'Thoughts about Art,' 'The Graphic Arts,' 'A Painter's Camp,' 'Life of Turner,' 'Modern Frenchmen,' 'The Sylvan Year and Unknown River,' 'Round My House,' 'Chapters on Animals,' 'The Intellectual Life,' and 'Wenderholme'—all works characterized by the author's charm of style and, in the critical portions, candor and fair-dealing. At the price fixed upon, many illustrations could not be given, we suppose. They are wholly wanting from the 'Chapters on Animals,' for example, and number but three all told—one a heliotype portrait of the author, another an etched portrait of Leonardo, and the third a woodcut vignette.

Henry Holt & Co. will be the American publishers of the concluding as of the earlier parts of Symonds's 'History of the Renaissance in Italy'—viz., 'The Italian Literature' (in two parts).

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. announce for speedy publication the 'Memoirs of Mrs. Prentiss,' and 'The English Versions [of the Bible],' including the Anglo Saxon, by J. I. Mombert, D.D.

Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. have in press for immediate publication 'Evangeline: The Place, the Story, and the Poem,' by Prof. Noah Porter, President of Yale College. It will make an elegant large folio volume, limited to 500 copies, numbered and signed by Prof. Porter, containing nineteen original illustrations by Frank Dicksee, A.R.A., fifteen of which are reproduced in photogravure by Messrs. Goupil & Co., of Paris, and four are proof impressions on India paper from the original blocks.

Mr. R. Caldecott had no difficulty as an Englishman in illustrating Irving's 'Bracebridge Hall' and 'Old Christmas' (Macmillan). The sixpenny quarto editions thus charmingly adorned give us back our own author and something more—Old England as taken off by an artist of skill, humor, and imagination, in a field where he is at home.

Ginn, Heath & Co. have issued separately the Notes and Vocabulary to Prof. H. B. Boisen's 'Preparatory Book of German Prose.'

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have devised a "Longfellow Calendar" and an "Emerson Calendar," reminders of the double loss in one year which our letters have sustained. The principal design of the latter is the more artistic and less conventional, but the first involves a portrait of Mr. Longfellow. The blocks, of course, are provided with selections for every day.

Dr. O. W. Holmes's retirement from his Harvard professorship to devote himself to literary pursuits, we will not say once more, but more freely, means, among other things, that he will reappear in the pages of the *Atlantic* "frequently and exclusively" during the coming year—to quote the prospectus of that periodical.

Mr. W. H. Bishop's 'House of a Merchant Prince,' which has been running through the *Atlantic*, will take book shape in a few weeks. It has for New Yorkers the interest of local color.

We have received from the *Century* Co. the second bound volume of the new series of that magazine, rich, as usual, in valuable reading-matter and in woodcuts. The portraits of Lowell, Emerson, Wagner, Lincoln, and Cardinal Newman are among the memorable achievements with the graver. The foregoing was accompanied by two volumes of *St. Nicholas*, or the two parts of vol. ix., for 1882, which maintain the well-known character of this juvenile.

Geo. H. Ellis, Boston, has ready the seventh American edition of Miss Frances Power Cobbe's 'Duties of Women.' Her preface, written in September, opens with a reference to the passage during that month of the Married Women's Property Act, by which "the dreary legal fiction that 'husband and wife constitute one person, and that person is the husband,' has been at last renounced and abolished."

A revised edition of President Andrew D. White's 'Paper-Money Inflation in France' has been brought out as Economic Tracts No. vii. by the Society for Political Education (4 Morton Street, New York).

The Mercantile Library of Philadelphia adds one more Bulletin to those already in existence. It bears date of October 1, and contains a sketch of the history of the library, lists of new books, and an exposition of the new system of classification adopted by Mr. Edmands, the librarian.

Daniel Webster and The Gregorian Calendar are the topics of the October *Reference List* of the Providence Public Library.

The much-disputed Calaveras skull is figured and defended in the *American Naturalist* for November.

The *Deutsche Rundschau* for October speaks in terms of high praise, as well it may, of Mr. W. M. Griswold's author and subject-index of that representative magazine. A surprising gift from across the water, it calls it; a model of industry and accuracy; a little work of genius in its way, etc. And it confesses the German deficiency in the matter of indexing. The *Revue Critique*, by the by, transforms Mr. Griswold's trade-mark into "O. P. Index (*nom prédestiné*)."

The good *Polybiblion*, blundering likewise, mistakes Mr. Wyman's Bacon-Shakspere bibliography for a "treatise relative to this question," and says if the Baconian theory be not a joke, it can only have been advanced by a lunatic; evidently giving Mr. Wyman the horns of the dilemma.

Paul Lindau's 'Nüchterne Briefe aus Bayreuth,' published in 1876, has reached no less than eleven editions. His letters on the "Parsifal" festival, which were originally written for the Cologne *Gazette*, bid fair to rival their predecessors in popularity. The fifth edition of the pamphlet form has already been received by Westermann & Co. Lindau is one of the few North German critics whose wit preponderates over their erudition, and this accounts for his popularity. He has so far altered his views since 1876 that no Wagnerite can take offence at them; but there is sufficient criticism and banter to have afforded a London paper opportunity to misrepresent entirely Lindau's views by translating only these passages, and leaving out every word of praise "for want of space."

Good news comes from Germany that C. von Kalckstein is to add a sixth and seventh volume to the five in which Lanfrey began the history of Napoleon I. They will be in German, however, to accompany the second edition of C. von Glümer's translation of Lanfrey, which has just appeared at Minden (Bruns, publisher), with an introduction by Adolf Stahr.

In the course of a communication to the Academy of Inscriptions, M. Maspero mentioned a curious trick of the dealers in antiquities at Alexandria. They want to replenish their stock; they do not want to be at the expense of hiring diggers; and although they can, and no doubt do, have antiquities manufactured to order, it is cheaper still to persuade Europeans to undertake excavations by false stories of the existence of important tombs. Then they fish in the troubled waters—in other words, they pick up the fragments which are always turned up in large quantities whenever the soil of Alexandria is disturbed.

The organ of the German colony at Paris, the

Deutsche Pariser-Zeitung, is obliged to move its office of publication to Frankfort, because its printer in Paris, Pichon, is afraid to serve it in consequence of the attacks on the German Turnverein, and the other printers have unanimously refused to take his place. What with attacks on the Chinese in California and London, on the Jews in Germany, Austria, and Russia, and on the Germans in France, the last quarter of the nineteenth century will hardly go down to posterity as the Era of Brotherly Love.

We have already (in No. 893 of the *Nation*) described Dr. Otto Zöckler's 'Handbuch der Theologischen Wissenschaften.' Part 2 of the first volume, completing the Biblical Exegesis, now comes to us from B. Westermann & Co., at a date which precludes the idea that the work will be finished by Christmas, as there are two more volumes yet to appear. The same firm sends us Parts 50–53 of the colored edition of Brehm's 'Thierleben,' and Part 2 of Kürschner's 'Deutsche National-Literatur.' This last, by what seems a mistaken policy, is not a continuation of Part 1 (Goethe's 'Faust'), but a fragment of another age, work, and author—Grimmelshausen's 'Abenteuerlicher Simplicissmus' (1669), which has a leading place in the history of German romance. It is well equipped with an introduction, historical, biographical, and critical, with facsimiles, etc., but the reader who does not know when the end of the story will come to hand must lack the courage to begin. One might suspect this mode of publication to have regard to the convenience of the several co-laborers; but the break is made not in the prefatory matter, but in the reprint of the text—that is, in the portion requiring least labor on the editor's part.

—Whoever wishes to inspect a book "made to sell," if there be such a person, may fully gratify his curiosity and view a typical example in 'Our Lost Explorers: the Narrative of the *Jeannette* Arctic Expedition,' etc. (479 pp., 8vo, Hartford: American Publishing Co.). The title consists of ninety words, which, it seems, are insufficient, since to them are added two "&c." and one "etc." There are a large number of illustrations badly copied from the 'Voyage of the *Vega*' and other Arctic books, but they are good by comparison with the minority, which appear to be original. One octavo page is devoted to two wretched maps. There is no index. The introduction, by a doctor of divinity, compares stories of Arctic experiences to the adventures of Tom Sawyer. The volume purports to be revised by Mr. Newcomb, naturalist of the expedition. About one-fifth of the book is devoted to his narrative, and about half of that relates to the voyage proper and the retreat. In this portion a careful examination has failed to discover any contribution of importance either to the history of the expedition or the natural history of the polar regions. There may be official reasons for this, but they are not stated. The rest of the work is a mere compilation from works familiar to all students of Arctic matters, and from the columns of the New York *Herald*. It is a matter for regret that any member of the expedition should have lent his name to a publication so meagre in its scope and so mediocre in its execution.

—In 1878, Macmillan & Co. issued a prospectus of a facsimile reprint of the seven books printed by John Siberch, in 1521 and 1522, after which there was no more printing in Cambridge till 1584, owing to the claims of the Company of Stationers. Nothing is known of Siberch except that he printed these seven books. They are extremely rare; of one only a single copy is known, and of three there is no copy in the city where they were printed. Only 250 copies are to be reprinted, perhaps less. Plainly, nothing is wanting to excite the bibliophile to bibliomania, except that the price is so moderate, only three guineas for the set. The reprint of Linacre's translation of Galen 'De Temperamentis' has been issued, and is entirely satisfactory. The facsimilation is secured apparently by some photographic-lithographic process; the paper is an excellent imitation in color and texture of the hand-made paper of the period; a portrait of Linacre is prefixed, and an interesting Introduction of over forty pages by J. F. Payne, Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, in which the life of the author is detailed at length. Linacre, besides being one of the four contemporaries of Colet at Oxford, who had studied in Italy, was founder of the College of Physicians (a foundation which in a sense created the profession of physician in England), and translator of six works of Galen, and of Proclus's 'De Sphæra,' to say nothing of his 'Rudimenta Grammatices,' of which there are innumerable editions, and his 'De emendata Structura Latini Sermonis.'

—In the first volume of the Washington observations (1845) there is an account by Lieutenant Maury of how the whole Observatory (which had been carefully planned by Gilliss, a competent astronomer) was "rigged from a girt-line" and "got under way with raw hands." Most of that volume is a refutation of Lieutenant Maury's idea that, "from the nature of his calling, every Navy officer properly qualified and accomplished in his profession is also a practical astronomer." The good work of this volume was done by Professors Coffin, Hubbard, and Walker, who were not raw hands, even then. The work of the naval officers of the line, with one or two exceptions, was just what one would expect from "raw hands," and this work is to-day carefully separated from that of the professional astronomers when any precise datum is wanted. This is no disgrace to them, but is inherent in the nature of the case. The work of the Observatory for the years 1846, 1847, 1848, and 1849 fell more and more into the hands of the professional astronomers, and with the publication of the volume for the year 1846 the reputation of the Naval Observatory began to grow. After 1851, almost the whole force of the institution was devoted to the collection of data for the excellent wind and current charts of Lieutenant Maury. These were of high excellence, but they fell under the Hydrographic Office, then a department of the Observatory, but now a separate institution. No astronomical work was published from 1852 till 1861, when Maury deserted the naval service of the United States. After that date, the Observatory has either been in the hands of men of astronomical acquirements, or of others who had sympathy enough with the science, or fear enough of showing their own incapacity, to insure that the professional astronomers should practically control its purely astronomical activity. Its administrative head has always been a line officer of the Navy—usually a Rear Admiral. This plan has not worked very badly, for the reasons given, and also because the official relations with the Navy Department are necessarily close, and its purely routine business was very properly done in this way. The idea that a naval officer could be "ordered" to do anything, and by that fact become able to do it—as it were spontaneously and by the act of God—had become gradually extinct at the Naval Observatory after Lieutenant Maury's departure. This idea prevailed for a while at the Naval Academy, where naval officers were temporarily detached from sea-service to teach analytical chemistry, astronomy, or English grammar, as the case might be. It then declined, and the departments there are now under permanent and professional heads.

—With the death of the last Superintendent of the Naval Observatory, a new system has been adopted, or rather the exploded system of Lieutenant Maury's administration has been revived. The various instruments are being gradually turned over to line officers, and there appears to be a general disposition to recur to the pleasing delusion that a "detail" is all that is necessary to make a practical astronomer. The professional astronomers of the country wish all success to the Naval Observatory, which is so well provided with instruments and funds, and by which so much good and faithful work has been done. But it is certain that the system now revived will not work, and it is a matter of regret that a new generation will not learn from the experience of the past, but requires a brand-new demonstration. The experiment now being tried at the Observatory is worth watching for a little while. It will be amusing, and it is to be hoped that it will not be greatly harmful. If it becomes so, it is certain to come to an end promptly.

—We have several times referred to the work of the North Atlantic Expedition sent out in 1876-8 by the Norwegian Government, under the direction of Prof. H. Mohn and a commission appointed for the purpose, assisted by a scientific staff. Two additional numbers of the report are at hand. No. iv. of the series comprehends, in part 1, an historical account, by Captain Wille, of the Norwegian Navy, of the expedition, its beginnings and field operations. It originated in a petition by Professors Mohn and Sars, backed by the influence of the Norwegian Coast Survey, the University, and the fishing interests. A wooden steamer, the *Vöringen*, of about 350 tons, was hired for the purpose; she proved satisfactory and efficient under Captain Wille's command, but was destitute of anything like elegance in her fittings, and, in fact, as we know from personal inspection, afforded but crowded, bare, and uncomfortable quarters for the unsalaried scientific staff. Her portrait in the frontispiece is too flattering by half. The area examined might be almost wholly included by a line drawn from Bergen, in Norway, to the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Jan-Meyen, the northwest corner of Spitzbergen, Bear Island, and Hammerfest, which, with the coast of Norway, forms a large quadrilateral. The net cost of the expedition, on completion, was kr. 249,000, or about $62,225. This is exclusive of the annual grant since made by the Storthing, for the purpose of publishing these reports. Part 2, also by Captain Wille, describes the apparatus for deep-sea work and its use. Fine hemp line was used for sounding and dredging, only the Americans at that time having made a success with wire. The apparatus is well illustrated. It comprised, among other less interesting things, the water-bottle invented by Captain Wille; a pendulum governor of Lieutenant Petersen's, to cut off steam automatically when the pitching of the vessel in bad weather raised the propeller above water; and a modification of Brooke's sounding apparatus, much like the "Hydra" machine of Captain Shortland. The expedition spent, in three years, about nine months actually in the field, during which time were taken about 350 deep soundings, ninety-four sets of serial temperatures, and seventy-five hauls of dredge or trawl. Considering that one sounding in 2,000 fathoms with the hemp line may take fourteen hours to complete, the list speaks well for the energy of the expeditionary corps.

—Number v. contains three parts or articles: the first, on the astronomical observations by Professor Mohn, is chiefly interesting from the results, which place Jan-Meyen about nine miles west of its location on the sailing-charts, and for the new determinations at Advent Bey, Spitz-

bergen, which was surveyed and mapped for the first time. The second part relates to magnetic observations by Captain Wille, with an illustration of an azimuth compass invented by that officer and now officially adopted in the Norwegian Navy. Lastly, part third, by Professor Mohn, speaks of the geographical results and general observations in terrestrial natural history by the expedition. This chapter relates almost wholly to Jan-Meyen, of which the best existing account is to be found here. It is illustrated by chromotypes, artistically drawn, without exaggeration in color—real gems in their way—and there are a number of interesting cuts in the text. The island of Jan-Meyen is chiefly remarkable for the snow-clad cone of Beerenberg, which rises 6,400 feet above the sea, and is belted by a glacier which in several places reaches to the sea. Ten species of flowering plants were found, Arctic foxes, and eight or ten waterfowl. Changes of shore line and of glacial extension are indicated by a comparison of old with the new data. Spitzbergen, Bear Island, and Vestmänna have each a characteristic plate. These reports are now accessible through Sampson Low & Marston, London. That by Friele on the mollusca, and the report on the crustacea, are not yet issued.

—One of the leading characteristics of the late Charles Darwin was his avoidance of a direct expression of opinion in regard to religious matters. Great interest was therefore felt in a letter written by him to a student at Jena, published in the October number of the *Rundschau*, in the course of a lecture by Professor Haeckel on "Die Naturanschauung von Darwin, Goethe, und Laplace." Doubts having been raised in this young man's mind by a perusal of Darwin's books, he wrote to him for a clear statement of his views. His letter was answered by a relative of Darwin, who stated that the great naturalist was in too poor health and too busy to answer such difficult questions. A second letter, however, elicited a direct response in Darwin's own handwriting and signed by him. Literally translated from the German, as given in the *Rundschau*, the principal sentences read as follows: "Science and Christ have nothing to do with each other, except in so far as the habit of scientific investigation makes a man cautious about accepting any proofs. As regards myself, I do not believe that any revelation has ever been made. With regard to a future life, every one must draw his own conclusions from vague and contradictory probabilities." In regard to this letter, Mr. C. M. Ingleby, the Shaksperean scholar, writes to the London *Academy* that he thinks it is mispunctuated, and ought to read: "As regards myself, I do not believe that any revelation has ever been made in respect to a future life. Every man must make his decision between contradictory and undetermined probabilities." "What Darwin had it in hand to say," says Mr. Ingleby, "was that the curtain which veils the future had, in his view, never been lifted. He was the last man in the world to say that *no* revelation *of any sort* had ever been made." This view seems to be supported by Haeckel's statement that the student (who was one of his pupils) asked Darwin for an explanation "especially of his views on the immortality of the soul." But the German text does not admit of any such interpretation, on account of an *aber* (but) at the beginning of the last sentence. One interpretation is about as unfavorable to the orthodox view as the other; but it would be interesting nevertheless to know what Darwin did write. From what he says elsewhere of his knowledge of German, it does not seem probable that he wrote to the student in that language. If he wrote in English, cannot we have the original of his letter, and thus set at rest all doubts?

—Some one has found lately in Holland two priced inventories of pictures, one of the seventeenth, and one of the eighteenth century. In the list of 1649, Teniers's "Alchemist" is priced 25 florins, his "Peasants" the same, and six pictures by Cuyp are set at 45 to 52 florins. A century later a Teniers brought 70 florins, a Van Ostade the same, a Metzu 105 florins, and a marine scene by Vandevelde as high as 400 florins. From 40 to 70 florins in a century is certainly some advance for Teniers; but compare these prices with those of the Hamilton sale, where the Dutch pictures were especially sought for. There a Vandevelde brought £304, a Teniers £231, and another £945. A Jan Breughel, which sold in 1865 for £13.10, brought £304, and one which (with another) went for 19 guineas in 1822, was sold alone for £115 sixty years later. However, this enhancement of value is not confined to paintings. A service of "Meissen ware made between 1720 and 1730" was advertised recently in French papers for sale at 500,000 francs. Furniture was as dear at the Hamilton sale. Books were dearer at the Sunderland sale. In fact, we have it from good authority that the whole Sunderland library was offered to an institution in this country two or three years ago for £25,000, whereas the three-fifths of it already sold have brought over £36,500. Horses, too, are not cheap. Still, the best price at the sale of the Dangu breeding stud, £6,000 for Rayon d'Or (bought by an American), was not to be compared to the £12,500 that Blair Athol fetched. And yet Rayon d'Or won the St. Leger and £24,000 of stakes.

—Dr. Eugene Hubert, Professor of History in the Athenæum of Liége, has published, in a thick octavo, a dissertation (on taking the degree of Doctor in the Historical Sciences) upon a subject of especial interest to Americans—the condition of the Protestants in Belgium from Charles V. to Joseph II. This covers in part ground made familiar to us by Motley's histories; Belgium consisting of the southern portion of the seventeen provinces which took part in the revolt against Spain, and were temporarily united by the Pacification of Ghent (1576). The masterly policy of Alexander Farnese, succeeded in detaching these provinces from those to the north, and preserving them to Spain and Catholicism. This treatise is therefore in a sense a continuation of Motley's history, tracing the fortunes of the Reformed religion from the wars of the sixteenth century until the Edict of Toleration in 1781. In the opening chapter it is shown that the intolerance of Philip II. was but carrying out the policy of his father, who "drew up the terrible penal code against heresy" and introduced the Inquisition into the Netherlands. The author finds it hard to understand how Protestants can show so much favor to Charles V. as compared with his son. In his opinion, "if either of the two sovereigns is excusable, it is certainly Philip II.: he at least was firmly convinced of his providential mission, and believed himself a new Constantine, while it may be doubted whether Charles V. was guided by his faith ratherthan by his political views" (p. 33). The example of intolerance thus set was readily followed by the opposite party whenever it found itself in power, and the noble Religious Peace of William the Silent (1578) soon became a dead letter, in the Protestant as well as the Catholic provinces. The principal part of the work is occupied in tracing the history of the provinces while in the occupation of Spain and Austria.

—Francis Garnier, in a chapter on "Le Rôle de la France dans l'extrême Orient en Chine et en Indo-Chine," republished from the *Revue Scientifique* in his 'De Paris à Tibet,' just issued by Hachette, makes some remarks about the Catholic missionaries that may be interesting to our missionary societies. He does not believe that they will ever convert the Chinese, because that nation has no religious sentiment, and is only accessible to considerations of material interest. They might acquire an influence by scientific superiority, but instead of that they land with a great provision of theological knowledge, and entirely ignorant of the history and character of the people whom they come to Christianize, and hardly more advanced in physics, chemistry, medicine, than the Chinese themselves. Absolutely isolated, without books, receiving from home only the *Annales de la Propagation de la Foi*, which relate their own labors, in the course of fifteen or twenty years they become Chinese themselves. M. Garnier may be remembered as the young explorer and conqueror who took Hanoi and got possession of all lower Tonkin in less than a month.

—Those who entered the Brooklyn Academy of Music on Friday afternoon about 3 o'clock must have noticed a large number of ladies standing in the hall with long, disappointed faces. They were unable to get even admission tickets to the rehearsal for the first concert of the Philharmonic Society. Inside, the seats and aisles were so crowded that it was difficult to secure one's seat. The cause of this state of affairs lay in the numerous attractions offered—the superb orchestra, increased to 120 instrumentalists, and as usual under the direction of Mr. Thomas; the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Society, and the character of the programme, one of the finest ever presented in Brooklyn or any other city. It began with Cherubini and led through Mozart to Liszt and Wagner. Cherubini's Lodoiska overture is a bright and lively composition with the grace of Mozart's works, but not their spontaneity. The orchestra played it with a brilliancy and finish that might have led one to imagine that this was the last instead of the first concert of the season. The Pastoral Symphony had the same good fortune, barring a momentary disturbance of the audience (not the orchestra or its impassive leader) by a false alarm of fire. The symphony was preceded and followed by vocal selections: Mozart's "Mia speranza adorata" and Liszt's famous "Loreley," one of the most admirable of modern songs. Miss Thursby, who sang these selections with a clear, silvery voice, is a great favorite in Brooklyn, and persistent efforts were made by some unreasonable people to make her sing again. The limitations of her voice in the sphere of passionate expression were more noticeable in the Liszt than in the Mozart song. After Liszt came the novelty of the evening, a portion of the third act of "Parsifal," which was, by the musicians themselves at Bayreuth and all competent judges, pronounced the finest act of the three from a musical point of view. Wagner has in his latest works more and more achieved his ideal of making words, music, and scenery so interwoven and dependent on each other, that a separation of these factors greatly impairs the effect. In "Parsifal" there are for this reason fewer passages adapted for concert use than in any of its predecessors; but there are a few, and the "Good Friday's Spell" selected by Mr. Thomas is perhaps the best of them. It is really a pastoral symphony in one movement, almost equal in quiet charm of color to the famous "Waldweben" or "Voices of the Forest" from "Siegfried," and as full of little buds and flowers of melody as the meadow on which *Parsifal* and *Gurnemanz* are supposed to be gazing. The vocal parts were well rendered by Mr. Werrenrath and Herr Holst Hansen, and in the orchestral part the quiet, whispering movement and rich color

were reproduced to perfection. The Benediction alone, which begins the movement, loses much of its grandeur, since on the operatic stage it comes in as a well-prepared climax. New York and Brooklyn audiences will soon become familiar with the various motives of the "Good Friday's Spell," and gladly see it recur on their programmes. The Introduction and Finale to "Tristan and Isolde" closed the concert. This ocean of passionate and turbulent sound is one of the greatest achievements of modern music. The force of the crescendo in the finale, the most sustained ever written, was reproduced by the orchestra in a manner never equalled within our experience.

—Dr. Damrosch opened his series of concerts last Saturday evening with an admirable programme. It comprised Beethoven's overture, "The Consecration of the House"—appropriate as an indication of the Society's emigration from Steinway Hall to the Academy of Music—the "Heroic" symphony, and the finale of the first act of Wagner's "Parsifal." The execution, unfortunately, was not equal to the programme. In former seasons Dr. Damrosch's orchestra embraced a large number of Philharmonic musicians, but this year it had to be made independent of that organization on account of several conflicts in concert dates. While the creation of two independent orchestras must be recognized as an advantage, it cannot be denied that the new orchestra is deficient in many of those qualities which entitle the Philharmonic to rank among the very first orchestras in existence. The brass is somewhat rough and clumsy, and the strings, although better than the brass, do not have the resonance, unanimity, and brilliant transparency to which we are accustomed. Nor do they always respond with that electric promptness which enables a conductor to play on an orchestra as on a Steinway grand. Some of these defects will doubtless be overcome in time; and in one respect Dr. Damrosch has already accomplished wonders: the shading in the Beethoven overture and symphony was very delicate and effective. But the "Parsifal" selections were very poorly rendered; five or six further rehearsals would have been required to do them justice. It would have been unfair to expect all the effect this music produces when the eye at the same time feasts on the magnificent spectacle of the knights seated at a semicircular table partaking of the last supper, or marching in solemn procession under the pillared dome, or beholding *Amfortas* holding up the crystal cup, which gradually assumes a deep purple hue and again grows dark, amid the mysterious orchestral harmonies; but it was fair to expect the confidence due to a thorough familiarity with the score, a perfect intonation and precision, and a thorough consensus of vocal and instrumental parts. Wagner's music generally consists of several interwoven motives, each of which demands its proper emphasis, or else the whole perspective is lost. This emphasis cannot be given unless the parts have been fully assimilated. Saturday's performance was wanting in clearness; it was like an object seen through an imperfectly adjusted telescope. The male chorus lacked confidence, and almost entirely missed its opportunities; the "youths" (tenors) were out of tune, and even the boys were not so satisfactory as they were at the last private rehearsal. The boys' voices were the weakest part of the Bayreuth performance, since it was impossible in so small a city to secure a sufficient number of good voices. It would, therefore, not have been very difficult to score a point in this respect. Add to this that a thin veil hovered over the bright orchestral colors and dimmed their lustre, and the unsatisfactory general result becomes apparent. We sincerely hope that, after thorough rehearsal, the finale will be repeated at a subsequent performance. In order to give prominence to the bell motive it will be necessary to secure four genuine Oriental tam-tams. The instruments used on Saturday were almost as deficient in pitch as a bass-drum. At the first Bayreuth performances a similar difficulty occurred; but it was subsequently overcome, as we noticed at the seventh repetition. The arrangement adopted at the Academy of placing the male chorus higher than the orchestra, the tenors in the first middle proscenium box, and the boys higher still, out of sight, was quite in accordance with Wagner's intentions. The selection was well received by the audience, and Dr. Damrosch was recalled with loud applause.

ROBERTSON SMITH'S LECTURES ON THE PROPHETS.

The Prophets of Israel, and their Place in History, to the Close of the Eighth Century B.C. Eight Lectures by W. Robertson Smith, LL.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

REVELATION, as Professor Smith understands it, follows the laws of historical progress; grace does not break through the fixed laws of nature; the moral world has its order like the material cosmos; the sovereignty of revealing grace lies not in its arbitrariness, but in its dominion over the moral order of things. God's personal relations to man are perfected by the same methods as the personal relations of a man to his fellows. Revelation must have a history; it must grow up by slow degrees, obeying a principle of internal development. The notion of a mechanical series of covenants or dispensations is an obsolete one. All right thoughts of God in every nation come from God himself, but there is also a personal dealing of God with men, a special dealing with chosen individuals. Not every body's knowledge of God comes directly through the voice of conscience and nature; there is a positive element in all religion; there are new truths, acquired by some particular man or circle of men through personal divine revelation. Christianity must ultimately be traced back to such acts of revelation, following and completing each other at definite times in the same circle, in connection with the history of a limited section of mankind. One society only could receive the whole series of divine teachings in a consecutive form. That society, in remote antiquity, could be no other than a nation, free international interchange of ideas being then impossible. The true religion was developed in Israel in a national form. Its culmination in Christ coincided, "under divine providence," with the establishment of a cosmopolitan system of politics and culture under the first Roman emperors; it thus became a religion for all mankind. All this development shows a unity of scheme; it is unique. Was it miraculous? "It is not necessary," answers our author in a rather cautious way, "to encumber the argument by comparing the way in which individual divine communications were given to Israel with the way in which the highest thinkers of other nations came to grasp something of spiritual truth." The reality of miracles "is the very thing in the teaching of Scripture which it is most difficult to prove."

"We must remember above all things that the Bible knows nothing of that narrow definition of miracle which we have inherited from mediæval metaphysics. When Isaiah draws a distinction between Jehovah's *wonders* and the things of daily life, he thinks of something quite different from what we call miracle. 'Forasmuch as this people draw near me with their mouth, and with their lips do honor me, but have removed their heart far from me, and their fear toward me is a precept of men learned by rote; therefore, behold I will proceed to do a marvellous work among this people, even a marvellous work and a miracle, and the wisdom of their wise men shall perish, and the understanding of their prudent men shall be hid' (xxix. 13, 14). A marvel or miracle is a work of Jehovah directed to confound the religion of formalism, to teach men that Jehovah's rule is a real thing, and not a traditional convention to be acknowledged in formulas learned by rote. And the mark of such a work is not that it breaks through laws of nature—a conception which had no existence for Isaiah—but that all man's wisdom and foresight stand abashed before it."

The reader who is in any way familiar with recent literature on the Old Testament will at once perceive that Professor Smith shares the standpoint of Kuenen regarding the conception of Hebrew prophecy, as expounded by that Dutch scholar in his great work on the subject. Those who have read Smith's lectures on 'The Old Testament in the Jewish Church'—of which the present lectures are a kind of continuation, to be followed by another treating of the post-Exile period—or know on what grounds his contributions to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' have been condemned by an over-zealous ecclesiastical tribunal, need not be told that in his critical view of the composition of the Pentateuch (and the Old Testament historical books in general) he is a stanch follower of Graf, Kuenen, and Wellhausen, whose powerful demonstrations have left little to the authorship of Moses—under whatever title authorship for him may be claimed—have divested the prophets of the character of interpreters of the written Law, and relegated the great mass of what was formerly deemed Mosaic legislation, including all the priestly enactments, to the Chaldæan and Persian periods of Hebrew history and literature. This theory has completely revolutionized the early history of Israel and of Israel's religion. "The Pentateuch as we now have it is not the immediate record of the institutions of Moses, but the last codification of the divine teaching begun by Moses, and carried on and perfected through many centuries by the discipline of history and the word of the prophets who took up Moses' work." Moses himself becomes a very shadowy historical personage, and his Jehovah a national god, not a metaphysical entity: "even the principle of the second commandment, that Jehovah is not to be worshipped by images, which is often appealed to as containing the most characteristic peculiarity of Mosaism, cannot, in the light of history, be viewed as having had so fundamental a place in the religion of early Israel." Neither did Samuel teach Israel any system of metaphysical theology. Even Elijah and Elisha combated only Baal, and not the calves of Bethel or Dan, which represented Jehovah.

The difference between the Jehovah of old and the Baals of the nations surrounding Israel "lies in the personal character of Jehovah, and in the relations corresponding to his character which he seeks to maintain with his people." The heathen deities had, properly speaking, no personal character. They were conceived, it is true, as persons, as capable of sensations, emotions, and affections; but the attributes ascribed to them were merely a reflex of those of their worshippers. The god was on the same ethical level with his people. Not so Jehovah. He had a will and purpose of his own—a higher, divine will and purpose. To know and serve him aright involved a moral effort, a frequent sacrifice of human inclination. His dealings with Israel displayed his character and will, both unchangeable. He purposed the felicity of Israel, but did not adapt himself to Israel's desire or convenience. Israel must rise to him, recog-

nize his character and walk in its light. He ruled Israel, as sovereign and judge, with absolute righteousness, and righteousness he demanded. Other nations were differently ruled by their capricious gods. "And the advance of the Old Testament religion is essentially identified with an increasing clearness of perception of the things which this character of the Deity involves. The name of Jehovah becomes more and more full of meaning as faith in his sovereignty and self-consistency is put to successive tests in the constantly-changing problems presented by the events of history." But down to the time of Amos, many centuries after Moses, the record of the religious life of the Hebrews is too fragmentary to allow the historian to follow it in detail. Our author avoids entering into inquiries as to how much of the law of the Pentateuch was already known to that "father of written prophecy"; he casts a veil over the Sinaitic legislation; he significantly points to the facts that in the time of Solomon the introduction of foreign worships passed without popular challenge, that in Judah the temples dedicated by that king to heathen divinities were left untouched till long after the time of Elijah, and that it was this prophet who, under Ahab, first violently agitated in the Northern Kingdom against the worship of any other divinity but Jehovah. To Elijah, Jehovah was preëminently a jealous God; where he was worshipped no other god could be recognized in any sense; he knew no rival. The God of Israel now rose above all the world.

When Amos and prophets like him speak of Jehovah as the Creator of heaven and earth, the omnipotent and righteous ruler of all nations, they utter no new truth, though the mass of the people still ignore what has long been taught. The key-note of Amos's prophecy lies in the words, "You only have I known of all families of the earth: therefore I will punish you for all your iniquities." Israel's guilt is its declension from a standard of morality neither common to all nations nor new, but already set before it by the unique Jehovah, who had chosen this nation. Prophets had taught Israel to know Jehovah as protector and judge, just and omnipotent, and had inculcated his precepts—not in the light of the Deuteronomic and Levitical laws, then yet unknown, but in that of living history, the heart, and the conscience. A vivid oral tradition had accumulated a rich stock of sacred story, which formed a powerful agency of religious education, and eventually became Biblical. Amos hears, while all around seem deaf, the voice of Jehovah thundering forth judgment; he understands the secret it reveals—not abstract theological truth, but God's supreme righteousness and the hideousness and fatal consequences of iniquity; he sees the Assyrian, the rod of his chastisement, looming up; and he cannot but prophesy. Not Israel alone is concerned, but all the nations around. Amos's Jehovah is "he that formed the mountains and created the wind, and treadeth upon the high places of the earth." He has brought Israel out of Egypt, but also the Philistines from Caphtor and the Aramæans from Kir. He views the crimes of Damascus, Ammon, Moab, or Edom, not with the eye of a king of Israel, but of a sovereign of the world. His wrath falls upon the heathen nations, not because they do not worship him like Israel, but because they have, like Israel, broken the universal laws of humanity. The sinners of Israel are not better in his sight than Ethiopians. In vain do they rely on their worship; he detests their feast days, their burnt-offerings and thank-offerings, the noise of their songs and the melody of their viols. What he demands is to "let justice flow like waters and righteousness as an unfailing stream." The ritual service is to Amos altogether a thing without importance in itself; the sanctuary has even become the centre of Israel's corruption; the palace and the sanctuary stand side by side—and they will fall together. Israel will be dragged into captivity, sifted of its sinners, and finally restored.

Amos says that Jehovah knows Israel; Hosea demands that Israel should know Jehovah. Though he is God and not man, the Holy One in the midst of a human society, his righteousness is not an impersonal, unlovable thing with which man can have no fellowship, and which he cannot comprehend. And to know Jehovah is to know him as a tender father, who taught his people to walk, holding them by their arms, drew them to himself with human cords, with bands of love. What Jehovah demands is *'hesed*, "dutiful love, as it shows itself in acts of kindliness and loyal affection. . . . Kindness and truth, kindness and justice are the sum of moral duty. Amos in such a case would speak of justice alone; his analysis of right and wrong pierces less deeply into the springs of human action." The kindness of which Hosea speaks is a word of common life expressive of such active personal affection as goes beyond legal obligation. Hosea recognizes Jehovah and Israel as united by a bond of moral obligation—not a covenant in legal terms, but

> "a bond of piety, of fatherly affection on the one hand, and loyal obedience on the other. Jehovah and Israel form, as it were, one community, and *'hesed* is the bond by which the whole community is knit together. It is not necessary to distinguish Jehovah's *'hesed* to Israel, which we would term his grace, Israel's duty of *'hesed* to Jehovah, which we would call piety, and the relation of *'hesed* between man and man, which embraces the duties of love and mutual consideration. To the Hebrew mind these three are essentially one, and all are comprised in the same covenant."

To Hosea, as to Amos, justice and civil righteousness are still the tests of fidelity to Jehovah, but the younger prophet refers these obligations to a deeper source. God's fatherhood takes the place of kingly righteousness as the fundamental idea of religion. Jehovah loves as a father, though he is God and not man; his love is divinely pure, unselfish, and invariable; love is the root and centre of Hosea's religion. Amos's starting-point is universal justice, and he bases religion on morality; Hosea deals with the subject "from the heart outward," and deduces morality from religion. And Hosea's God must be loved purely, not as a Baal; he must not be adored under false symbols; the golden calves which represent him are vile idols, seductive lies, the very source of Israel's sin and wretchedness.

Isaiah built on the foundations laid by Amos and Hosea, but his treatment of the religious problem is vastly more comprehensive. Amos denounced the breaches of civil righteousness, but supplied no standard for the reformation of worship, leaving even the golden calves untouched. Hosea "has a clear insight into the right moral attitude of the religious subject to God; but that subject is to him the personified nation, sinning and repenting as one man; . . . his prophecy leaves an unexplained hiatus between Israel's present sin and its future return to Jehovah. Isaiah, on the contrary, finds in Jehovah's holiness a principle equally applicable to the amendment of the state and the elevation of religious praxis" among "those within Israel who are striving after better things." Jehovah is holy, the Holy One of Israel, exalted over all. To be worthily his, Israel must be purified; impure Israel must pass through a fiery judgment "till only the holy seed, the vital and indestructible element of right national life, remain. 'Though but a tenth remain in it, it must pass again through the fire,' till all that remain in Zion are holy, 'even every one that is ordained to life in Jerusalem.'" For the plan of Jehovah's grace involves the preservation of Judah; Zion is indestructible, the stock of the people of Jehovah is imperishable; a precious remnant must survive all trials. To create and keep together such a nucleus of staunch followers of Jehovah was the great task of Isaiah's life. And that Zion braved the tempests of the Assyrian period was the achievement of his matchless faith and matchless words. His work, also, it was mainly—Micah worked entirely in his spirit—which made it possible for Jeremiah, a few generations later, to give up the idea of the indestructibility of Zion and its throne without giving up his faith in God, his universal justice, and future salvation. A remnant had been saved whose religion could brook the temporary suspension of the national existence. Jeremiah even saw in this suspension the necessary path to future glory. He and the best men of his time withdrew more and more from all forms of state religion, and in their hopes of salvation looked forward to days when Jehovah's precepts should be written on every heart.

With this glance beyond the compass of his task, our author's sketch of the religious development in Israel through prophetic teaching breaks off. Its merits consist rather in careful and systematic elaboration and in fulness of treatment than in novelty of ideas. The politico-historical background, which want of space has prevented us from touching upon here, is very ably drawn. The style of the lectures is both forcible and pleasing, and the notes appended to them show that the author is as capable of minute investigation—philological or chronological—as he is skilled in logical, and yet popular, and here and there almost dramatic, presentation.

TUCKERMAN'S HISTORY OF FICTION.

A History of English Prose Fiction. From Sir Thomas Mallory to George Eliot. By Bayard Tuckerman. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

In a brief compass Mr. Tuckerman has attempted, as he says in his preface, "to trace the gradual progress of English prose fiction from the early romance to the novel of the present day in such connection with the social characteristics of the epochs to which these works respectively belong as may conduce to a better comprehension of their nature and significance." As the novel has inevitably grown out of these social characteristics, this form of treatment is likely to give a much fairer picture of the rise and progress of English fiction than any purely literary method. By means of it we see in progress under our eyes the changing social processes which give birth and vitality to new literary forms; and in the case of English fiction this is all the more necessary, because it has been from the first profoundly subjected to moral and social influences. Mr. Tuckerman's volume is in fact what may be called a history of the evolution of the Anglo-Saxon novel as illustrated by the progress of Anglo-Saxon civilization and morality. It does not deal, as such a book would have done a generation ago, and might again to-day, with the "laws" which govern the composition of prose fiction, but merely shows us in a succession of scenes the variety of forms which, under the influence of the various modifications of custom, opinion, and feeling that the race has undergone, the novel has assumed. If anything were wanting to prove the difficulty of formulating any laws on the subject, it would be such a review as this. The fact that strikes the reader more than any other in going through the long list of

the masterpieces of our fiction, from the time of the Restoration down to the present day, is that the modern English novel has always been what Mr. Tuckerman calls a novel of purpose. Almost every English or American novelist of the first rank has been a moralist—even those whose names we do not usually associate with morality, or even decency. Smollett sets up Count Fathom as "a beacon for the benefit of the inexperienced and unwary" with regard to treachery and fraud, exactly as Dickens sets up Pecksniff as a beacon to warn us away from the rocks of hypocrisy, or as Hawthorne is for ever painting the retribution attendant upon sin. The standard of taste in the eighteenth century was not what it is now, but it is amusing and instructive to recollect the fact to which Mr. Tuckerman calls attention, that Defoe wrote 'Moll Flanders' to teach a lesson, and thought he had done it; that Richardson's 'Pamela' was in part a sort of tract; that Fielding wrote 'Tom Jones' in a spirit not far removed from that of a reformer. All this cannot have been the result of any literary theory. It merely means that the English race exhibits in fiction that belief in the supreme importance of moral considerations which is confessedly one of its most marked traits in other departments of activity. This phenomenon is not to be found in French literature, where in fiction, as in the drama, literary canons are, as a general thing, alone recognized. It has become the fashion of late years for a certain school of English critics to sneer at the morality of the literature of the race, and a variety of attempts have been made to show how English fiction, both in prose and verse, would be written if an artistic were substituted for a moral purpose. The result has been, as might have been expected, the production of some very disgusting works, which, as Mr. Tuckerman points out, are far worse than the coarse novels which our ancestors in their simplicity read and enjoyed, because their authors, in their anxiety to avoid preaching, have fallen actively to work at corrupting the minds of their readers. It is possible, perhaps, to imagine a type of English novel in which the moral ideal should be blended with the literary, and form not sacrificed so completely, as has generally been the case, to matter. The best novels of Scott made as near an approach to this as any that we are likely to see for a long time to come.

From this it will be seen that Mr. Tuckerman does not look at English literature as the "Neo-Pagans" do; he treats it, as it seems to us it should always be treated, as the work of a race whose bent is in its literature to meditate upon and attempt to solve the problems of life and duty, and which never will be brought to content itself with regarding fiction as a merely artistic vehicle. Mr. James is the only successful novelist of our day who has attempted to write stories as an artist while studiously refraining from taking the anti-moral side. A moral lesson, however, he has never undertaken to teach. But does not the Anglo-Saxon novel-reader miss something in consequence? Is not his moral really just as dear to him as it was before he began to hear of literary art, its methods and canons, and the supreme importance of dismissing all ethical notions from his mind? This is a question which Mr. Tuckerman, in his review of the novel of the nineteenth century, does not directly discuss, having, as he says himself, left the task of criticism to others. But his descriptive history of the novel is itself a protest against the new gods and the idolatry of art. Possibly the most complete proof that the old ways are the best, is that it is as a moral engine, and in the hands of a most unartistic race, that the novel has attained its zenith; for, after all, much as French fiction may amuse and interest us, it is impossible for a moment to admit that it has ever attained the level of our own.

Mr. Tuckerman's style is easy and simple, and his book, both from its subject and treatment, interesting throughout. His account of the "Romance of Chivalry" (in the course of which he gives many illustrative extracts), of the age of Elizabeth, and of the Restoration, is very good, and will perhaps attract more attention than other parts of the book, because the periods are less familiar, and therefore afford more latitude for description, than the last two centuries. We can only regret that Mr. Tuckerman should have so rigidly confined himself to description. His critical observations, whenever he permits himself to indulge in them, are just and to the point, and the reader will find his account of "Euphuism" and the "Romantic Revival" well worth close study. In his examination of the successive periods of English society in which the novel has attained its various stages of development, he has drawn, of course, upon the best modern authorities for his materials, and to any one who really wishes to understand the rise and growth of what is perhaps the most striking product of English literature, his book will be found a most useful aid.

SOME HOLIDAY BOOKS.

SIXTEEN years ago, a small-quarto edition of Longfellow's 'Evangeline' was published with illustrations by Darley. These, we take it (the quarto not being at hand), have now been enlarged to small-folio size, to meet a corresponding enlargement of the page of text, and the whole issued with faultless taste by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The type is large and beautiful, the press-work noticeably successful in carrying so much color without excess; and the buff alligator-skin of the covers completes the elegant attire of this gift-book. Mr. Darley's designs appear to lose something in tone by their expansion and reproduction by another process, and of course could not gain in subtlety.

Yellow raw-silk bonds and much gilt upon the green cover do not save 'The Artist's Year' (White & Stokes) from being irretrievably common. One fancies the lady who edits it and furnishes most of the poetry, to have adopted this method of working off verse that would have no commercial value if offered, say, to the magazines. The twelve autographic designs, while perhaps made to order, seem like the very emptyings of portfolios, and are in execution not superior to the sketches which illustrate our picture-exhibition catalogues. It is charitable not to mention names, some of which can only be injured by a publication like this.

An illustrated edition of 'The Lady of the Lake' (Boston: Osgood) is offered by the publisher as a souvenir to those who have visited the Scottish Highlands, and as a hand-book to future visitors. No pains have been spared in the manufacture, and the beautifully clear and handsome typography would be irreproachable if the punctuation were faultless. The designs are by a number of hands, but so far as they represent localities they are founded on sketches made by Mr. A. V. S. Anthony, the supervising engraver. The numerous landscapes, then, have in the main not only authority but artistic merit, fairly averaged among them, with exceptional gems like that on page 224. The figure pieces, on the other hand, have mostly been drawn by Mr. A. B. Frost, a clever artist, if we have one, but not equal to the melodramatic requirements of Scott's poem. A capital delineator of contemporary character and manners, his imagination breaks down and the limitations of his draughtmanship appear in the field of historical romance. His personages mostly seem as uncomfortable and awkward in their costumes as our actors do in hose and doublets, and too often their action lacks dignity. Mr. Frost is seen at his best in such a quiet and natural conception as that of the sleeping Fitz-James, on page 53.

Miss Charlotte F. Bates's illustrated 'Cambridge Book of Poetry and Song' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is suitably apparelled for the approaching season, but is of course offered to the appreciative without regard to times and dates. It ranks among the genial rather than the critical collections. The editor expressly says that she has aimed to enforce woman's right to fair representation in such a gathering; "to give those poets their just dues who have hitherto not had them"; and to save from poems voted too long or uninteresting, or prejudged in consequence of "ridicule and one-sided criticism," brief passages which merit a better fate. In the carrying out of this humane purpose, Miss Bates has drawn almost upon the cradle in one or two instances, and has now and again taken from the magazines specimens of the verse of writers who cannot as yet point to a volume all their own. So strictly personal has been her aim that she admits only two anonymous pieces, both comic; and this, we think, gives her nearly 900 pages a better title to be called original than her other principles of selection. Freshness is secured by extracts from so recent a collection as Boker's 'Book of the Dead,' and by no less than seven from Oscar Wilde. The standard poets, of course, furnish the staple of the present volume, but all alike suffer from carelessness of proof-reading and editing. There are worse instances than D. G. Rossetti's "Blessed Damozel," on page 467, which is shortened without notice and contains several gross errors. The print is good, and there are numerous indexes.

In spite of Miss Bates's desire to swell the portion of her own sex in her anthology, Miss Almira L. Hayward introduces in her pretty little 'Chimes and Rhymes for Holiday Times' (Boston: Osgood) no less than six poetesses unrecognized by the first-named editor. The scheme is a collection of appropriate verses for New-Year's Day, Washington's Birthday, Easter, Fast Day, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas—holidays now observed in greater or less degree over the whole country. We shall admit at once the convenience of this volume in all formal and in some private celebrations; but unless we challenge the range or standard of selection, it would appear that the better class of poets alone would not have furnished the requisite number of pages for Miss Hayward's purpose. In other words, her choice as a whole is not calculated to elevate the poetic taste. However, poets of the better class have a sufficient representation here. The omission of any verse to Lincoln under "Memorial Day" must be thought unfortunate.

Mrs. Rosa Hartwick Thorpe, too, has been overlooked in compiling the 'Cambridge Book of Poetry.' She is the author of "Curfew Must not Toll To-Night," an American ballad of which the publishers (Lee & Shepard) say that "however much it may be criticised, it still possesses that indefinable element of attraction which no lover of the emotional and pathetic can possibly resist." They have accordingly printed it on heavy paper, and joined with it all the illustrations for which a pretext could be found. Some of these are better than any part of the poetry, but of none can it be said that they have an indefinable and irresistible attractiveness. The incongruity will probably escape those who begin by admiring the ballad.

The same publishers give a corresponding attire to the late Dr. E. H. Sears's "That Glorious Song of Old," in which by far the most felicitous

line is that from which the title is derived. Mr. Alfred Fredericks supplies the designs, which are not masterly.

T. Y. Crowell & Co., in putting forth 'The Poems of Goethe,' insist on a new American binding as a part of the excellence of this edition. It is a counterfeit "tree calf," and we are assured that experts could not detect it from the genuine article. We cannot answer for the experts, whose patriotism is doubtless a match for all emergencies, but the pretension seems to us considerably overstrained, and anyhow we think the printed pages ought to conform to the appearance of the covers rather than to their sham reality. Such is not the case. They are furnished with a red-line border for which the type selected is too large, the paper is thin, and the press-work mediocre. The translations are from a variety of sources, and are fairly representative.

Let us hasten to express our preference for the class of bindings exemplified in M. Augustin Challamel's 'History of Fashion in France,' translated by Mrs. Cashel Hoey and Mr. John Lillie (Scribner & Welford). Here the sides of the cover show a veneer of wood resembling bird's-eye maple, on which is stamped the design—not a very lovely one, as it happens. The back is cloth of a harmonious color. Doubtless such eccentricities are a passing fashion, but their fitness in the present case is obvious. As for the contents, which seem originally to have appeared in the *Magasin des Demoiselles*, they consist of formless but pleasant gossip divided off according to periods and reigns from Gallic and Gallo-Roman times to 1880. At the close is a rapid summary, by way of generalization, which it would not be amiss to read first. There is no attempt at philosophy, and even the well-known genesis of a fashion like that of crinoline under Napoleon III. is not alluded to. While colored plates illustrate the successive phases of female costume, there is great need of an index both to discover what one seeks and to show the recurrence of styles.

Andrew Jackson as a Public Man. What he was, what chances he had, and what he did with them. By William Graham Sumner, Professor of Political and Social Science in Yale College. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Co. 1882.

It was very fitting that the life of Andrew Jackson, in the series of "American Statesmen," should be put in the hands of an economist by profession, because the principal issues of Jackson's Administration were economical ones. It is a great satisfaction to have his Bank war related by a trained economist, and the vital questions connected with it—the condition and management of the Bank, the removal of the deposits, the "pet bank" system, and the connection of all these things with the crisis of 1837—considered by one who is thoroughly competent to answer them. Only, it must be confessed that these pages are dry reading; and if we have the author's final judgment upon questions stated clearly and compendiously, the grounds of the judgment and the details of the discussion are not in every case clear. This is not always the author's fault. It is a long story to be compressed into a volume of a prescribed size, and the necessity of brevity has often been the cause of obscurity. Nor is it easy to see what could have been omitted to make room for the needed explanations. Sometimes what is needed is familiarity on the part of the reader with the details of banking or with economical discussions. The use of cross-references, too, would have been of great assistance. For example, in the account of the Briscoe case (p. 359) there ought to be a reference to page 124. It is easily found in the index, to be sure, but a foot-note would save labor both here and in other places.

A valuable feature of the account of the Bank controversy—and one not generally familiar—is the connection it is shown to have with the earlier Bank contests in Kentucky. These are described with considerable fulness in Chapter VI., and are shown to have been of great importance, not only directly, but in the general preparation of the public mind for the policy of Jackson's Administration. It was in this school that Amos Kendall was trained; and as Amos Kendall may be pronounced the master spirit of Jackson's Administration, his Bank policy may be traced directly to this source. This leads us to another valuable feature of the book, and one of its most distinctive merits, the account of Jackson's "Kitchen Cabinet." The general subject is of course familiar; but we do not remember ever to have seen brought out with such force the fact that this famous chieftain was at bottom only the tool of this handful of men—Lewis, Kendall, Hill, and Blair. If any one thing caused Jackson's astonishing popularity, it was the universal belief in his firmness of conviction and tenacity of purpose—his executive ability. Perhaps Mr. Sumner's view is exaggerated; but we certainly gather from his pages the impression of a man of tenacity, indeed, but of very little independence of judgment, and whose narrowness, ignorance, and violence of temper made him easily played upon by men of more ability and coolness than himself, while all the time he thought himself, and was thought by the world at large, to be a model of strength and determination.

This suggests the question, which is a real puzzle, and which Mr. Sumner hardly attempts to answer, What was the source of this popularity? For the belief in his strength of character is not by itself enough to cause it. It is a constant surprise when one reads of the liberties which this wrong-headed man was able to take with the laws and the Constitution, not only without reproach from the majority of the people, but with extravagant commendation His popularity "crushed out reason and common sense. To the gravest arguments and remonstrances the answer was, literally, 'Hurrah for Jackson!'" One is tempted to explain it by the newness of the Government and of the people in their relation to it, and to think that the American people of the present day would have a sharper discernment as to qualities of statesmanship. It will not do to push this notion too far, considering the blindness of the popularity of certain of the public idols of the present day. Mr. Sumner, however, illustrates it as follows:

"Campaign literature took a new and special development in this campaign, and one is driven to wonder whether the American people of that day were such that all this drivel and vulgarity could affect their votes. It appears certain that they had not yet learned the art of reading newspapers, more especially campaign literature; an art in which the average American citizen has since become a great adept. It requires a very active party interest now to break down the cynicism and scepticism with which everything in a partisan newspaper is read by an educated man of forty" (p. 115).

Personal "magnetism" no doubt had much to do with Jackson's popularity; but probably we must ascribe it principally to the flood of radical democracy which at this moment poured over the country. It needed a hero, and found one in Andrew Jackson. The earlier chapters of this volume, especially that upon "The Relief System of Kentucky," already referred to, give some of the causes and the phases of this revolution. In all its aspects, however, Mr. Sumner has not space to describe it adequately, and the reader who would understand it thoroughly should turn to Von Holst's masterly chapter upon Jackson. The impression left by the book before us is of a political revolution, and a personal popularity and despotic power, which are without sufficient cause.

Mr. Sumner is a pronounced opponent of "the system of statecraft which makes public men undertake a tutelage of the nation, and teaches them not to be content to let the nation grow by its own forces, and according to the shaping of the forces and conditions" (p. 257). This is the theory of government which has been more or less consistently that of the Democratic party from its foundation to the present day. In Jackson's time it cropped out now and then, but his was in truth a personal government, the rule of a despot, under the name of democracy. Mr. Sumner shows—and this is another special feature of the book—that it was the "equal-rights" faction, or "locofocos," that brought back the party to its traditions:

"The equal-rights men maintained impracticable doctrines of civil authority and fantastic dogmas about equality, but when these were stripped away there remained in their platform sound doctrines and imperishable ideas. They first put the Democratic party on the platform which for five or six years it had been trying to find. When it did find that platform it was most true to itself, and it contributed most to the welfare of the country. To-day the Democratic party is, by tradition, a party of hard money, free trade, the non-interference theory of government, and no special legislation. If that tradition be traced up to its source, it will lead back, not to the Jackson party of 1829, but to the locofocos of 1835" (p. 372).

We have mentioned, we believe, the most striking merits of Mr. Sumner's book—those which may fairly be considered contributions to American history, if not as absolute novelties, at any rate from the force and clearness with which they are brought out. Of his style it must be said that it inclines too much to short sentences; but, on the other hand, this quality often produces a fine, ringing terseness. Take, for instance, this sentence (p. 312): "There is an unformulated dogma, which seems to command a great deal of faith, to this effect, that if a man is only sufficiently ignorant, his whims and notions constitute 'plain common sense.'"

The closing passage of the book (p. 386) is particularly good:

"He died June 8, 1845. He had had honors beyond anything which his own heart had ever coveted. His successes had outrun his ambition. He had held more power than any other American had ever possessed. He had been idolized by the great majority of his countrymen, and had been surfeited with adulation. He had been thwarted in hardly anything on which he had set his heart. He had had his desire upon all his enemies. He had lived to see Clay defeated again, and to help to bring it about. He saw Calhoun retire in despair and disgust. He saw the Bank in ruins, Biddle arraigned on a criminal charge, and then dead, broken-hearted. In his last years he joined the church, and on that occasion, under the exhortations of his spiritual adviser, he professed to forgive all his enemies in a body. It does not appear that he ever repented of anything, ever thought that he had been in the wrong in anything, or ever forgave an enemy as a specific individual."

The Story of the Volunteer Fire Department of the City of New York. By George W. Sheldon. Harper & Bros. 1882. 8vo.

Mr. Sheldon has produced in this volume an unique monograph, deeply interesting to the many older citizens who were members or supporters of the vigorous organization he describes, and curious to others who remember how marked and picturesque a feature of city life the volunteer fireman once was. Such a body of men could exist nowhere else than in this country. The blended daring and discipline, the excitement working under control, that attend a well-

ordered attack on fire, have a special fascination for the American temper. Our Dutch forefathers held their lives on condition of incessant contest with the elements of water. Their descendants display even greater aptness and eagerness in fighting the element of fire.

Perhaps his inflammable nature warned old Peter Stuyvesant, viewing in 1648 his highly combustible village of timber houses, thatched with reeds, and crowned with plank chimneys, to take order for its safety. The wooden-legged governor gave the wooden-built town its first fire department, naming as fire-wardens four men of substance and character, two of whom were Englishmen. A century later, in 1738, a legislative act created the first fire company, composed of "strong, able, discreet, honest, and sober freeholders." Of the thirty-five men selected as worthy of these epithets, all but three were Dutchmen. A few years earlier the first fire-engine had been imported, superseding by clumsy machinery the primitive use in extinguishing fires of leathern hand-buckets, passing full up one line of bystanders, and empty down another. The supply of water to the machines still flowed from this feeble source, while hose and hydrants were gradually replacing it, until in 1819 buckets went out of use, on the repeal of the strict laws imposing that burdensome charge on householders.

For twenty years longer the fire department struggled with imperfect machines and a precarious water supply. At length, in 1840, novel and efficient engines were bought in Philadelphia, and in 1842 the Croton aqueduct gave promise of floods ample to drown any fire. The idea of a steam fire-engine took shape about this date, but the first construction, combining enormous weight with clumsy working, was soon rejected and sold. It is singular that the ingenuity of New York mechanics seems to have neglected the fire-engine. The powerful and elegant steam-machines now in use, perfected first in Cincinnati, gained introduction here (in 1856) only after obstinate resistance. The most curious objection made to them was that they would do too much work, and injure property, by the mass of water thrown, more than fire would do.

After these improvements in the material forces for fighting fire came naturally the remodelling of the corporate body that directed them. The Volunteer Fire Department, incorporated in 1798, had grown, during two generations, unwieldy and insufficient for the changed conditions of the city. Emigration brought in multitudes of unruly spirits, eager to force their way into that service, to enjoy its privileges, relax its discipline, and lower its special professional and American character to the level of rowdy political clubs. The increased size of the city required the employment of a permanent body of expert firemen, while the use of steam led to dispensing with the services of a great number. In 1865 a legislative act created a paid fire department, under a board of commissioners, and during that year the volunteer force was quietly disbanded. At the time of its dissolution the number of firemen, exclusive of those who joined the new organization, was 3,810, and the number of companies of all kinds—engine, hose, and ladder—was 125.

Men of substance and character continued to lead and fill the ranks of the Volunteer Fire Department as long as it existed. Six mayors of the city and several millionaires have served that apprenticeship side by side with sons of the very best people among old New-Yorkers. The service tempted young spirits. It gave exemption from jury and military duty. It offered movement and dash, kindled emulation, and not seldom opened the way to heroic acts through risk of life. These pages record many stories of thrilling peril and gallant rescue. The several companies gathered picked men from all classes of society. Each section of the city manned its engine with members of the trade or occupation peculiar to it. Artisans, clerks, financiers, lawyers, merchants—all were represented in the Volunteer Fire Department, and every class gave only its vigorous and ardent élite. The meetings of these young men among scenes of excitement and danger, testing manhood in rivalry, taught them mutual knowledge and esteem; and in knitting this strong bond of sympathy between different classes, the Department indirectly served the general good of the city as it has been served by no other organization. In truth, no other institution ever drew within its range in New York so many of the best purely American elements, and gave such fostering to manliness, both of discipline and action, as did the Volunteer Fire Department in the day of its prime, between 1830 and 1850. There was the nucleus, if it could have been moulded into a compact and consentaneous body, of a great political force, fit to guide the government of New York, made up of the best native elements, hardy, disciplined, intelligent, proud and worthy of their inherited citizenship. But when the need came for such a nucleus of force, the opportunity was gone — war and change swept over the land—and out of the new disorder of things rises the difficult and incoherent struggle for reform.

In tracing this sketch of the Volunteer Fire Department, the author has had the happy idea of making it tell its own story, through the lips of the most conspicuous among its surviving members. Its history gains the freshness of personal recollections. Though none of the exempts can recall the burning of Trinity, nor that alarm of fire in 1811 "which proved to be nothing but the comet's tail," many of them were actors at the great fires of 1835 and 1845. Such a *noche trista* as that December frosty midnight of 1835 may never again lower over the city, thanks to Croton and steam, but their power to protect has yet to be tested in the case of fire wrapping one of the great apartment-houses or huge new business blocks soaring ten stories into the air. The volume is profusely illustrated with well-executed engravings of apparatus, buildings, and scenes that accompany its story, and, more interestingly still, with spirited portraits showing the resolute faces of chief engineers and leading members of the corps. As a memorial of the most peculiarly American institution the city can boast—a record of an organization which did not outlive its worth, but passed out of existence in full vigor, after its members "had continued faithfully to perform the duties which their obligations required"—these pages hold a place among the most valuable contributions to the complete annals of New York.

Sterne. By H. D. Traill. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros. 1882.

THE materials for Sterne's life are scanty, but they are enough; for among authors who have achieved something memorable in literature there are few whose personality is more displeasing. It is not because he was a sentimentalist and feigned feeling for literary effect, displaying thereby a weak and frivolous mind; nor because, like other egotists who are first made much of late in life, he prattles of his dinners and "their lordships" as if he alone lived in the eye of the world; nor is it mainly for the reason that he shared in the talk of Medmenham and set forth the ludicrousness of things unclean, for others did this without wholly forfeiting respect. Sterne's errors in art, character, and taste are so thoroughgoing as to breed disease in his whole nature; they cease to be foibles of eccentricity, as he thought them, and become evils. He affords a true instance of the malady of the mind. He started out on his literary career with an admirable subject, not knowing how rich was his find; he created one original character for ever interesting to lovers of human nature; but, as he went on, he cared less for his theme than for his mode of handling it. Uncle Toby, indeed, by fortunate exception, kept his charm; but the other characters became puppets of the author's method, contrivances for palming off the tricks of the jester's booth, now set in motion, now laid aside while the ventriloquist's own head pops up to take applause to itself. On this matter Thackeray has said the last word. But Sterne imported his peculiar artistic method, if it be so termed, into his own life. He became an actor of Shandyism, and seems to have thought such acting the thing of real value in human intercourse; in this character he whimpered and sighed at the feet of his grass-widow and other flames. His domestic life, it is true, was infelicitous, but to barter it for such performances was not a happy exchange. He attitudinized usually, as man and as author, and his postures were irremediably vulgar. Vulgarity is the marked characteristic of his nature, both in its conscious and unconscious manifestations. Animalism is not incidental with him; it is not an interlude of humor, a part of contemporary life: it is something deliberately chosen, put on as a mask, always at hand in his theatrical furniture. It is hardly enough to describe it thus. This artificial and cultivated taste for uncleanness is always at work in his literary productions; it is omnipresent, permeating and coloring with its suggestions the pages where it is least apparent; it was as constant an element in his private life.

For such briefly-indicated reasons, we cannot regret the scantiness of the records for his biography, sufficient as they are to make a considerable volume. Mr. Traill has told the story with a sense of the disagreeableness of his subject, and with very frank avowal of the shortcomings of his hero. He questions how long Sterne will continue to be read, and endeavors to account for his contemporary popularity. It is an unfruitful question; for books of real humor are among the last to die, and we would by no means refuse to Sterne the name of humorist, any more than we would refuse to acknowledge the attractiveness of his style, its ease and colloquial garrulity—as charming in an author for a few chapters as in a man for an hour, though the English of both be slipshod. We can only regret that the admirable passages are so few, and their setting such as it is, and that to the student of character both the life and work of Sterne have so much of the interest of the "mind diseased."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Little Pilgrim. Reprinted from *Macmillan's Magazine*. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Bacon, H. Parisian Art and Artists. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Bartlett, J. Familiar Quotations. 8th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bell, Robert. Songs from the Dramatists. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Brown, Susan Anna. The Book of Forty Puddings. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Century: Illustrated Monthly Magazine. May, 1882, to October, 1882. Vol. xxiv. The Century Co.
Dahlgren, Madeleine Vinton. Memoir of John A. Dahlgren, Rear-Admiral U. S. Navy. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Dickinson Mrs. E. E. Wayside Flowers. White & Stokes.
Fernald, Mrs. Chas. F. Footlight Frolics. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xxxviii. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Gage, A. P. A Text-Book on the Elements of Physics. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 90 cents.
Greene, F. V. The Mississippi. [Campaigns of the Civil War.] Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Grimm, H. Fünfzehn Essays. 3d series. New York: B. Westermann & Co. $3.

Hamerton, P. G. Works, in 10 volumes. Boston: Roberts Bros. $15.
Heine, H. The Romantic School. Henry Holt & Co. $1 50.
Hesse-Wartegg, Chevalier de. Tunis: The Land and the People. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Household Stories from the Brothers Grimm. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Ingelow, Jean. Novels. 4 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $5.
Irving, W. Bracebridge Hall. 120 illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 20 cents.
Irving, W. Old Christmas. With upward of 100 illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 20 cents.
Kingston, W. H. G. James Braithwaite, the Supercargo. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 50.
Kürschener, J. Deutsche National-Literatur. Part 2. B. Westermann & Co. 20 cents.
Lanier, S. The Boy's Percy: being Old Ballads of War, Adventure, and Love, from Bishop Percy's Reliques. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Lindau, P. Bayreuther Briefe. 5th ed. New York: B. Westermann & Co. 40 cents.
Macaulay, J. Sea Pictures, Drawn with Pen and Pencil. Nelson & Sons. $3 50.
Mortillet, Prof. G. de. La Préhistorique Antiquité de l'Homme. Paris: C. Reinwald; New York: F. W. Christern.
Newton, W. W. The Legend of St. Telemachus. Pittsfield, Mass.: J. B. Harrison.
Optic, Oliver. Our Little Ones at Home and in School. 380 illustrations Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 75.
Optic, Oliver. All Adrift; or, The Goldwing Club. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Sanborn, Kate. Literature Lessons. In 25 numbers. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Sand, George. Correspondance, 1812–1876. Vol. iii. F. W. Christern.
Stevenson, R. L. New Arabian Nights. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
St. Nicholas: an Illustrated Magazine for Young Folks. Vol. ix., Parts 1 and 2. The Century Co.
Sweet and Knox. Sketches from "Texas Siftings." Texas Siftings Publishing Co.
Thoughts on Theism. With Suggestions towards a Public Religious Service in Harmony with Modern Science. London: Trübner & Co. 25 cents.
University Manual, 1882. Albany: State Department.
Zöckler, O. Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften. Part 2. New York: B. Westermann & Co. $2.

Fine Arts.

THE FALL EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

In glancing cursorily around the galleries the average quality of work which meets the eye in this exhibition is certainly not higher than usual. The quantity of crude, garish, or feeble canvases as yet largely predominates. The works which go to make up these Academy exhibitions are largely of the same average character. They may be said to fall broadly into three classes: First, those of our older artists who adhere more or less fully to the conventional, and often feeble, ideas and methods which were more general twenty years ago; second, those of our younger artists who have studied in the modern popular schools of the Continent of Europe, and have acquired the ideas, and the facile, showy, and slight, though to some extent, also, strong and effective methods which characterize those schools; and third, those of wholly incompetent and untrained young and old persons, which ought never to form part of any public display. Concerning the works of this third class no special comments need be made. So long as hanging committees are willing to encumber their walls with them, the harm which they do, in crowding other pictures and wearying visitors, must be patiently borne. But of the first and second classes—though they exhibit in great measure a wearisome sameness which calls for little special remark—a few canvases, each year, rise out of the general average, and exhibit characteristics of greater or less merit, and, occasionally, of high, though mostly partial, excellence.

Chief, in many respects, among the more exceptional works in this exhibition is No. 402, "Lake Pleasant, Adirondacks," by R. W. Hubbard. We have never had in America a painter of truer poetic feeling than Mr. Hubbard. He belongs to the older group of our artists, and his art gives expression to some of the best motives which ever characterized that group. But Mr. Hubbard's vein of feeling and line of effort have always been peculiarly his own, though he has sympathized closely with his associates. His eye is quick to appreciate whatever elements of grace and beauty a subject that pleases him may offer, and he does not fail to present these qualities with delightful emphasis. In this picture the elaboration of the hill lines, in their united precision and mystery, is thoroughly exquisite. The choice of the point of view, which brings out the most lovely relations of magnitudes in the mountain masses, and the quiet truth of tone, giving wonderful expression of air and distance, are beyond all praise. Mr. Hubbard was strongly influenced in his early days, when studying in Europe, by the art of Claude. He then imbibed much of what is best in the feeling and style of that master, and since that time, in addition to what he has gained by constant study of nature, he has gathered and assimilated much from the best modern example, without ever imitating anybody or any school. The faults which we feel in his work are a tendency to monotony in color—as if the artist were in the habit of elaborating his color too exclusively in the studio, thus failing to secure the variety which results from direct practice in color from nature—and a degree of weakness and conventionality in the treatment of foregrounds, which he evidently has not studied with enough attention. His strength lies in distance and middle ground, where, as regards design and tone, he is equalled by few and surpassed by none. There is, in this work, no straining for effect, yet it is truly effective; no undue brilliance or emphasis anywhere. It is entirely quiet, and, with the exceptions just indicated, exemplary.

No. 124, "On the Island Creek near Albany, N. Y.," by Edward Gay, is a quiet and effective picture. It is very true and pleasant in tone, and it contains some excellent design and drawing in the group of trees which forms the principal mass of the composition. The ramification and spring of the main branches of these trees are at once true and graceful to a degree seldom reached by our landscape painters. We should be glad to see Mr. Gay add to the excellent larger qualities of this design more of that quiet elaboration, especially in the foreground, which is necessary to make painting entirely beautiful and satisfactory. No. 201, "Street View, Poughkeepsie," by George H. Smillie, is a well-composed little landscape. It is, however, the merest sketch, and must be regarded, therefore, as a suggestion rather than a sufficient realization of the subject.

No. 152, "Afternoon Tea," by C. Y. Turner, exhibits some of the qualties and the defects which often characterize the works of our artists who have been trained in the modern schools abroad. The drawing of general proportions and movements, and the vigorous handling, are good qualities; but the want of refinement in drawing, of quiet truth of color and chiaroscuro, and the insensitiveness to what is graceful in bodily pose and in general design, are faults which, so long as they are uncorrected, will defeat the attainment of high excellence. The chiaroscuro of this, as of many other pictures painted under modern foreign influence, is conceived without due reference to color. The various masses composing it do not tell broadly enough in their own respective colors. The minor modifications of local hues by light, shade, and reflection are made too much of, so that the design cannot be easily resolved into its pure color elements, as they always may be in nature and in thoroughly good painting. It is singular that this should be so conspicuous and constant a fault with that school of painters which theoretically lays most stress on the importance of color values. It comes, perhaps, largely from the practice of studying tones too much in black and white, coupled with the habit of arranging models under violent contrasts of light and shade. This practice tends to loss of color in shadow, which is both untrue to nature and ugly in effect. For instance, in this picture the lifted hand of the seated figure loses its color entirely in the shaded part.

No. 156, "A Modern Rebecca," by Edwin H. Blashfield, is an example of that clever technique which renders the look of things up to the point of average satisfaction, but which again stops short everywhere of real refinement and beauty—such as we feel sure Mr. Blashfield might easily attain if he would strive after it. The color is laid with monotonous equality of *impasto;* and the want of variety and tender feeling, both in respect to hue and handling, is especially manifest in the flesh. The work, however, exhibits a good deal of power over the more general color values, with comparatively few false hues in shadow. No. 277, by the same artist, is a strong sketch in this last respect, but the subject is treated ungracefully. No. 164, by A. G. Heaton, represents an old negress and a negro child, and shows considerable power of painting. The slaty gray color in the child's forehead, and the black shadows in the folds of its dress, are obvious defects. One could not look for much grace or beauty in such a subject, but the general pose of the figures and the leading lines of the drapery might easily have been rendered more agreeable.

Perhaps the most conspicuous picture of the exhibition is No. 359, "Planting Rape (Colza) in Normandy," by Mr. F. A. Bridgman. Mr. Bridgman has, we think, a true painter's instincts, and he possesses a good deal of technical power; but he fails to accomplish what he might were he not hampered by defective aims and methods. The want of variety in color, and of the habit of conceiving his subject in its broad color relations, is very marked in his work. He appears to be in the habit of laying in his subject in brown monochrome, and of preserving this undertone of brown, especially in shadows, to the last. A certain harmony is thus attained; but it is a conventional harmony, which does not consist with the variety and beauty of nature. We feel, too, that Mr. Bridgman makes too much of the textures of objects, as of drapery and the hides of animals. This giving undue prominence to textures is incompatible with a truly excellent style of painting—a style which subordinates all minor characteristics (though it does not omit them) to what is more essential. The principal group of figures and horses in this picture is composed and drawn with considerable skill, and the sentiment of the subject is a pleasant one.

Mr. J. G. Brown exhibits three pictures—Nos. 174, 336, and 397—which possess the same merits and the same defects that we noticed last spring. Attentive study of such works as those of the old English water-color painter, William Hunt, would, we think, be useful to Mr. Brown. And we may apply the same remark to Mr. Leon Moran, who exhibits No. 183, "The Milkmaid"; to Mr. Alfred Kappes, who exhibits a negro domestic scene, No. 179; and to nearly all our painters of genre and still life. Among the few works in this exhibition which, though by no means altogether exemplary, show something more of the qualities of chiaroscuro and color that we should like to see more general, are No. 213, by Mr. Walter Satterlee, No. 427, by Mr. William H. Lippincott, and No. 462, by Mr. George W. Maynard. No. 456, "In the Meadows—East Hampton, L. I.," by J. Douglass Woodward, is very good in expression of open sunlight and color, with well-arranged parts, good relations of masses, and well-composed lines. No. 111, "Sunny Morning," by James B. Sword, is in many ways a particularly good, unconven-

tional study of color, with expression of true feeling for beauty of line.

Mr. Cropsey exhibits three pictures, of which No. 157, "An English Roadside Scene," is one of the most conspicuous in the galleries. It is a pretty pastoral subject in the vein of Birket Foster, and of much the same quality as Birket Foster's work. Mr. Cropsey is an artist of much knowledge and feeling, but he is growing more and more mannered, and his color is becoming strangely crude, and almost garish. Mr. Arthur Parton gave considerable promise ten or fifteen years ago; but he appears to be losing somewhat of the healthful vigor and truth with which he formerly portrayed some very charming phases of landscape. His picture in the present exhibition, No. 225, "After the Shower," is forced in tone and pervaded by a conventional and very false brown hue. No. 238, also by him, is an ugly subject with the same faults. We feel sure that Mr. Parton may yet recover his old integrity if he will, and that, with his accumulated experience, he may then give us delightful landscapes.

We must, for once, depart from our general rule of silence respecting works of which we can find nothing good to say, and remark on the character of No. 168, "Peaches and Vase," and No. 287, "Fruit and Silver Goblet," both of which are hung in conspicuous places on the line. The skill of hand and eye which the painter of these has attained is not inconsiderable, but it is entirely thrown away on the tasteless and mechanical rendering of the most trivial external qualities of the objects represented. The proper object of still-life painting is clearly, we think, to set forth the beauty which such objects display, not merely to trick the eye by clever imitation. Whatever elaboration of the minor qualities of surface textures may be given to such a subject, it should, beyond question, be entirely subordinate to expression of the large and essential visual beauties of things. But the painter of these two subjects appears to have taken no interest whatever in the real elements of beauty which his models offered to his eye. His fruit has no beauty of color, his vases are ugly in form and decoration, and such graduated light and color as even such objects would show he has remained totally insensitive to. The mere skin-textures in the one, and the mere glassy or metallic lustre in the other, have absorbed his whole mind, and called forth his total powers of realization. It was characteristic of the old Dutch still-life painters to elaborate the trivial minutiæ of their subjects unduly, and, in consequence, to miss those large impressions which a Venetian always received and expressed. But in comparison with work like this which we are considering, the painting of an ordinary Dutch artist would deserve to rank with that of Titian. Further remarks seem uncalled for, since no essential characteristics, other than those which we have already noticed, are presented by the works of this exhibition.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 16, 1882.

The Week.

When President Arthur succeeded to the high office which he holds, he was accorded the respectful treatment which was his due. While he was not exactly welcomed to the place to which General Garfield had been elected, he was accepted with something more than tolerance. His behavior during the period that elapsed between the shooting and the death of the President had been such as to win a very considerable amount of public support and confidence. This confidence appeared to be well justified during some months immediately following the assembling of Congress. It appeared that the new President had been elevated to a plane corresponding to his new responsibilities, and that he was governed by no other motive than the best interests of the Republican party, considered as identical with the interests and well being of the whole country. In other words, it appeared that the President had definitively abandoned the maxims and practices of a local manager of Machine politics in New York with the shifts and expedients and "deals" which had illustrated his rise to political prominence. It may be said without exaggeration that until he began to make changes of officeholders to please the local "bosses," and introduce the methods of the New York Machine into national politics, he had satisfied every reasonable expectation, and that the party had received no harm at his hands. We need not recapitulate the steps by which the fair promise of these early months was frustrated. The consequences are now spread before the world in black and white. They show, as nothing else could show, that the Presidency of the United States cannot be made a personal instrument to build up this man or faction and to put down that man or faction. Whatever might have been done under different political conditions, this is evidently not a time when the dignity of the office can be thus trifled with.

The Supreme Court has made short work with the plea of Mr. N. M. Curtis that the statute under which he was convicted of levying assessments on officeholders was unconstitutional. It has decided that it is constitutional, and has denied him his habeas corpus. His fine of $1,000 has, we believe, been paid for him by Smyth's committee, but he will have a heavy bill of costs, which they will probably pay too. The use of campaign funds to pay fines inflicted for violation of the United States Statutes is certainly one of the oddest phenomena in Machine management. What we need now, and challenge the Democratic Congress to give us, if the Republican Congress does not, is an amendment to the Statutes, prohibiting the solicitation of assessments from officeholders by any officers of the Government, including members of Congress It is probably a grosser abuse in the case of these last than in that of any others.

The late elections have called out nothing droller in the way of suggestion than the Baltimore *American's* advice to the President, in an article entitled "Let Us Have Reform," that he should now imitate the English system, and try to "reorganize the National party on the basis of civil-service reform and administrative economy"; and that "the country having declared against Grant and bossism," he should reorganize his Cabinet as the Queen did after the defeat of Disraeli, and "call Blaine." Probably nobody would be more amused secretly than Blaine himself at receiving any such "call" as this, for with all his faults he enjoys a joke. If one may judge, too, by his selection of Kilpatrick and Hurlbut as his agents in founding the great Pan-American Confederation, his agents in carrying on the work of reform under such a call would probably be the queerest lot of "boys" that ever rallied round a kindly and open-handed leader.

Like Mr. Blaine, General Butler disclaims any intention on his part of becoming the next President of the United States. Although he has succeeded in persuading a majority of the voters of Massachusetts "to give the old man a chance," we must still be pardoned for saying that as to the Presidency we do not think he can be trusted. At any rate, Governor Cleveland, who, if he has not an eye on the Presidency yet, will soon have to yield to the urgent solicitations of his friends on this point, would do well to watch the new Governor of Massachusetts with vigilant attention. We risk nothing in predicting that the Massachusetts Barkis will be "willing" by the time that preparations for the next Democratic National Convention are made. And that will be very soon. We should not be surprised if Governor Butler thought that time had arrived already, and if this present exhibition of coyness were really in the nature of an invitation of manifestations of regret or of positive pressure. About the general situation of things, General Butler expresses himself with circumspection and a certain dignified reserve which contrast somewhat strangely with the slashing style peculiar to him before he was Governor-elect of Massachusetts. He is also strongly in favor of reducing taxation. But we regret to see his studies of political economy have not yet taught him that the whole burden of the tax on tobacco and whiskey cannot be borne exclusively by the people of the States in which those articles are produced, and exclusively by the consumers generally, at the same time. Probably General Butler wants both those classes to understand that they occupy an equal place in his heart.

Almost as gratifying a result of the late election as the defeat of Mr. Robeson in New Jersey is the complete extinguishment of Mr. Chauncey I. Filley, the Republican "boss" in Missouri. There was a revolt against him last summer when he, as Chairman of the State Committee, refused to call a Republican State Convention, and the anti-boss Republicans called a Convention of their own and appointed a new State Committee. Then he procured through his henchmen the nomination of local candidates in St. Louis, especially a candidate for a Judgeship, who ran conspicuously under Mr. Filley's auspices, and received of the 53,000 registered votes of St. Louis only 2,843. This is evidently the end of that boss, who in his person and political activity represented the worst tendencies of Machine politics, and of whom it is only surprising that the insolence of his rule was so long submitted to.

The returns from Nebraska are at last decisive as to the fate of the woman-suffrage amendment at the late election in that State. It has been lost by some twenty to thirty thousand majority. Against it voted, we are told in the only analysis we have seen, the colored people as a class, the foreign-born, the liquor-dealers and their "interest," and those who took offence at the presence and active "electioneering" of the woman-suffragists themselves. Why the colored vote should have been distinctively adverse we cannot imagine. Perhaps there were long memories of the attempt of the organization directed by Mrs. Stanton and Miss Anthony to block negro suffrage in Kansas in 1867, unless coupled with woman suffrage. The foreign-born, on the other hand, probably shared the fears as to prohibition which the liquor interest exhibited. It is well known that the ablest orator the woman-suffragists have ever had, Mrs. Livermore, has almost wholly withdrawn from the movement in order to devote herself to the temperance cause. It is not so well known in Nebraska that in Massachusetts, at least, perhaps the worst jockeying the suffragists ever got was at the hands of the Prohibitionists (in 1876). Finally, female electioneering at the polls may very likely have disgusted some voters, by reminding them that sex will largely disappear in practical politics. This disgust would have been deepened if the sharp practices of one wing of the suffragists in forestalling the other, even in the preliminary lecturing canvass, had publicly transpired. As there is contagion in our political innovations, success in Nebraska would probably have insured success in Oregon, the scene of the next contest. Only the most sanguine can now look for it in the latter State.

Mr. George Bliss, the most luminous and talkative of all the Arthur workers, has explained the late defeat, and his explanation has that true mark of genius which combines perfect simplicity with great reconditeness. Nobody else would ever have thought of it, and yet when you see it you wonder how you came not to think of it yourself. In the first place, the State of New York is naturally Democratic. In the second, the Republicans have been kept in power by the

stupidity of the Democrats. In the third, the newspapers got up a silly fuss about "bossism" and civil-service reform. But in the fourth place—and this is the most important cause of all—the Blaine and Garfield men were disgusted because they did not get the offices. About 200,000 of them, therefore, voted for Cleveland. Then, though last, not least, there was an injudicious fight between Mike Dady and Al. Daggett in Kings County. Mr. Bliss is also dissatisfied with the Republican organization in this city. Mr. Bliss goes through a great deal of harrowing changes of sensation about this organization. In 1876 he thought it was as perfect as could be expected. In 1879 he was utterly disgusted with it, exposed it, and said it had been degenerating for nine years, and implored Mr. Chester A. Arthur to reform it altogether. In 1881, when it was proposed in the State Convention to reform it, he violently opposed all change, and by the use of some of his pretty little ways defeated it. Now he denounces the organization again, and says that in "three-fourths of the organizations in the city no real regard is now had to the interest of the party, to fair dealing, or even to common decency." Mr. Bliss is a most interesting person.

The first veritable triumph of civil-service reform, pure and simple, at the polls has been achieved in Massachusetts by the election of Mr. Theodore Lyman in place of Mr. Candler, a "practical man," who had distinguished himself in Congress by sneering at reform and opposing the appropriation for it. His punishment was shared by Mr. Bowman, another sneerer, who was ousted by a Democrat supported by the reformers. These examples cannot but have a salutary effect; and, apropos of this, let us say that Butler's success is more readily understood when we learn that Senator Hoar, who represents the old régime, opposed Mr. Lyman and supported Mr. Candler, and severely condemned the bolting involved in Mr. Lyman's nomination. This gave Mr. Lyman an opportunity for a happy and stinging retort, for he was able to say that Senator Hoar had not thought ill of bolting when his brother, Judge Hoar, in 1876 accepted a bolting nomination against Butler, who was the regular candidate, and when Mr. Lyman took the stump for him. Circumstances always alter cases, but they have probably never altered cases so much as in the Republican party to-day. Butler's triumph is a mortifying thing, but we believe thousands of good Republicans in Massachusetts are secretly satisfied that nothing less thorough would have convinced the old managers that the war is over, and that there are now voters who were born after Fort Sumter was fired on.

We regret to learn from Texas that at Henrietta, in that State, C. M. Burgess, a defeated candidate for the County Judgeship, found it necessary to kill R. M. Donley, a young lawyer who had spoken ill of him during the canvass, and that as many as three shots were necessary to finish him. The despatch says that Donley was "an impulsive man," which is all we need to know of this tragedy. There are too many "impulsive men" in all parts of the country, and especially at the South, and it is well to thin them out, and the best time to do it is when, like Donley, they are young. It is high time, too, to put a stop to the practice of speaking ill of candidates for judicial offices. There is sometimes a great deal of it. Mr. Richard O'Gorman, of this city, who has just been elected to a Judgeship of the Superior Court, was during the canvass spoken of in the most injurious manner, and we trust he is not going to let it pass unavenged. We hope he will give a salutary warning by butchering one or two editors in cold blood, as our Southern brethren do, and the street, by the way, is the best place for the job. There is fine shooting ground around the Franklin monument. Donley's murder will be, of course, "deplored and regretted" in all the leading Southern cities. Let us add that no Northern man need be deterred by such occurrences from fixing his residence in the South. All he has to do is to avoid having differences with anybody about anything, or criticising candidates for office in an unpleasant manner. By adhering to this simple rule, no sober person will slaughter him except for purposes of robbery, and to this, of course, he cannot as a reasonable man object. There is no community where people have not now and then to be killed before being robbed.

Following the overwhelming Democratic victories at the recent elections, the speculative markets at the Stock Exchange were unsettled and depressed, but this lasted only for little more than a day. These markets then turned toward higher prices, and have since continued in that direction for the stocks of the leading railroads. One of the main reasons for the upward turn was the discovery that Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt, who, a few years ago, sold enough of his railroad stocks to buy between $50,000,000 and $60,000,000 of United States 4 per cent. bonds, had begun converting these into railroad securities, his first step having been to sell $10,000,000 of these bonds to a number of the savings banks and other institutions wanting such securities. The price which he obtained was about two per cent. below the market quotation at the time of sale. The construction put by Wall Street on this action of his was that if he, with an inside view of the railroad business of the country, and the best means for judging what it would be for the next six or eight months, was willing not only to use his cash in hand, but to turn a part of his choicest investment into cash, to buy railroad securities, the latter were, in the parlance of the Street, a "good purchase." Accordingly, others have been buyers, and we have had an advancing market. As the Treasury's disbursements exceeded its receipts, and the surplus revenues continued to increase, the Secretary of the Treasury called in another $15,000,000 of 3½ per cent bonds, and also ordered the prepayment without rebate of the $15,000,000 called before. The effect of this action was to change the money market from activity to ease, and to reduce the rate of loans from 10 to 30 per cent. (to and between which figures it had been manipulated) to plain 6 per cent. The foreign exchanges were without special feature during the week. Railroad earnings still increase, and show heavy gains over last year. Rates on freight are higher than then, and operating expenses are lower (so far as material goes), but the tonnage is not so large, although during the winter it promises to be larger, since Western products have generally been held back on account of low prices. General trade remains fairly good.

The telegraph reports that Mr. Gladstone, in his remarks on the closure in the House of Commons on the 8th inst., spoke of the profound interest he felt in the question of local self-government in Ireland, and the impossibility of dealing with it when the Irish members did all in their power to narrow the time for discussion by which alone legislation looking to local self-government could be enacted. This is perhaps as distinct an intimation as he could throw out that if the Irish help him with the closure, he will make them fresh concessions in the direction of Home Rule. They have, however, apparently decided to oppose the closure, and whether they can now be got to go back on their decision seems doubtful. They may and probably do argue that if the closure goes through, they will be at the mercy of the Ministry and of the majority in a greater degree than they are now, and will, therefore, not have the means of enforcing their demands of which they made such a triumphant use last year. They have not forgotten that when the present Ministry came into power, it had no immediate intention of dealing with Irish grievances at all. Its programme was wholly English. It was the Parnellite obstruction, backed up by "outrages," that caused the complete change of plan which devoted the session of 1881 almost exclusively to Irish legislation, and ended in the passage of that very drastic and in fact revolutionary measure, the Irish Land Act. No one now denies that, but for obstruction, it would not have been framed or carried. The same thing happened in the session of this year. Mr. Gladstone announced, when Parliament met, that the business of the session must be English; but he was compelled to bring in the Irish Arrears Bill, and that the fear of obstruction had much to do with this change of mind also is beyond doubt. We do not mean to say that Mr. Gladstone had no nobler motive, but we do mean to say that if the prospect of obstruction had not stared his followers in the face, he would never have been able to bring them to give any more time to Irish business. In fact, what the Irish have accomplished through this weapon in the teeth of hostile or indifferent English opinion is marvellous, and it is not altogether surprising that they are reluctant to give it up, and trust wholly to the effect of their arguments on bored or disgusted Englishmen.

The Committee of Inquiry appointed by the House of Commons to look into Mr. Gray's contempt case has, it is telegraphed, made three reports, representing different shades of opinion. The majority follow an opinion of the Attorney-General that Judge Lawson had the legal right to do what he did. If this is all they say, however, it does the Judge little

good, for there has been no doubt that he acted within his authority. If he had exceeded his legal powers, Mr. Gray might have been liberated on a habeas corpus. That no attempt was made to get a habeas corpus, or that, if one was made, nothing came of it, showed that no legal objection to the Judge's course could be raised. The charge against him was that he had abused his discretion, and if the report of the Committee says nothing on this point, it leaves him where it found him. The attempted assassination of the Judge apparently does not grow into a well-developed outrage. There is, it is reported, a suspicion in Dublin already, that the assassin wanted to be arrested, in order to get a job as "Queen's evidence." He certainly acted as if he did. Anyhow, the affair is very useful to the Judge, who has been suffering a good deal in reputation from his excess of zeal. He will now be, for a while at least, an object of sympathy.

The attempt on the Judge's life, as reported by cable, has an extremely suspicious appearance. He was known to have police protection ever since he sent Mr. Gray to jail, and was attended to his club on Saturday evening by two policemen, presumably in uniform, and was "watched" from the other side of the street by two army pensioners. Thereupon a ticket-of-leave man, well known to the police, came along, jostled one of the pensioners, and then said to him "in a confidential manner," "It's all right," and gave the pensioner the impression that "there was something suspicious in the man's manner." Having thus effectually secured his attention, the ex-convict started across the street to meet the Judge, with the butt of a revolver protruding from his breast pocket. Of course, the pensioner followed close behind, saw the revolver, gave a loud cry, closed with the ex-convict, and seized the revolver at the expense of a slight cut on his hand, and the Judge's life was saved. If the ticket-of-leave man was hired for the work by a secret society, it certainly cannot have been the one which planned the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The conspirators might almost as well have written to the Judge to meet them alone in a vacant lot about midnight to undergo the punishment due to his crimes.

The French Chambers have met, and the Ministers have put forth a strong appeal for a working majority. They had nothing to say about Egypt, except that negotiations were pending for the settlement of the relations of France and England. The French representative there has been, under instructions from home, doubtless, adhering to the theory that the Joint Control was still in existence, an assumption which the English Minister, on the other hand, wholly repudiated. The Khedive has now set the matter at rest by a decree formally abolishing the Control, so that some wholly new scheme of financial reorganization will have to be resorted to, and it is not probable that under all the circumstances it will be satisfactory to the French. But their attention is likely to be called away from Egyptian finances during the present winter to the condition of their own, which is anything but satisfactory. We have twice within the past year commented in these columns on the really serious analyses by competent French authorities of the condition of the budget, one of them M. Leroy-Beaulieu. He has again returned to the charge, and has made such an exposure of the Treasury statements as apparently to have alarmed French investors, for rentes have fallen under it. He shows that the revenue has at last begun to show a loss of elasticity, that the deficit this year will be $12,000,000, and may reach $30,000,000. This state of things is partly the result of a vicious system of bookkeeping, inherited from the Empire, which prevents any proper relation between the estimates and the receipts, but is also the result of an unfortunate desire on the part of Republican Cabinets to earn popularity by too many public works. The French Government cannot make "river and harbor improvements" as ours can—without laying itself open to any other charge than folly and extravagance or corruption. If it makes them, it deranges its whole financial system, and damages the public credit.

The Italian Court of Appeal has confirmed the decision of the court below which included the Vatican within the jurisdiction of the law courts. The case arose out of the claim of an architect against the Pope's major-domo, on which he sued and got judgment. This caused the Pope to set up a court of his own within the Vatican in the nature of our Court of Claims, to hear and determine cases affecting resident members of his household, which excited some sensation as the first attempt of the present Pope to exercise powers of temporal sovereignty. This has now been promptly met by the decision of the Court of Appeal, which of course makes the Pope's Court a nullity. The Pope's adherents are therefore in their turn greatly outraged, because, they say, this decision makes the Guarantee of the Pope's inviolability practically worthless. They claim for him under this Guarantee the rights and immunities of a foreign ambassador, which, as every one knows, are, under the law of nations, those which the sovereign he represents would enjoy in a foreign city were he to shift his residence temporarily thither. Neither he nor his servants are subject to the jurisdiction of the local tribunal, and his house is, to all intents and purposes, on the territory of his own government. The Vatican is large enough, and contains people enough, to constitute a small principality, and thus far the Italian Government has refrained from claiming any civil or criminal jurisdiction over them. This has been made possible mainly by the fact, however, that the Pope's household, no matter how large, is necessarily an orderly one. It cannot contain turbulent or vicious persons. The Pope, indeed, may always be relied on in our day to exclude from its precincts anybody whose life or manners would bring discredit on it. In other words, he is sure to police it pretty effectually. He would do this even if his ecclesiastical position did not make him the most conspicuous guardian of morals in the world, in order to deprive the Italian Government of all excuse for meddling with what is left of his sovereignty. But the question of the amenability of the inhabitants of the Vatican to the jurisdiction of the civil courts was sure to come before very long. They do not support themselves with the products of their own labor. They toil not, neither do they spin. They have to buy what they need from the world outside, and in doing so have to make contracts, and for longer or shorter periods incur debts; and wherever there is buying and selling, and contracts and debts, there are sure to be disputes, and disputes have to be settled either by the shot-gun, or stiletto, or by litigation. Roman tradesmen, who supply the Vatican with provisions, or carpenters or masons who make repairs in it, are sure some time or other to have disagreements with the major-domo, and sure also not to be content with the decision of an officer of the household, the major's friend or superior, that they are wholly in the wrong, as long as there are other courts within reach.

The crisis has come, perhaps, a little sooner than was expected, but it was sure to come soon, and the courts have met it by the first step in a process which will probably end in bringing the Vatican within the jurisdiction of the Roman police. The courts, of course, will not grant judgments which they do not mean to be executed, and the execution of a judgment means the employment of force, if necessary. This decision was to be expected, too, for besides the standing tendency of all courts to enlarge their jurisdiction, all the winds in Italy now blow towards secularization and the destruction of ecclesiastical immunities and privileges. The matter has, however, little practical importance for the Pope. The amount of real inconvenience he is ever likely to experience from litigation is no greater than that to which the master of any great household is exposed in any country; probably much less, for he is surrounded by attendants whose interest it is to protect him against all petty mundane annoyances. He knows well, too, that his claim of temporal sovereignty is in Italy treated as an old man's whim, which has to be humored as a concession to foreign prejudice. What he is really contending for is the means of keeping up his dignity in the eyes of foreign prelates and pilgrims who come to visit him in Rome, and whose imagination is more or less affected by the feeling that, like Melchizedek, he is a king as well as a priest. That there is a certain reasonableness in al this, no one who has paid much attention to the history of Papal influence during the last ten years can deny. Somehow or other the voice of a simple bishop, living on voluntary contributions, does not, even when it comes from Rome, sound so impressive in men's ears as the voice of a prince who has his army and his police, and his jails, and his pardoning power, and his ambassadors, and all the other paraphernalia of earthly dominion. The struggle to retain even such a trifling relic of this dominion as the sovereignty of the Vatican is indeed a singular confession of the extent to which the spiritual power has declined.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, November 8, to TUESDAY, November 14, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Democratic victory on Tuesday last turned out to be even more sweeping than was at first reported. The result in the different States in which elections were held was as follows:

In New Hampshire, the majority for Hale, Republican candidate for Governor, was only 559.

In Massachusetts, Butler was the only candidate on the Democratic State ticket who was elected, his plurality over Bishop and Almy being 13,088. Oliver Ames, the Republican candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, was elected by a plurality of over 16,000, and the remaining Republican candidates for State officers were all elected by substantial pluralities. The Executive Council will contain but one Democrat.

In Connecticut, the Democrats elected their State ticket, with the exception of the candidate for Comptroller, who was defeated by General Sloat, the Republican nominee. Waller was elected Governor by a plurality of about 4,150.

In New York, the success of the Democrats was overwhelming, the full returns bringing Cleveland's majority up to more than 196,000. Carroll, the Republican candidate for Congressman-at-large, ran slightly ahead of his ticket. The judiciary and free-canal amendments were both carried by large majorities.

In Pennsylvania, Pattison, Democrat, was elected Governor by a plurality of about 38,000 over Beaver, Regular Republican, and Stewart, Independent Republican. The latter polled about 40,000 votes. The Democrats will have a majority of 11 in the Legislature on joint ballot.

In Delaware, the entire Democratic ticket, with the exception of the Sheriff of New Castle County, was elected; Stockley, the Democratic candidate for Governor, receiving a majority of 1,938.

In New Jersey, the Democrats will have a majority on joint ballot in the Legislature.

In Virginia, Wise, Readjuster candidate for Congressman-at-large, was elected. The Congressional delegation will stand six Coalitionists to five Democrats.

The Democrats carried Indiana by a plurality of about 11,000, and will have control of the Legislature.

In Michigan, Kansas, and Colorado, Democratic Governors were elected, but the Legislatures will be Republican.

The Democrats swept California, electing the entire State ticket by a handsome majority. The entire Congressional delegation will be Democratic.

The Southern States went, as usual, Democratic, the majorities in Georgia and Texas being large. In certain Southern States, however, the Republicans made slight gains in Congressmen. The result, in short, has been that the Democrats elected their candidates for Governor in thirteen of the States, and have made great gains in nearly all of the thirty-three States which held elections on the 7th inst.

In the Forty-eighth Congress the Democrats will control the House of Representatives by a majority of seventy-one, the figures being Republicans 127, Democrats 198. The Democrats will have solid delegations from Alabama, Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, and Texas, and have secured Representatives in Iowa and Michigan which have unbroken Republican delegations in the present Congress. In the last-named State the Republican reverse is marked, for, instead of a solid delegation of Republicans, the State elects six Democrats to five Republicans. Of the fifty-seven chairmen of committees appointed by Speaker Keifer, only twenty-three have been sent back to Congress.

There is, of course, some doubt as yet in regard to the composition of the Senate in the Forty-eighth Congress, but, judging from the Legislatures of the States which are to elect Senators, the next Senate will probably consist of thirty-eight Republicans, thirty-six Democrats, and Mahone and Riddleberger, of Virginia, with a possibility of the return of David Davis by the Illinois Legislature instead of a Republican.

Various prominent politicians of both parties have expressed their views in "interviews" on the result of the elections. Mr. Blaine is credited with having said that he is not a candidate for the Presidency or for any other political office. "His position is, that the death of Garfield terminated the political era in which they both belonged," says a Boston despatch. He does not see in Tuesday's reverses anything to cause despondency respecting the future of the Republican party. The defeat is not so signal as that of 1874, and, like that, can be made to result in good to the party. He believes that the victory may be achieved in 1884 by presenting as a candidate for the Presidency a man who has the confidence of the country, and upon whom both factions of the party can unite. To the accomplishment of that result his influence as a private citizen will be exerted. He believes that Republican success in 1884 is essential to the welfare of the country.

Ex-Speaker Randall, who will naturally be a prominent candidate for Speaker of the next House of Representatives, was interviewed, and said the "recent Democratic and reform successes mean a declaration by the American people in favor of greatly reducing public expenses, both in the general and local governments." He regarded the result of the elections as a complete and final overthrow of "bossism." He thought the measures of reform which would and should be introduced by the Democratic party in the next Congress were the abolition of the internal-revenue system, the reform of the tariff and civil service, and the enactment of laws to prevent the enforced assessments on the salaries of officials of the Government. In conclusion, he said: "I think I can assure the public that nothing will be done by the Democratic House which will in any degree disturb, or even embarrass, our present business relations and prosperity, whether such may relate to commerce, manufactures, or agriculture."

Senator Bayard, in a recent interview, expressed his views with regard to the Democratic victory and the duties of the party on coming into power. He said that the reform of the civil service, the simplification of the tax laws, and insistance on the principle that revenue shall be the object and protection only an incident of tax laws, are the obvious duties of the party assuming to administer the affairs of our Government. He said that to state the tariff issue "broadly, and yet accurately, the people of the United States are threatened with the substitution of a plutocracy instead of Republicanism as the basis of their Government." This conclusion he drew from the fact that "certain favored classes of our citizens have brought themselves into the absurd belief that they have certain vested rights in the perpetuation of unequal taxes, to their personal benefit, upon the whole body of their fellow-countrymen."

Mr. David A. Wells addressed a large number of revenue reformers in the rooms of the New York Free Trade Club on Thursday. He urged the necessity of immediate legislation to reduce taxation and to promote revenue reform, on the ground that the present financial system results in the accumulation of $150,000,000 surplus yearly. The application of this sum to the payment of the national debt he held to be a blow at the national-banking system. Even with the reduction of taxation, he said, the time was not far distant when the basis of this system would be wiped out. Unless something in the way of relief was done at once, he held that there would be a financial cyclone which would shake the business interests of the country to their foundations. In conclusion, he urged the necessity of a union of civil-service reformers with revenue reformers for prompt, effective, and thorough political organization, on the ground that the election of Tuesday meant the disintegration of both the old political parties and the formation of a new one, with reform in the tariff, in the civil service, and in the administrative methods of the Government as its cardinal principles.

The Mississippi River Commission have submitted estimates for appropriations needed in the next fiscal year. They ask for about as much as was given at the last session of Congress, or something more than $4,000,000.

Mr. Henry George delivered a lecture, entitled "Progress and Poverty," in Washington, on Sunday night, under the auspices of the Federation of Labor Unions. His audience was a large and intelligent one, composed mainly of the better educated tradesmen, mechanics, and artisans of the city. The principal topics discussed by him were land tenure, the labor question, and the agitation in Ireland.

A complimentary dinner was given to Mr. Herbert Spencer at Delmonico's on Thursday night, at which a number of distinguished men were present. Mr. William M. Evarts presided. Mr. Spencer made a speech, in which he dwelt on the tendency in American life toward exclusive devotion to work, and consequent abstinence from recreation of any kind. The American, he said, eagerly pursues the future good, ignoring the good the passing day offers him. In conclusion, he said that we have had "somewhat too much of the 'gospel of work.' It is time to preach the gospel of relaxation."

The New York *Herald* on Thursday announced that a number of gentlemen, including Mr. James Gordon Bennett, proposed to lay a new cable between the United States and Europe. The money has been all subscribed, and it is expected that messages will be going through it next summer.

Frank H. Fall has prepared a confession of his complicity in the attempt to bribe the Star-route jurors. He gives full details of the arrangement which he entered into with Payne and Foote, by which the two latter were to induce the juror Brown to sign a contract to vote a certain way, in consideration of the payment of $2,500. Brown refused to sign the contract, as that would commit him to paper; but he agreed to be bribed if his word would be taken. Fall was the man who was dismissed from the detective force of the Department of Justice for having suggested that he should be provided with a few Government clerkships for distribution as bribes to the jury.

The United States Revenue cutter, *Thomas Corwin*, brings particulars of recent fights with Indians in Alaska. The *Thomas Corwin* destroyed a village, the inhabitants of which had attacked a whaling launch, and captured two white men. Hearing also that Indians had taken possession of one of the American Fur-Trading Company's stations, and held all the employees prisoners, Commander Healey, of the *Thomas Corwin*, went to their relief, and found the Indians very hostile. He shelled their village, and released all the men held as prisoners.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday debate on the closure was resumed. Mr. Gladstone made a speech opposing Sir Stafford Northcote's amendment for the rejection of the closure rules. With regard to the Irish party Mr. Gladstone said he believed that a complete and effective system of rules

was essential for meeting the wants of Ireland. There was no subject, he said, in which he felt more profound interest than local government for Ireland, but it was mockery for the Irish members to come into the House and tell the Government to establish local government for Ireland, when they did all in their power to narrow the time for discussion by which alone such legislation could be enacted and given to Ireland. Mr. Stanhope, Conservative, denounced the closure, and charged Mr. Gladstone with bidding for Irish votes by his talk about Irish self-government, for which his affection was only of recent birth. On Friday the debate was resumed. Mr. O'Shea, Liberal, appealed to the Irish members to support the Government. Mr. Cowen, Radical Reformer, denounced the closure rules as an interference with the liberties of the House which would be fatal to the existence of minorities in Parliament. A change was necessary, he said, but this change was excessive and bewildering, and amounted to a revolution in the proprieties of the House. Mr. Charles Russell, Liberal, said that if the Government abused the proposed rules a healthy public opinion would soon hurl them from power. He could not understand why the Home Rulers proposed to vote with the Tory coercionists. Sir Henry James (Liberal) pointed out, referring to Mr. Stanhope's speech, that the Queen's speech from the throne in 1881 held out a promise of the establishment of county boards in Ireland. After some further speeches a division was had, and Sir Stafford Northcote's motion that the first closure resolution be rejected was defeated by a vote of 304 to 260. The Parnellites voted for, and the other Irish members against, the motion.

On Monday, Mr. Gladstone moved that the second procedure resolution be considered. Lord Randolph Churchill, in moving an amendment to the resolution, referred to the treaty alleged to have been entered into by the Government with the Irish members imprisoned in Kilmainham Jail, by which the latter were said to have effected their release. Mr. Gladstone said that no such treaty had been made, and challenged the Opposition to move an inquiry into the subject. Mr. Yorke, Conservative, then asked if Mr. Gladstone would give a day therefor, and Mr. Gladstone replied, "Yes, at once." On Tuesday Mr. Yorke moved that a Select Committee be appointed to inquire into the circumstances under which Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, and O'Kelly were released from Kilmainham Jail.

Debate on the second procedure resolution was resumed on Tuesday night. Mr. Gladstone assented, though with considerable misgiving, to an amendment providing that a member may obtain leave to move an adjournment during the pendency of questions, provided that forty members rise in their places and favor such motion. This is looked on as a considerable concession from the Government, who originally demanded that a motion for adjournment should not be put unless leave was granted by a majority of the House.

Mr. Gladstone made a statement in the House of Commons on Tuesday relative to Egypt. He said that there were now 12,000 troops there, but that the Government had no idea of allowing so large a force to remain there long. The next step would be to conclude a convention relative to a temporary arrangement for the security of the country, including the charges for the maintenance of the troops. This convention, he said, would be modelled on that concluded with France after the battle of Waterloo.

In the House of Commons on Monday, the Speaker read a letter from Mr. Bradlaugh asking the House to permit him to state at the bar the grounds of the law on which he claims his right to take the seat for Northampton, for which he was elected. On the same day Mr. Gladstone stated that it would be impossible to forecast when the trial of Arabi Bey would begin or finish. The Government, he said, was anxious to expedite the proceedings. Arabi would not be executed without the consent of the Government. He said that Lord Dufferin would conclude no final arrangements with Egypt, but that the Government was now engaged in considering with Lord Dufferin the establishment of institutions in which Egyptians would be represented, and which would have control over the administration of the expenditures. Until further progress was made, he said, it would be premature to enter into the question of submitting the arrangements to the sanction of the Sultan or to the European concert.

In a speech at the Lord Mayor's banquet on Thursday, Mr. Gladstone said he could now record his convictions that a new tone of sentiment was dawning among the Irish, to seek an amelioration of their condition by peaceful efforts at law. He said the foundations of society in Ireland were now in little danger. The monthly return of agrarian outrages was but 111, as compared with 511 in October, 1881. If the Irish were content to walk in the ways of legality, the Empire was strong and free enough to entertain in a friendly and kindly spirit any demand that might be made for free discussion and perfect publicity in matters relating to its Irish policy. He highly praised the conduct of the British forces in the Egyptian campaign, which he believed would be memorable in history. Lord Granville and Mr. Childers also delivered speeches.

An attempt was made to assassinate Judge Lawson in Dublin on Saturday evening. He was on his way to his club, guarded by policemen in citizens' clothes, when a man was seen to cross the road toward Judge Lawson and to put his hand into the breast of his coat, whereupon he was knocked down by the policemen and found to be holding a six-chambered revolver. The prisoner is known to be a foreman carpenter, and the attempt is believed to have originated in a secret society. A rumor, however, is current that Delaney, the prisoner, only feigned an attempt to shoot the Judge, in order that, being arrested, he might turn informer and obtain a Government reward.

At a meeting of the Corporation of Dublin, on Friday, a heated discussion occurred on a motion to thank the Irish regiments which served in Egypt for their gallantry, and to confer the freedom of the city on Sir Garnet Wolseley. Crowds thronged the vicinity of the hall where the debate was going on, and great interest was manifested in the result. Some of the Irish members of Parliament had hurried to Dublin to assist in defeating the motion. An amendment by Mr. Sullivan, M.P., declaring that Ireland had no interest in the Egyptian war, which had only resulted in increasing taxation and carrying ruin to Irish homes, was ultimately carried by a vote of 27 to 21.

A despatch to the London *Daily News* from Cairo said that the Commission of Inquiry preliminary to the trial of Arabi Pasha had repudiated the forms of procedure agreed upon between Arabi's counsel and the prosecution. The Commission insists that witnesses cannot be cross-examined directly, and that the trial must be finished by Christmas. The counsel have protested.

Advices from Egypt say that the medical reports show that there have been forty-one deaths in the British Army of occupation from the 1st to the 9th instant, and that nearly ten per cent. of the Army is on the sick list. Lord Dufferin is said to have made an excellent impression on the Egyptian ministers. He told them that he had not come there to take the direction of affairs out of the hands of Sir Edward Malet, but to work with the latter on terms of perfect equality. On Thursday a note was issued by the Egyptian Government announcing the abolition of the European Control. The note points out that the Control, as reconstituted by the Khedive in 1879, no longer offers any guarantee to bondholders, but has become an institution of a dual and political character which has proved the cause of many administrative difficulties. In the House of Commons on Friday, however, Sir Charles Dilke said that although the Egyptian Government had proposed the abolition of the Control it had not issued a decree of abolition. In the course of this same debate Mr. Gladstone expressed the fullest confidence in the Khedive and the Egyptian Government as to the fairness of Arabi's trial.

The steamer *Westphalia*, of the Hamburg Line, collided off Beachy Head, England, on Monday morning, with an unknown steamer. The *Westphalia* reached Portsmouth with difficulty, but the unknown steamer is supposed to have sunk with all hands, as no trace of her has been found.

The Court of Appeals at Rome has confirmed the decision of the Court of the First Instance, that the jurisdiction of the Italian tribunals extends within the walls of the Vatican. The point arose in connection with a case in which a man employed as an architect in the Vatican sued the major-domo of the Pope before the Italian Courts. The clerical press is indignant at the decision, and declares that it makes the Law of Papal Guarantees a farce.

The French Chambers reassembled on Thursday. The declaration of the Government's policy stated that the object of the Government would be to efface the divisions in the Republican party, and thereby enable it to resist the attacks of hostile factions; to do its utmost to repress any factious demonstrations, from whatever quarter. The declaration said that the Government asks the Chambers to discuss the budget before everything, and afterward to consider a bill dealing with habitual criminals. Bills will also be introduced dealing with the organization of judicial tribunals, and the organization of the administration of Tunis. The Ministry says that it relies upon the support of Parliament, and believes that a majority exists which is resolved to give the country a strong and durable government, which shall vigorously exact absolute respect for the laws. On these conditions the Ministers are ready to continue their task.

After the meeting of the Chambers the members of the Extreme Left held a meeting, at which they resolved to favor the revision of the Constitution.

On Friday the Chamber of Deputies discussed the estimates for Public Worship. The Minister of the Interior announced that the Government had decided to oppose any proposition tending to the abrogation of the Concordat. The Radicals urged a reduction of the estimates.

The Greek Minister of Finance on Friday presented to the Chamber of Deputies his estimate of receipts and expenditures for the coming year. The budget showed a surplus of 1,041,602 drachmas.

A despatch to the London *Post*, from Berlin, says that the new German Minister to the United States has been instructed to obtain a revision of the existing Treaty of Naturalization, or the conclusion of a new one of uniform character.

A despatch from Belgrade says that Mr. Eugene Schuyler, U. S. Minister Resident and Consul-General for Servia and Rumania, presented his credentials to King Milan on Monday. Ratifications of the Servo-American commercial treaty were afterward exchanged.

The Bey of Tunis has intrusted the French commander with all matters relating to the military and naval services of the Regency. Generals Forgemol and Logerot have declined the posts of Minister of War and Marine.

THE NOVEMBER ELECTIONS.

THE Democrats will have a majority in the next House of Representatives large enough to give them almost unlimited freedom of action in that body. They will at the same time have before their eyes an unusually good chance of success at the next Presidential election. Their capacity for blundering while in possession of power has become proverbial, and their success this autumn has been so astonishing that their heads may again be turned by the apparent certainty of future triumphs. It cannot be denied that at present there is more reason for such confidence on their part than ever before. The Republican party, utterly broken up by its crushing defeat, cannot and will not rally and reorganize its forces under the old leadership. That is out of the question. And the rebuilding, upon correct principles, of an organization in opposition to the Democratic party strong enough to achieve success, may require more time than from this day to the opening of the next Presidential election. Such, at least, is the present aspect of the situation. The prospects of the future are therefore uncommonly seductive for the light heads in the Democratic party, and there is just a possibility that they may again throw away their chances by uncommonly foolish conduct. But it would be astonishing if the Democrats had not learned at least something in the way of prudence.

In the next session of Congress the Republicans will still hold a majority, and the Democrats will still appear in the attitude of an Opposition. The course of the latter will therefore not materially differ from what it has been heretofore. They will have much to say about economy in public expenditures, and occasionally vote in that direction; we say "occasionally," for it is well known that in those measures of lavish extravagance which were especially offensive to the people, the Democrats in Congress were fully as much concerned as the Republicans. But it is to be expected that at the next session of Congress the Republicans will appear very much sobered by defeat, and rather intent upon making a reputation for economy—except, perhaps, those members who know that they will never rise to the surface again, and now want to avail themselves of their last chance for a haul. On the whole, a comparatively economical session of Congress is probable, in which each party will take care to have in that respect as many good things as possible to say of itself. When, therefore, the distressed Republicans ask themselves in what way they can measurably repair the disaster that has overtaken them, by improving their moral standing before the country, they will find that, in the matter of economy, they can, indeed, by wise conduct protect themselves against additional reproach, but they can scarcely hope to put the Democrats at a disadvantage. Also, with regard to the tariff question and the reduction of taxation, they may somewhat disarm the distrust, or rather disgust, with which their failure to perceive the requirements of the time and to act accordingly has filled the public mind; but there also the Democrats, although their attitude hitherto has not been by any means reassuring, are not likely to permit them to make any exclusive capital.

But there is one point on which the Republicans in Congress can achieve a decided advantage over the Democrats at the approaching session. Never has the popular feeling against the demoralizing abuses of the spoils system been as definite, sincere, and strong as it is now. Never has the demand for the abolition of that system, and for a thorough reform of the civil service, been as loud and as general as it is to-day. The candidates for Congress of both parties at the late elections vied with one another in protesting their adherence to the cause of that reform. The approval and support of bills pending before the present Congress were made the test of the sincerity of those professions. Here is the chance of the Republicans at the next session, where they still hold power. They can bring those bills to a vote, and use their majority to pass them. The sincere friends of the reform among them will be glad to avail themselves of this last chance. Even the Machine politicians among them may understand that now, with the prospect of the Democrats going into power before them, they have in the abolition of the spoils system nothing to lose for themselves, while they may make a good point for their side in public opinion. On the other hand, the Democrats, if forced to the issue, will have to deal with the civil-service reform question in the face of the probability that the spoils of the National Government may soon fall into their hands. Even to many of those who have as candidates publicly proclaimed their fidelity to that cause, civil-service reform may appear in a new light under such circumstances. Their sincerity will have to pass through a severe ordeal, and public duty as well as party policy demands of the Republicans in Congress that Democratic sincerity with regard to civil-service reform be put at once to a direct test.

In the general analysis of the causes of the Republican disaster which is now going on all over the country, one cannot but be struck by the omission of all mention of what is perhaps the most remarkable phenomenon of the crisis—the failure of all the prominent Republicans in public life to utter any really emphatic note of warning about it. Usually, when a great political revolution is impending, there are plenty of prophets to foretell what is coming, even among the friends and allies of the party in power. The evil day is almost always foreshadowed by secessions or protests. The overthrow of the Beaconsfield Ministry in England in 1880 is the event of recent history which most nearly resembles our own elections of last week as an impetuous outburst of popular disapproval. But its coming was indicated long beforehand by such incidents as the resignation of Lords Derby and Carnarvon from the Cabinet, and by declining majorities in the House of Commons.

The Republican party here received no such signals from its leading politicians. The press was left to do the whole work of preparing it for the immense reverse which has overtaken it. One cannot point to a single speech in or out of Congress, from one of its chiefs of any wing, saying boldly that the doings of the managers were imperilling the continuance of the party in power, or indeed indicating in any way that they themselves had any conception that the temper of the public was rising. This is the more extraordinary because the party has, since the Chicago Convention, been rent by bitter dissensions. The chiefs are not only not all Stalwarts, but a large body of them are separated from the Stalwarts by fierce and deep animosities, and the Administration has done nothing to conciliate its opponents. It has not attempted to silence their criticisms by favors. On the contrary, it has gone its gait in a way which showed clearly enough that it did not care what any one said. Nevertheless, all that we have heard from its enemies in public life by way of censure has been that it was acting unfairly in the distribution of patronage, either by "slaughtering" or failing to recognize the "Garfield Republicans." No leading man has come forward to say boldly, by speech or letter, that its whole system was at fault, and that the general treatment by the majority in Congress of the questions by which the popular mind was agitated, was dangerous to the very existence of the party. There have been from one or two quarters of influence slight hints that things were not going quite as they ought to go, but surely such tremendous defeats as have occurred in this State, in Pennsylvania, and in Massachusetts ought long ago to have found prophets to warn us of them in trumpet tones. Surely there ought to be now somebody—even one man—among the party leaders able to come forward and say, "I told you so."

Apparently there is not one; and to any one who considers the long training as an observer of public opinion which every American politician of prominence apparently undergoes before reaching high office, this is a most surprising phenomenon, and one which would well repay the investigation of any political philosopher. We presume the explanation of it which lies nearest the surface is, that under our present nominating system every man who reaches high office has owed so much of his advancement to some kind of Machine, and has become so impressed with its power, that he gradually ceases to look beyond it, or outside of it, for signs of the times. To such a man, for instance, the doings in the New York Machine really did not seem so very unfortunate, because they might have been repaired or obviated by a slight change in the composition of the State Committee or in the distribution of the nominations. In other words, he could see nothing wrong there which could not be cured by a "conference" or a "new deal." In Massachusetts also, although things were not perhaps looking very satisfactory, yet there was no considerable trouble among the men in power. Bishop was not quite what they wanted in the way of a Governor, but they never dreamed that there was anything so wrong about him as to make Butler preferable to the voters. Hubbellism, too, was distasteful to many Republican chiefs, but only distasteful. There was not in the Congressional Committee for which he professed to act a suspicion of the popular indignation which he was arousing.

The members were so far removed from it, and knew so little of it, that they actually allowed him to distribute as a campaign document a speech of one of their own number in defence of assessments; and a man so far removed from the category of ordinary politicians as Senator Hoar actually only thought Hubbellism "indelicate" within three weeks of the deluge. Yet in Senator Hoar's State, nominating conventions are more nearly true representative bodies than perhaps in any other in the Union.

We can, on the whole, only recall one office-holding politician, even of the second or third order, who saw what was coming and got ready for it, and that was Mr. Stewart L. Woodford. His appearance on the stump a fortnight before the election as an implacable civil-service reformer was clearly a moving of his household goods and cattle to the high ground, by a man who had seen cracks in the dam.

AMERICAN OVERWORK.

Mr. Herbert Spencer, at the dinner given him last week, added his corroboration to the immense mass of testimony which has, ever since the introduction of railroads and telegraphs, been convicting Americans of taking too little relaxation. It would be very interesting, apropos of these criticisms, to know exactly how Americans compare in this matter with other commercial nations. Probably no statistics on this point can be collected, but we suspect that it would be found that in our day the commercial Englishman who has not made his fortune works, if not as hard, as assiduously—that is, spends as many hours in the year in his office or store—as the American. With the business men of all countries vacation is very much a matter of money. Most men take it if they think they can afford it, or if the doctor orders it as a remedy for a specific ailment; otherwise they stick to their oar. American clerks, we imagine, get about the same amount of holiday as English clerks—that is, a fortnight—but clerks on a salary feel in no country the real drafts that business makes on the nervous system. It is the employers of labor generally, or the professional men, to whose duties and responsibilities there is no definite limit, but who have to do all that their place in the social system gives them to do, who suffer from want of relaxation. In England there is a small body of these men living in London who can afford to keep a horse and ride in Rotten Row in the afternoon for an hour or two, and get their liver shaken up in the midst of a scene of great social animation and variety; but it would be ludicrous to infer anything from what one sees in Rotten Row on a fine day as to the opportunities of exercise and entertainment possessed by the great bulk of middle-class Englishmen. The vast majority of them, after their first youth is past, stick to their desks through long days, with the object of increasing their incomes or accumulating a fortune.

They are better off than the Americans in two ways only. One is that they have within their reach the great American remedy of "going to Europe" for about a quarter of the cost in time and money. A tired Englishman can, in other words, take "Europe" in as small doses as he pleases. He can take a week of it, if that is all he can afford, by running across the Channel into France, or Switzerland, or Germany, or Norway, and get an enormous amount of change and the refreshment that comes from change in that time. The tired American, on the other hand, if he needs Europe, must take at least two months of it, and spend three weeks in reaching it and coming back from it. The ocean, it is true, is a rest and refreshment to some, but not to many. To most people it brings simple vacuity, and after a day or two vacuity itself becomes tiresome. For a weary business man there is nothing like Europe, and Europe means change of scene, and surroundings that will interest and excite. It is in the fact that Europe is not to be had on this continent that most of the American difficulty about vacation lies. Go West, North, or South, and we see the same manners, customs, language, costume, laws, buildings, conveyances, traditions, and cuisine; and when the weary business man has seen the principal scenery of the continent once, therefore, there is no more Europe for him on this side of the ocean. It is true that if he is a sportsman he may get more or less Europe by going off fishing or hunting, but the number of men who in middle life love the rod or gun sufficiently to find Europe in it is very small. There is thus nothing left in summer for a man who wishes to take vacation but a few weeks, which are apt to be monotonous, with his family in some seaside or mountain farmhouse or hotel, where the morning papers come regularly, and perhaps indeed the "ticker" ticks in the hall, and the nearest approach to relaxation is business talks with other business men on the piazza. It is not surprising that vacation spent in this way does not greatly tempt the toilers of the great cities who have not yet reached the age that finds Europe in sitting still in an easy-chair.

The other advantage the Englishman, and, in fact, the European generally, has over the American, is that he gets a good deal of Europe in his meat and drink. In other words, there is a touch of Europe in his dinner in the evening, to which he looks forward during the day, and hurries home with pleased anticipation. The active and busy Americans, on the other hand, who care for what are called "the pleasures of the table" are very few. The number of those who really do not care what they eat or drink, and often do not know, and who take food simply to get rid of the sensation of hunger and exhaustion is very large. Any sociologist who got at the reason why eating has so little social importance in America, and supplies so little Europe to Americans, would, we suspect, come very near explaining why Americans appear to suffer more from overwork than Europeans, if such be the case.

It is constantly forgotten, in discussing these subjects, that, to the majority of men trained to industry in any country, rest and refreshment are not to be had by simple idleness. In fact, to most men of this kind idleness is but an aggravation of their troubles. They do not know how to lounge, or "loaf," and detest objectless walks, or perhaps hate walking altogether. They have probably lost the habit of reading, which always involves the power of continuous attention, have for years never practised conversation, are not sportsmen, and, in short, do not know how to amuse themselves. To ask these men to cut loose from their business without offering them Europe, is simply asking them to plunge into the horrors of ennui. Probably the best advice that can be given to the mass of business men is not to work less, but the very old one, to cultivate from the beginning of business life some outdoor taste, to the gratification of which one may betake himself with gusto when the holiday season comes round. But this has to be begun in youth and kept up with almost as much perseverance and assiduity as the pursuit of fortune; and it is needless to say, therefore, that the number of those who do it, or probably can ever be got to do it, is small. But there has unquestionably been a great change in this regard in the habits of our young men within twenty years, and the result will very likely be seen in the middle-aged and old of the coming generation. There will be more of them seen seeking Europe in the saddle, or the bicycle, or the sailboat, or in the enjoyment of a good dinner, and possibly in conversation about other things than stocks and bonds.

THE REASSEMBLING OF PARLIAMENT.

London, October 28, 1882.

As your readers are aware, the practice—almost invariable of late years—according to which Parliament takes a vacation from August till February, has this year been broken through by its adjournment for a period of two months only. It is now meeting for the sole and special purpose of dealing with those rules of procedure which the Government brought forward in February last, but whose consideration was interrupted by the disorders of Ireland, so that, although several days were spent in discussing them, no substantial progress had been made when the House rose. Mr. Gladstone declared in the most emphatic language that there was no use in bringing in any new projects of legislation until the machinery of legislation had been thoroughly reformed and reorganized; and as it had proved impossible to accomplish this reform in the usual session, and its postponement till next year would have seriously trenched upon the working time of that session, no course remained except to fix a special time for taking it up, and to let that time come out of the autumnal recess. The usual course would have been to have a special session for the purpose. But this would have involved a Queen's speech, an address to the throne, and a debate on that address, whereby large opportunities would have been given to the Opposition and the Parnellite members of getting up a general debate, possibly very protracted, upon the whole policy of the Government. Much time might thus have been consumed; and to save that time it was arranged that Parliament should not be prorogued, but should merely adjourn in August, so that on its reassembling in October it should apply itself forthwith to the consideration of those rules of procedure. The wish of the Government was to prevent any topic whatever except procedure from being debated. This, however, they cannot hope to secure. Parliament being once assembled, it is impossible to prevent other subjects of a pressing nature from being mooted.

To refuse the time for their discussion would look like timidity, or might be thought to be a denial of the rights of the legislature to know how the executive proposes to act in important current matters. It is therefore probable that before the prorogation takes place there will be a debate on Egyptian affairs, and also one, if not on the condition of Ireland generally, at least upon the action of Judge Lawson in committing to prison for contempt of court Mr. Gray, High Sheriff of Dublin, and also editor and proprietor of the *Freeman's Journal;* and no one can yet say that other debates on other points may not be forced upon the House, however desirous the Ministry may be to avoid them.

The last few weeks of vacation were used by the Tory leaders in a provincial campaign against the Government, some short accounts of which you have probably read. The time did not seem an auspicious one for making such attacks. The Government had, after several severe blows received in the course of the summer, recovered its prestige in August and September, firstly, by its victory over the House of Lords in the matter of the Irish Arrears Bill, and secondly by the successful close of the expedition to Egypt. The charge which the Tory party has most frequently and most earnestly, and, it must also be said, most honestly, brought against Liberal Ministries in general, and Mr. Gladstone's in particular, is that they are indifferent both to the national honor of England and to her material interests in foreign countries. It was supposed, and as I have just said, honestly believed, that the doctrines of non-intervention and peace-at-any-price had been accepted by the bulk of the Liberal party, and would guide their policy. Many were the appeals made to national pride on this score, many the contrasts drawn between the confident and high-toned energy of Lord Beaconsfield and the timorousness or short-sightedness of his successors. It was also, of course, predicted that even if a Liberal Government did engage in war, it would conduct that war in such a half-hearted, stingy, and incompetent fashion that no complete success, no vindication of the ancient prowess of the British arms, could be looked for. When, therefore, Mr. Gladstone not only despatched an expedition to Egypt, but despatched it with great promptitude and vigor, there was some surprise. When that expedition obtained a victory more speedy and more complete than either England or Europe had expected, the Conservative orators felt that the bread was taken out of their mouths. As patriots they were bound to rejoice, as party men they must have had feelings of a less jubilant kind. The usual line of attack, the line they really liked, had now to be abandoned, and some new one discovered.

It was under these difficulties that Sir Stafford Northcote and his lieutenants undertook their provincial stumping tour. People asked whether it would not have been wiser to postpone it till the impression of the victories in Egypt had passed away. Perhaps it might, if the object of the Tory leader had really been to arraign the policy of the Government and damage them in the eyes of the country, for every week and month that passes obliterates the effect of success, and brings with it occasions for mistakes or misfortunes by which an administration is damaged. But it may be conjectured that his purpose rather was to encourage and stimulate his own followers to perfect their organization by coming personally among them, and showing them that their efforts to strengthen the party, even in Scotland, where it is weakest, were appreciated. The Conservatives are under the impression that the Liberal victory of 1880 was chiefly due to the efficient organization of the Liberal party, and believe that, with a similar system of local associations working heartily together, they might recover their lost position. Hence, although they are always denouncing what it is the fashion to call the Birmingham caucus, they are endeavoring to create something which bears no very distant resemblance to that system. There is no better means for this purpose than for the chiefs of the party to go through the country, make their faces and voices familiar to the local politicians, and supply these with arguments against the Ministry, which, whatever effect they may have upon dispassionate minds, will do well enough for meetings where everybody is already of one mind. This is what not only Sir Stafford, but also some of the most effective speakers of his party, such as Mr. Gibson, Sir Hardinge Giffard (the ex-Solicitor-General), Mr. E. Clarke, and Mr. Lowther (ex-Secretary for Ireland) have been doing, and so far their labors have not been thrown away. On the country at large no effect has been produced. When Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet is accused of having copied that very aggressive policy of Lord Beaconsfield which its members had denounced while in opposition, or again when it is alleged that if they had shown more firmness in the initial stages of the Egyptian difficulty, they might have avoided the necessity of war at all, people feel that these things are said only because an Opposition must say something; and they pity Sir Stafford for not having a better case to fight. Every one knows that neither Mr. Gladstone nor Lord Granville ever accepted or enounced the doctrine of non-intervention; every one feels that it is idle to speculate now on what might have happened if the Cabinet had been endowed with the gift of prophecy. Some mistakes they certainly did make—but the public is, on the whole, disposed to think that, considering the numerous rocks and shoals through which the ship had to be steered, the jealousies of France and Russia and Italy, the faithlessness of Turkey, the dangers which might have followed an explosion of Mohammedan fanaticism in the Levant, the pilots have done quite as well as the passengers had a right to expect.

At the same time it would be easy to overestimate the amount of strength which the Government have gained by the success of their Eastern policy. A considerable section of the Liberal party, and in particular the working-class Radicals and the Nonconformists, have never liked this Egyptian expedition. They acquiesced in it, or at least they did not openly oppose it, because they have an almost boundless confidence in Mr. Gladsone, and not in his ability merely, but in his moral feelings and his love of peace. They supposed it must be necessary, or else he would not have sanctioned it. But they feel no exultation in the success of our arms, no such pleasure in mere military glory as would display itself in Germany or France. This sentiment does no doubt exist in the upper or richer class, and in that part of the middle class which apes the class above it. But then those sections of the nation are already Tory in their politics, and far too decidedly Tory to be won over to Liberalism by the transient success, or what they would call the sudden conversion, of a Liberal Ministry. They are, of course, for the moment less hostile to Mr. Gladstone than they would be if he had refused to interfere in Egypt, or if his expedition had failed. But their position is not permanently affected; and at the next general election they will vote for Conservative candidates just as much as they would have done five months ago, when there were loud complaints of his inactivity generally, and neglect of the Suez Canal in particular.

It must further be remembered that we have by no means yet emerged from our Egyptian difficulties. What is, perhaps, the most troublesome part of the whole task remains: the resettlement of the country and the determination of our future relations to it. This is a subject too large for me to discuss at the end of a letter, and the materials for predicting the action of the Government are very scanty. They have abstained from giving any indication of their intentions, and may probably not have yet formed anything that can be called a regular scheme, such as could be submitted to the other European Powers. Possibly it will be weeks or months before they do so. From public opinion, which seems paralyzed by its ignorance and its sense of the objections to every hitherto suggested course, they have little light to expect. Any arrangement is sure to be severely criticised, and is almost sure to produce future embarrassments. Meantime the Tory party in the House of Commons is as active as ever, full of spirit and combat, fully disposed to prolong the struggle over the Rules of Procedure. It is convinced that Mr. Gladstone's object is, under the pretence of dealing with Parnellite obstruction, to suppress Conservative opposition by obtaining a power of closing debates; and it is prepared to resist such a closing power with the utmost vehemence. So far as can be seen at present, the debates on the new rules, which, if approached without party feeling, could be concluded in a fortnight, are likely to extend over six or seven weeks. It is, however, always possible that weariness may suddenly supervene, for this special session is an unwelcome interruption to the amusements of autumn and early winter, a time which the English rich spend either at their country houses, shooting or hunting, or in the sunshine of the southern coasts of France. It may be found, after a few weeks, difficult to keep members together in London; and in that case the inordinately prolonged discussion of the first rule (that which creates the closing power, and therefore excites most opposition) will be followed, as commonly happens, by a hasty and inadequate consideration of all the rest. Y.

ENGLISH POPULAR OPINION ABOUT EGYPT.

LONDON, October 28, 1882.

MY aim in this letter is simply to describe a peculiar phase of public opinion. To prevent misconception, it may be well to add that my remarks have reference almost exclusively to the opinions about Egypt entertained by Liberals. A fair picture of Conservative feeling ought to be drawn by a Conservative.

There is, as far as my observation goes, much less of irrational exultation over our success in Egypt than might be supposed by a careless reader of the daily newspapers. Of course people are pleased that our troops should not have done themselves discredit. People are also pleased, and with more reason, to observe that the present military arrangements have worked well, and that officers and civilians seem at last to have learned the lesson that success in warfare is, like every other kind of success, a matter of prudence, of preparation, and, in short, of applying the right means to the attainment of the desired ends. To any one who, like myself, can remember the expedition to the Crimea, the contrast between the carelessness which marked our attack on the Russian Empire and the careful forethought devoted to our attack upon an Egyptian insurgent is instructive, and, from a patriotic point of view, gratifying. But every one knows and admits that the defeat of fellahs, many of whom were not even trained as soldiers, is not a matter on which Englishmen ought to plume themselves. Moreover, Liberal

electors, and especially the Dissenters, whose energy contributed more than anything else to Mr. Gladstone's success in 1880, are puzzled and, it may be suspected, a little troubled, by the warlike success which has been achieved by the Liberal party. There is, after all, a spice, though only a spice, of truth in the remark of a Conservative paper, that the last character in which Mr. Gladstone could ever have been expected to appear is the character of the conquering hero. It is not for a moment to be supposed that either Mr. Gladstone or the great majority of his followers think the Egyptian war wrong. To argue that anything in the Midlothian speeches pledged the Premier never under any circumstances to lead the nation into war, is one of those absurdities which are naturally propounded by the hack-scribes and hack-speakers of the Conservative Opposition, but which, after all, do not influence the opinions of any man of common sense. Still, it is perfectly true that the intention, both of Mr. Gladstone and of the voters who put him in power, was to act peaceably toward all men. Liberal electors do not, I conceive, for the most part, think the Egyptian war wrong. They suppose that the bombardment of Alexandria and the taking of Tel-el-Kebir were acts of necessity. But they are, for all this, heartily sorry that the necessity for warfare which cannot fairly be called defensive should have arisen while the Liberal Ministry were in power.

There is, moreover, reason to suppose that among the workingmen, at any rate, grave doubts exist whether wars such as that which has just been brought to a close are not opposed to the interest of the laboring classes. Artisans in modern times find it easy to understand that war increases taxation, and otherwise diverts to unprofitable purposes resources which might else be employed for the benefit of the people. They do not find it easy to enter into the necessity for the strict observance of all international obligations, nor do they perhaps fully understand the almost inevitable connection between the maintenance of a wide Empire and the readiness to meet in arms every foe, small or great, who really menaces imperial interests. This state of feeling may be transitory. Dogmatists who now assert that democracies must necessarily be peaceful, may turn out in the long run to have gone quite as far from the truth as the intelligent thinkers who have hitherto constantly argued that democracies are certain to be fond of war. My suspicion is, that the pacific sentiments of 1882 are to a great extent a temporary reaction from the Jingoism and sham imperialism which was fostered by Lord Beaconsfield from 1874 to 1880. However this may be, the fact is pretty certain that Liberals—that is, the majority of the electors—are for the moment little elated by the turn of affairs in Egypt. On the whole, their attitude is one of confidence in Mr. Gladstone. As far as they have any distinct wishes about the course of policy to be pursued by England, their bonafide desire is that justice should be done the Egyptians, and also that the interests of England should not be neglected. At this point, however, there comes into notice that feature in the present phase of opinion which is, to my mind, far more noteworthy than satisfactory. The electors wish to act justly and humanely, but they entertain with regard to the demands of justice and humanity two opinions which, if logically worked out, lead to inconsistent results.

The first of these opinions is that Egypt ought to be left to the Egyptians, and that the inhabitants of the country have a right to govern themselves in their own way. Persons who take this view naturally maintain that what is right is also in the long run expedient; that England has scarcely any real interest in limiting Egyptian independence, and that to leave things alone is the wisest of all rules for the conduct of practical politics. From the utterances of the persons whom one may term official Radicals, it is impossible not to infer that this particular application of the general doctrine of *laissez-faire* approves itself to a good number of Radical leaders. Whoever reads Mr. Courteney's speeches, or studies with care the *Pall Mall Gazette* (which is by far the ablest literary organ of Liberalism), can hardly doubt that a great number of vigorous Radicals believe that the only satisfactory solution of the difficulties presented by any attempt to deal with the affairs of Egypt is, to cease to deal with them at all, to bring the whole English army back as soon as possible to England, and, as Mr. Courteney expresses it, with more vigor than grace or humanity, to "let the Egyptians 'stew in their own juice.'" I do not profess to feel anything like complete sympathy with the general line of thought and feeling which lies at the bottom of the view, that our only present duty is to leave Egypt alone, but no one who has noted the current and set of recent opinion and sentiment can doubt that the policy, or negation of policy, advocated by Mr. Courteney is likely to commend itself, and does commend itself, to large bodies of Radical electors. One great and real recommendation of the course proposed is, that it does for the moment free England from all the difficulties inherent in any attempt to provide for the government of Egypt. A far stronger and more creditable recommendation is, that to leave Egypt alone seems to many Radicals an obvious and legitimate application of the principle that every nation ought to be allowed to choose its own form of government. It is impossible that the mass of the electors should realize the very narrow limits within which such doctrines as the so-called doctrine of nationality can be treated as absolutely true. The idea that a nation, in the sense in which that term is known in Europe, may actually not exist in an Eastern country like Egypt; the conviction that the question is not whether Egypt shall or shall not be let alone, but rather which are the European Powers who shall be allowed to control her Government; the notion that the fellahs are almost certain to be the helpless victims of some tyrant, and that, so far as their interests are concerned, the main question is, which is the form of government under which they will suffer least oppression—are all conceptions which it is hard to make intelligible to large numbers of English men and English women.

Meanwhile (and this is one of the most remarkable phenomena of the day) the suspicion, well or ill-founded—and I am afraid it has a great deal of foundation—that even the best of European statesmen and administrators injure rather than benefit Eastern races by forcing upon them the doubtful blessings of a foreign form of civilization, is making its way throughout the country. It already exerts a perceptible influence on public opinion, and is destined to produce very serious results. Liberal electors, it must be added, are very little affected by the charges against the foreign policy of the Government which, rightly or wrongly, excite such rancorous indignation in the minds of Conservative literary men. Mr. Gladstone's apology, if apology it was, to the Austrian Ambassador, the withdrawal from Afghanistan, the convention with the Boers, made Lord Cairns (if my memory does not deceive me) rhetorically "blush" for the condition of England. It was but the other day that I read a diatribe in a Conservative paper written especially for educated persons, in which the patriotic indignation of the writer against Mr. Gladstone ultimately turned to savage and contemptuous wrath against the country which tolerated or admired the Prime Minister. But for all these things which harass Tory spirits, the country, as far as it is represented by Liberal electors, cares little. Not a meeting was held to denounce the treaty with the Boers. It is, therefore, to my mind, more than probable that thousands on whose support Mr. Gladstone relies, are at least half convinced that the wisest and best thing which the Ministry could do would be to clear out of Egypt, and leave the protection and administration of the country to the Egyptian Government.

I purposely use the expression "half convinced," because it is pretty clear to any careful observer that, side by side with the opinion which I have tried to describe, lies in the mind, often of one and the same man, another opinion of a very different character. The Egyptian Government having been restored to power by English arms, it is the duty, think many people, no less than the right of England, to insist that Egypt shall be governed in accordance with European and English notions of what is fair and just. What gives force and weight to this view is that it rests on two undoubted facts: If the Khedive is on his throne, if he is not lodged in the dungeon now occupied by Arabi, if his life is safe, he owes these blessings to Sir Garnet Wolseley and Sir Garnet Wolseley's soldiers. This is a fact which no one can dispute. Another fact which, though some persons may dispute it, seems to me and will seem to your readers equally certain, is, that European notions of fairness and humanity are far in advance of the moral conceptions prevalent in the East. Civilization is, after all, not a mere name. The Khedive's servants probably do not treat Arabi a bit worse than Arabi, if he had been victorious at Tel-el-Kebir, would have treated the Khedive. But it is impossible to read the descriptions given by Englishmen of the insults offered to Arabi and his family without feeling that Englishmen may well hesitate at even indirectly sanctioning conduct which would have disgraced the minions of King Bomba. This is the sentiment which is becoming more or less prevalent among English electors. The Egyptian Government ought to be left free, they think, but ought not to be free to do injustice. They hardly realize that freedom to do right absolutely involves liberty to do wrong. Hence a whole mass of confused feeling, likely to lead, as far as it influences the policy of the country, to a whole mass of confused action in regard to Arabi. We sent troops to Egypt to put down Arabi's revolt. No sooner is Arabi defeated than we begin to think that a rebel may be a patriot, that a patriot is a hero, and that it is disgraceful to punish the action of a lover of his country. Hence, after routing Arabi's forces, we have assumed the character of Arabi's defenders. We have insisted upon the Egyptian Government treating a soldier guilty of armed revolt as certainly no Eastern nation, and probably no European nation, would treat a man in the like position. If Arabi had been a Sepoy officer, and had done in India what he has done in Egypt, his trial, if he had got one, would have been measured by hours, not by days, and he long ago would have found rest in death. The plain truth is that, as between Arabi and the Egyptian Government, there is not a single valid argument against his immediate execution. On one ground, and one only, the English Government could legitimately have saved his life, and in my judgment would have done well to do so. The English general might have refused to surrender to the Khedive any prisoners of war. An enemy

who has once given up his sword to an English officer, may be considered to have escaped in a sense to England. It would have been far better to say to the Khedive, "England cannot allow the punishment of men who, though rebels, are English prisoners of war," than to give up our prisoners of war to the Khedive, who could never have taken them, and then interpose so as to prevent their being treated as the Egyptian Government would naturally treat rebels. There is much, as regards the interest and honor of England, in favor of saving the life of Arabi. But even now the best and most honorable way of protecting him would be to ask or demand his life from the Khedive on the ground that he was our prisoner-of-war. As it is, the indirect and almost absurd attempts to protect the Egyptian rebel by forcing upon the Egyptian courts the appearance—it can be nothing more than the appearance—of a trial according to English law, is one of those shams very likely not to benefit Arabi, and certain to bring discredit on England.

The point, however, for your readers to notice is that all these irregular and illogical attempts to intervene in favor of a man whom we ourselves have allowed to be put on trial as a criminal, and who undoubtedly has committed offences, both as the head of a military revolt and as the leader of a rebellion, which in any European country would cause him to be shot, hung, or guillotined, are in fact concessions to the opinion that England is responsible for the government of Egypt. This opinion may be right or it may be wrong, but, whatever may be said in its favor, it is at bottom absolutely inconsistent with the notion that the right course for England is to leave Egypt alone. If Egypt is to govern itself, Egypt cannot be governed by us. If the Egyptians are not to be allowed to fall below the standard of good administration which approves itself to English ideas of justice, it is quite certain that England must, sooner or later, undertake the government of the Nile Valley. The English electorate—perhaps it may be said the English people at the present moment—wish that Egypt should be free, and also that the Egyptian Government should carry out our ideas of policy, of justice, and of humanity. The wish is a natural one. Two things only can be said against it: it rests upon the belief in two opinions which are, at bottom, inconsistent; its realization is opposed to the nature of things. Meanwhile, observers may notice the strange effects produced in politics by the temporary prevalence of two ideas as to Egyptian policy which cannot both be consistently carried out, and one of which must ultimately prevail over the other.

A. V. Dicey.

THE PRUSSIAN ELECTIONS.

Berlin, October 30, 1882.

I am sorry to confess that I was mistaken in my estimate, in my last letter, of the results of the then approaching elections for the Prussian Landtag. They took place on the 26th instant, and have surprised all parties. The Conservatives had expected a great loss of votes, and consequently a decline of their weight in the Councils of the State; the Ultramontanes, although they can rely on their always obedient followers, apprehended a Liberal preponderance which would injure the Catholic balance of power; and the Liberals unanimously counted upon a victory for themselves. If it had only been their aim to secure for themselves the same number of seats which they occupied in the last Landtag, they could be satisfied with the result. But the Liberal agitators sought to break down the influence of the allied Conservatives and Ultramontanes, and to become the leading factor in the development of our home policy. In this respect they have sadly failed. The new Landtag, in its composition and party relations, will on the whole be just like the last one, and will have neither a Liberal nor a Conservative majority.

As in all indirect elections, the participation was small: not fifty per cent. of the electors appeared at the polls. Besides, the Government did all in its power to raise the Conservative breeze, which, it pretended, was sweeping all over the country. Mr. von Puttkamer, the Secretary of the Interior, gerrymandered with great success, and intimidated his subordinates or even ordered them to appear at the boxes and vote for a Conservative. Suspected officers were threatened in the newspapers and by anonymous letters, and had to defend themselves against the charge of having voted for an opposition candidate. Thus Mr. Greiff, director (chief assistant) of the Minister of Public Instruction, had to publish a card in which he denied such an imputation. The Göttingen Professor Dove answered with more independence and pluck. Having been arraigned by the Government press as a fanatical Progressist, he retorted in the following sharp and bitter reply: "I dispute the solidarity of the really Conservative interests with Ultramontanism; I consider the Conservative-Clerical compromises a great danger to the rights of the Crown and to Protestantism; and I find the Court preacher Stoecker's so-called Christian Socialism not less unevangelical than his clerico-political doctrines." In some places—as, for instance, at Erfurt—the elections assumed quite a new feature. The numerous railroad employees who, when the roads were private property, had voted the Liberal ticket, now, the roads having meantime become State property, under compulsion of their superiors voted for the Conservative candidate. An eastern farmer, on being asked why this time he had voted for a Conservative, while a year ago, in the elections for the Reichstag, he had declared himself in favor of a Liberal candidate, answered that at present he wanted to have all the taxes done away with, and that a year ago he had only intended by his vote that no new ones should be imposed.

The great apathy of the people proves that the lamentable result of the election was not effected by the firm political resolve of the country, but by the entire lack of it. The voters cared as little for the Government's adherents as for its opponents. Yet, despite the small vote and its disfavor to the Liberals, I am of opinion that the latter have gained in numerical, although not in parliamentary strength. If they have lost some seats in the east, they have won as many new ones in Holstein and Hanover. In round numbers, the whole body of Liberals musters 140 votes, the Conservatives of all shades 185, and the Centre, with the Guelphs, 100. Of the whole number of 433 members, 217 are required for a majority, which the Government, consequently, does not command, the Conservatives being short of it by thirty-two votes. It will therefore have to fall back on the good offices of the Centre. As to professional calling, the new Landtag numbers thirty-eight Landräthe (with the exception of two, the unconditional followers of the Government), six Regierungs-Praesidenten (unscrupulous partisans of the Minister of the Interior, like the French prefects), five active Ministers of State, and six Government Councillors, making in all fifty-three strong supporters of any royal demand or measure. Besides, there are twenty Catholic priests and two Protestant clergymen, among the latter the notorious Stoecker. Why all the above Government officials have been elected is a mystery to me. They are paid for maintaining the Government's policy, have no will of their own, and therefore cannot serve the people's interest in case of a conflict.

Strong efforts will be made to do away with Liberal laws and institutions, the Government being bound to realize its political-economical designs as far as they belong to the competency of the Landtag; but a satisfactory result is very doubtful, if not impossible, and the legislative business will for the next three years be crippled, if not brought to a standstill, for the Centre will on one side ask too high a price for its coöperation, and on the other in its own interest cannot sacrifice the last bulwarks of freedom. Eager as the Conservatives may be to abolish all the laws passed between 1807 and 1878, they can only attain their end by compromising with the Centre, and the anxiety of being cheated out of their share of the booty is so great as to make harmonious action impossible. The Liberals again, instead of being able to form a majority and to embody their tendencies in some new organic laws, continue, as they have been, a mere minority, which can only defend what it created under more favorable auspices. They have themselves to blame for their want of success. Instead of concentrating all their endeavors in fighting the common enemy, some of their leaders fell out and quarrelled among themselves. In some parts of the country the so-called Progressists tried to conquer seats from the National Liberals, and were partly successful in this nefarious and suicidal policy. Years of sad experience must pass before German politicians will learn to do away with side issues, and to subordinate their petty jealousies and pet measures to a great common cause. In the above-named provinces of Holstein and Hanover the Liberals carried the great majority of the elections, for the sole reason that they followed the advice of Mr. Haenel, of whom I wrote in my last letter, and offered a united front to the Conservatives, while in Brandenburg and Saxony they were badly beaten, because they were split by the intrigues of some wily demagogues. In the large cities, with the sole exception of Cologne, the Liberals have maintained the ground which they have always possessed. Here all their mistakes and shortcomings could not injure their cause, but in the country, beginning with the suburbs of Berlin, they have suffered partial defeats.

While no party reached its aims, the only man who came victorious out of the last struggle is the Secretary of the Interior, Mr. von Puttkamer. Whether he will be able to follow up his victory remains to be seen. In my opinion all legislative business in Prussia that is not based upon the liberal ideas and forces of the middle classes is doomed to sterility. In no respect is the effect of the last election to be more regretted than in its relations to the contest with Rome, and the treatment of the so-called *Kulturkampf*. Our ultra-Conservatives have been and still are eagerly working to enter into a most intimate alliance with the Centre; the so-called Free Conservatives still pretend to be shy and fastidious, and parade their principles; but whenever the proper moment comes the Government will order them to follow suit, and, being (in their majority) a set of dependent officeholders, they must obey Bismarck's dictates. The only chance of salvation lies in the Ultramontanes themselves. They of late have become more overbearing than ever, for they know very well that they can impose terms upon the Government. I hope that their demands will prove so extravagant that even the Gerlachs, Stoeckers, Kleists, and the small fry will be forced to let matters stand as they

are now. In the matter of "simultaneous" schools—*i. e.*, primary schools, in which the children, irrespective of their creed, are instructed in Biblical history and religious elementary knowledge—the Government has already yielded, but the Senate does not thank it for this important concession, and accepts it only as its due. Mr. Schloezer in Rome, able diplomat as he may be, cannot affect anything, because he has nothing or not enough to offer to insatiable Rome. On the eve of leaving Berlin, in a conversation with a friend, he expressed his longing for Washington, where he found himself more comfortable and less troubled.

The Landtag will be convened by the middle of November. At the end of the year you will hear more from me on the Roman campaign.

† † †.

Correspondence.

JEFFERSON'S PORTRAIT OF COLUMBUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Jefferson, when American Minister in Paris about a hundred years ago, obtained the best copy possible of what he considered an original portrait of Columbus, in the Uffizi gallery in Florence. He deemed it, as he wrote, "of public concern that our country should not be without it." In 1814 he spoke of it as one of his chief jewels at Monticello. In his drawing-room there, it hung the second among four portraits on the left as one entered. What has become of this pictorial memorial? is a very natural question, and the more after one has vainly sought for any further notice of it either in Jefferson's complete works or in the volume on his 'Domestic Life.' Having applied to Lossing and Parton without gaining any inkling of its fate, I betook myself to Miss Randolph, the granddaughter of Jefferson, who has written about him so much and so well. Her answer to my inquiries was that the Columbus, having been reserved at the sale of Mr. Jefferson's effects, was sent to Boston, where it was supposed there would be a better chance of selling it to advantage. She added:

"It was intrusted to Mr. Coolidge, who married my aunt. They are both now dead, and I wrote to their daughter, telling her of your desire to know about the Columbus. She writes that she knows nothing of it, and would not know that such a picture had been at Monticello but for the fact that it is mentioned in my book. I have often wished to trace this picture up, but suppose there is now no hope of doing so. My uncle has been dead only three years, and a single word from him would have told all."

Thus my research seemed fruitless. Yet it was my fortune to discover the lost likeness—if not America, at least its discoverer. The word "Boston" put me on the track. The curious portrait, I knew, must gravitate to that old curiosity shop, the Massachusetts Historical Society. I found it noticed in their Proceedings (vol. ii., pp. 23, 25) as presented by Israel Thorndike in 1835, and described by him as "a copy from an original in the gallery of Medicis at Florence for Thomas Jefferson." It was gratifying to discover that Jefferson's favorite hangs just where he would have it—in a hall of that Historical Society which has done most to elucidate the annals of the country over which Jefferson presided, and of the continent which Columbus revealed.

No one will object to my claim to have *discovered* the Jeffersonian Columbus who considers that it was unknown not only to such a specialist as Parton, but even to the writer of the article on portraits of Columbus in the catalogue of books bequeathed to the Boston Public Library by George Ticknor. If that writer had known of it, he could not have passed it in silence; for, besides a dozen portraits, he gives accounts of many engravings, and even woodcuts and photographs. He was, however, ignorant not only of Jefferson's copy, but of its original in Florence, which, though itself a copy, is older than any one whatever in all his long list can be proved to be. Whence it came is too long a story for the heel of a letter, but worth telling.

J. D. Butler.

Madison, Wis., Nov. 2, 1882.

EXTRA-HAZARDOUS FIREMEN'S SERVICE IN WISCONSIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the November 2 issue of the *Nation*, in commenting upon the decision of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin in Reif *v.* Page, you make use of the following language:

"The Supreme Court of Wisconsin has decided that it is not in all cases the duty of firemen to rescue people from burning buildings. Some time ago, when the Beckwith House at Oshkosh was in flames, one Paige offered $5,000 to any one who would save his wife. Charles Reif, a fireman on duty at the time, closed with Mr. Paige, saved Mrs. Paige, and claimed the reward. Mr. Paige refused to pay, and Reif brought a suit against him, which he lost. The Supreme Court, however, has now ordered a new trial on the ground that the rescue involved 'imminent peril' to the plaintiff's life, and that it was not his duty to expose himself to such peril."

This statement is scarcely correct. Every decision must be considered with reference to the facts upon which it is based. The act of the plaintiff was almost foolhardy. Two attempts to rescue Mrs. Paige had failed, and under the circumstances any possibility of rescuing anything but the body of Mrs. Paige seemed hopeless, and, as a matter of fact, only her body was recovered. Under the circumstances *it was not contended* by the defendant that it was the duty of the plaintiff to attempt the rescue, but it was simply insisted that the act of the plaintiff "was in the nature of extra or extra-hazardous services in the line or scope of his duty," and being so, the law would not allow him to make a contract for a reward. Issue was not joined upon the question whether or not the peril was so great as to release Reif from any further duty in the matter, but it was conceded that it was; and the Supreme Court simply held that, it not being his duty to attempt the rescue, the act when performed could not be held to be a service within the "line or scope" of plaintiff's duty, so as to preclude his entering into a contract for its performance.

I think a careful reading of the opinion in connection with the facts will show that the facts themselves, the provisions of the charter of Oshkosh, and the *admissions* of counsel for the defence, took the question of plaintiff's *duty as fireman* out of the case, and left only the question whether he could enter into a contract for a reward for services not his duty to perform, and that this was all the Supreme Court attempted to decide. Anything more would have been *obiter*.—Very respectfully,

Bradley G. Schley.

Milwaukee, Wis., Nov. 8, 1882.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to correct an error in your issue of November 2 which causes you to misrepresent an upright and honorable man. In your criticism of the decision of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin in Reif *v.* Paige, you say: "One Paige offered $5,000 to any one who would save his wife. Charles Reif . . . closed with Mr. Paige, saved Mrs. Paige, and claimed the reward. Mr. Paige refused to pay, and Reif brought suit. . . ." The truth is, the offer of Mr. Paige existed only in the allegations of the plaintiff. At the beginning of the fire Mr. Paige was out of town, and knew nothing of the peril of his wife till after the firemen had begun their attempt to save her. If Mr. Paige had made the offer attributed to him, the case of Reif *v.* Paige would never have reached a court docket, and the Supreme Court of Wisconsin would have escaped rendering a very discreditable decision, and have saved itself the well-merited criticism of the *Nation*.—Very respectfully,

James A. Haight.

Bismarck, D. T., Nov. 8, 1882.

THE THEATRE OF EPIDAUROS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the notice of the excavations of the Theatre of Epidauros by Mr. Ludlow, based on the reports of the ephor charged with the work, I see repeated the absurd story of the discovery of the Hygieia of Polykleitos. I visited Epidauros shortly after the uncovering of the theatre, and saw the so-called Hygieia, which may be an Hygieia or any other female goddess, but is not by Polykleitos or any artist of his epoch, but a bad piece of late archaicism—as wretched a piece of Roman work as anybody ever saw in Greece. Nobody but Kavvadias held the opinion of its being the work of Polykleitos, and a fellow-ephor who accompanied me over the ground laughed very heartily over what he called one of Kavvadias's discoveries. The statue is so bad that though I went chiefly to photograph it, I declined to waste a plate on it. Nor was there any very good fragment among those discovered up to that time—all were late Roman work. I understood, just before leaving Athens, that there had recently been found between the theatre and tholus some very good fragments; but there is no one among the ephors whose judgment on a matter of purely artistic excellence I would give much for, though I hope such blunders as this attribution of the so-called Hygieia to the time of Polykleitos would be found to be rare with them. There was, *à priori*, no reason to hope for the discovery of any statues in the theatre; but in that part of the sanctuary between the theatre and tholus, and in the tholus, there was hope that some of the statues and inscriptions described by Pausanias might be found. There was visible above ground no trace of the limits of the peribolus, but the position of the tholus is clearly shown by a portion of the wall.

The most remarkable fact brought out, not into new but clearer light, was the indifference of the Greeks as to the solidity of the structures they were supposed to regard with most pride. The auditorium is simply scooped out of a hillside of soil, not rock, except in one or two points; and the stone-work of the passages and seats is laid directly on the earth, without any preparation or foundation. The stones were everywhere upheaved by the roots and stems of trees which had gone down or come up between them. There was not even loose rubble to lay them on. This indifference of the most artistic builders to the permanence of their work is repeated in St. Mark's at Venice, where the piers were laid on piles six feet long, covered with a yard of loose rubble.

The remains of the scena and the passage-walls leading to the orchestra show, by the thoroughly calcined marble, that the theatre was destroyed by fire.

W. J. S.

Florence, Oct. 25, 1882.

POLITICAL "NEXTS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It was not the Republican party which was defeated yesterday. The Republican rank and file, the "political nobodies" who constitute the bone and sinew of the party, simply whipped out of the camp the drum-majors who were not leaders and who would not be led. They whipped them well that they might know that they were whipped and were no more wanted. The remedy is bitter—and not least that, in the overwhelming, such things have happened as that Massachusetts men must, for the first time, blush to own their birthright. The old Bay State permits the most arrant demagogue within her borders to present himself as at this time her typical and representative citizen—her choice as chief. For this, also, the Republican party has to thank its "leaders."

When the "scratching" movement, one among the several small beginnings of the overwhelming Independent sentiment of to-day, was started in New York in 1879, its promoters sincerely believed that only by fearless and even "reckless" protest against Machine management and bad nominations could their party be saved from defeat in 1880. The *Nation* was one of the first among the few journals, amid the chorus of jeers now transformed into a pæan of praise for "young men in politics," which fearlessly recognized the truth of this position. That position has since been doubly made good in the victory of Garfield and in the defeat of Arthur. Had Garfield lived, and shown in living the same splendid courage that he showed in dying, it goes without saying that the Republican party would have held its own (the words have literal meaning) to-day.

It has been doubly unfortunate that the President made by Guiteau's shot is, as he was, a drum-major and not a general. There is no magic in a vote to change a political manager in the twinkling of an eye into a statesman. And there seems to be here a lesson in the necessity of fearlessness and thorough methods if political reform is to be won. When the Chicago Convention was held the Young Republicans of Massachusetts and the Independents of Pennsylvania joined with the "scratchers" of New York in sending a representation which was in daily session at Chicago under the chairmanship of Wayne MacVeagh. It was a committee of this body that, in the galleries of the Convention, drafted the original of the civil-service plank, which, despite Mr. Conkling's efforts, was put into the platform by the pluck of the Massachusetts delegates on the floor of the Convention and the inspired blunder of Flanagan of Texas. To the vigor chiefly of some of the Pennsylvania Independents, with the awful example of the 20,000 New York "scratchers" to prove that "if you nominate Grant, you can't elect him," it was in good part due that the "Grant column" was prevented from recruiting, and the selection of Garfield made a possibility. These two points gained, the younger men proposed to keep at work till the third point was won and the victory clinched by the nomination of a Vice-President in keeping. Certain of the elder Independents feared, and induced them against their will and faith to "let well enough alone." General Garfield's friends "gave away" the Vice-Presidency to placate Mr. Conkling, and the result of placating Mr. Conkling we know to-day. The fearlessness of Republican Independents, so far as it went, made victory possible in 1880, and had they been as fully fearless in 1880 as in 1882, the defeat of 1882 might not have been.

The men who cast the balance-of-power vote which rolled up yesterday's majorities against a Republican Administration simply fulfilled the "duties of an American citizen" well set forth in Nordhoff's 'Politics for Young Americans':

"It is your duty to act generally with some political party, and to exert your influence upon its leaders to induce the nomination of capable and honest men for office. And it is your duty, if your party nominates a bad man, to vote against him, and thus keep the public and general good before your eyes, and set an example of true public spirit before your fellows.

"It is your duty to watch the conduct of public officers, to see that they perform their duties and observe their constitutional limitations; and if they do not, then it is your duty to help to expose them, and at the elections to punish them. For it is only by such vigilance that a nation can preserve its liberties unimpaired."

I take it that these men, despite yesterday's results, are still Republicans, anxious to vote with the Republican party if they are permitted. They require good men—deeds, not words—a clean party. They have rejected President Arthur and Stalwartism; nor do they take more kindly to Mr. Blaine and Jingoism. They look upon the Republican party as on the whole embodying the intelligence and self-governing capacity of the safe middle class, and representing that "liberty regulated by law" which is "the spirit of Saxon progress," albeit with a tendency to over-centralization which it is their desire to check. They have seen the Democratic party, until the nomination of Cleveland, cap every Republican blunder with a greater blunder of its own; they fear that under the domination of its more ignorant lower class, overruling the leadership of its better men, liberty would become license; and they do not see in it the strength to resist, after victory, the pressure of its hungry hordes. But they mean to be patriots, not partisans, and to vote according to facts.

If, therefore, the Republican party, having still a year's grace of Congressional majority, uses that year to redeem the civil service, and to take such reasonable steps toward tariff reform as Republican revenue reformers require, and otherwise to meet the popular demand, it will deserve and recall the balance-of-power vote. If, in default of this, the Democratic party, victorious in New York, proves its willingness to promote civil service reform in the nation by legalizing it in the State, and otherwise shows a self-restraint that will make power safe in its hands, it will deserve and obtain the balance-of-power vote. If both parties continue rotten, double-faced, and blind, Independents must make up their minds to stand out by themselves, to cast a conscience vote for a third candidate in 1884, and to organize as a third party, which shall eventually be one of two.

I take it that the principles which Independents desire to see put in practice by the Republican party, and on which, should need come, they will unite by themselves, are mainly these:

Civil-service reform—the "paramount necessity," without which no party, old or new, can stay in power and keep pure.

Revenue reform—to the extent of the abandonment of tariff monopolies and of extreme duties; the freeing of our shipping from present restrictions; and the removal of duties on raw materials in the true interest of American manufactures and of American commerce, so that America may compete with England in the markets of the world, and American workingmen in turn have the best the world can send them at a fair price.

Honest money—so far as this again becomes an issue in connection with repudiation and "readjustment," the silver schemes, and the banking system.

Restriction of monopolies from abuse of privilege.

Municipal Home Rule, independent of party, on a business basis, and with municipal elections separated from National and State elections.

The following, it may be suggested, are also desiderata in political methods to be sought by Independents:

(*a*) The making of the House of Representatives more responsive to the people by holding elections so that members shall take their seats at once, instead of a year behind the issues on which they were elected.

(*b*) Wider freedom of choice of Congressmen within the State, so that if an able Representative is rejected by party machinations in his own district, public opinion will support him in seeking a constituency elsewhere.

(*c*) The election of President and Vice-President by a more direct vote, so that an unfit candidate for Vice-President need not be voted for with the Presidential candidate. And proper provision for the Presidential count.

(*d*) The supply of voting papers by the election authorities, with the names of all the candidates, from which to designate a choice, as a remedy against fraud, "trading," and the waste and cost to candidates of the present system.

(*e*) The protection of primary elections by legal enactments against fraud.

There is, nevertheless, no greater mistake than to suppose that any political nostrum or panacea can cure all political ills, or obviate imperfections which will continue as long as human nature lasts. Civil-service reform itself will not dispense with the need for the wholesome and alert public opinion which is the true safeguard of popular institutions, and the reawakening of which has been, after all, the great service of the independent movement. R. R. Bowker.

New York, November 8, 1882.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have what any house might esteem the privilege of putting their American imprint on the captivating Parchment Series of Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. These handy volumes prove that clearness of print is an equivalent for largeness of type, while the smaller letter both makes the elegance of the page and allows of much stowage in a small compass. The two volumes to which we are speaking are Mr. Austin Dobson's entertaining collection of 'Eighteenth Century Essays,' already noticed by us during the past summer, and the first volume of the Parchment Shakspere—one of twelve—which has a larger type than the work just mentioned. The price is far from dear. This series will be continued by the publication of 'The Christian Year,' 'Gay's Fables,' edited by Mr. Austin Dobson, a selection of 'Shelley's Letters,' by Mr. Richard Garnett, Mr. Mark Pattison's annotated edition of 'Milton's Sonnets,' Tennyson's earlier poems in two volumes, and 'French Lyrics,' selected and arranged by Mr. G. Saintsbury.

On the other hand, a Scotch publisher, Mr. David Douglas, of Edinburgh, whose publications have a rare excellence of manufacture, is giving Mr. Howells's novels a very taking shape. His pocket issues of 'A Foregone Conclusion' and 'Their Wedding Journey,' though bound in paper, are elegant in those particulars which determine the taste of book-making. We must add that this is an author's edition, and that it will be continued.

Harper & Bros. have added 'The Friendships of Mary Russell Mitford' to their Franklin Square Library, besides giving it the more enduring book form; and, in the Shakspere series edited by Mr. W. J. Rolfe, have brought out in as many volumes the three parts of "King Henry the Sixth."

The eighth part of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon in Peru' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) has a very varied assortment of colored plates, beginning with a charming landscape showing the mode of burial under great potsherds. Then the little belongings of the deceased buried with him are pictured—sundry fabrics, and provisions for the long journey. Fringed loin girdles of fine colors are another curiosity, and there is a liberal array of woollen and cotton satchels, handbags, pouches, and nets of dainty design. Calabashes with incised or in-burnt ornamentation; metal ornaments and utensils of copper, silver, and their alloy, and one lead ball with a bit of mother-of pearl let in; delicate wooden implements for weaving; cloths of cotton trimmed with woollen borders, on one of which the llama furnishes the decorative motive; and, finally, the clothes and toys of dolls, even to sandals such as are still worn—these are the subjects of the remaining plates, exquisitely delineated.

The tenth 'Publishers' Trade List Annual' (F. Leypoldt) has an improvement which will be appreciated by every one who has occasion to consult this collection of publishers' catalogues. In place of the so-called reference list of books recorded during the year in the *Publishers' Weekly*, the monthly record from July to July is given with the appended notes, which are always a useful guide to the character of the works on which they are bestowed. The loss of convenience in not having the whole series under one alphabet as hitherto is fully compensated by a subject and author-index.

The "making of England," to say nothing of France and Germany, insures to Cæsar's 'Commentaries on the Gallic War' a lasting preëminence above all other Latin prose for beginners of Anglo-Saxon birth. For this reason, doubtless, the same writer's 'Civil War' has taken a subordinate place as a text-book or been wholly neglected. Its comparative brevity, however, and hardly greater difficulty make it excellently well adapted for reading at sight after the 'Gallic War' has been mastered; while its personal and historical interest justifies the extra time that may be given to it. Prof. Perrin's edition, just published in the best manner by the University Publishing Company, is one of the most thoroughly equipped text-books we have ever met with. Perhaps for beginners the explanatory notes are too helpful; but for students who come to them from the 'Gallic War' they will serve the purposes of a review, while the various appendices supply compact and easily remembered information of much value as to the chief actors in the narrative, the constitution of the later Republic, the organization of Cæsar's army, etc. The book has a vocabulary.

Griffith & Farran, London, have published a threepenny pamphlet, 'Key to all the Waverley Novels, in Chronological Sequence,' by Henry Grey (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). These are "condensed novels" in another than the Bret Harte sense. A list of the principal characters follows the title of each one, and the story is then briefly outlined, 'Ivanhoe,' for example, being compressed into less than a page, while 'The Pirate' takes a little more. Such abstracts have their use both for those who have, and those who have not, read Scott. One of our countrywomen's industry has already provided a 'Waverley Dictionary' (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.).

A companion or rival to 'Uncle Remus,' namely, 'Uncle Gabe Tucker: a Collection of Poems and Sketches in Negro Dialect,' by J. A. Macon, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co.

An article in the *Library Journal* for October, on the selection of books for Sunday-school libraries, and their introduction to children, by Mr. S. S. Green, of the Worcester Free Library has a practical interest for all parents, ministers, and superintendents who cannot abide the Sunday-school literature of past years.

Harvard University Bulletin No. 23 concludes Mr. Scudder's "Bibliography of Fossil Insects," the "Calendar of the Lee MSS.," and the "List of American Authors in Geology and Palæontology." The index to the maps in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* is continued.

A list of special subjects and books of reference, for use in connection with Dr. W. H. Carpenter's actual course of lectures on the Old Norse Literature, has been published by the Johns Hopkins University.

Beginning with the first Saturday in January of the coming year, the monthly New York *Medical Journal* will be issued as a weekly, following the example of similar periodicals in other cities.

J. W. Bouton will be the American publisher of F. G. Dumas's forthcoming *Art Annual* (*Annuaire illustré des Beaux-Arts*), uniform with the same editor's Catalogue of the Paris Salon. It will contain original drawings after the principal pictures in the Exhibitions of London, Paris, Antwerp, Lausanne, Rome, Moscow, Buda-Pesth, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dublin, New York, and the Vienna International Exhibition.

A new novel, 'L'Évangéliste,' by Alphonse Daudet, will appear simultaneously in French and German toward the end of January.

It may be recalled by some that M. Francisque Sarcey, the eminent French dramatic critic, was graduated from the École Normale, fourth in a class in which M. Taine and M. About were first and second. M. Sarcey is writing a series of "Souvenirs Personnels" in the *Revue Politique et Littéraire*, and the last two numbers have contained an interesting account of the sayings and doings of this remarkable class at the School. From M. About we might expect jokes, but it is with some surprise that we read of the schoolboy pranks in which the grave and erudite M. Taine took part.

—A correspondent thinks that the late Bayard Taylor was himself in error in censuring (in the preface to the first volume of his translation of 'Faust') Hayward's rendering of the line: "Mein Lied ertönt der unbekannten Menge," "My sorrow voices itself to the strange throng," instead of "My song sounds to the unknown multitude." "Other English translators, I notice," says Mr. Taylor, "have followed Mr. Hayward in mistaking *Lied* for *Leid*." But the question is not so clear as our correspondent imagines. *Leid* appeared in the first edition (1808) of the first part of 'Faust,' which was the basis of all the later editions, many being printed from the same plates. Goethe was notoriously careless regarding the text of his works, and later complete editions were not always corrected by him, even when manifest typographical and other errors existed. Two editions of 'Faust' appeared in 1825, one having *Lied* and one *Leid*. Goethe's secretaries, Riemer and Eckermann, undertook an edition of Goethe's works (1836–7) after his death, based upon the original manuscripts. In this, *Lied* appears. Some editions follow Goethe's last edition ("Ausgabe aus letzter Hand"), which has *Leid*, and others Riemer. The two most recent commentators, Von Loeper and Schroer, give *Leid*, while equally critical scholars, as Goedeke, Kurz, Düntzer, and Carriere adopt *Lied*, which is most generally accepted.

—Karl Knortz's 'Shakespeare in Amerika: Eine literarhistorische Studie' (Berlin: T. Hofmann; 1882; pp. 85, 8vo) is the first considerable attempt, to our knowledge, to give an account of the development of the study of Shakspere in this country. It has an interest, therefore, wholly apart from its merits, as a contribution to a special department of our literary history. The author has had access to some of our most valuable collections, and has evidently made a diligent search for information. The notice of these collections, with which he naturally begins his book, is chiefly devoted to the description of a few in private hands. The one in the Boston Public Library is simply referred to as having a good copy of the First Folio and a catalogue, and mention is made of the "sogenannte Lenox Library im Staate Massachusetts" (the so-called Lenox Library in the State of Massachusetts). Works relating to Shakspere's life and opinions are first treated, considerable space being given to some perfectly worthless productions, so far as Shakspere is concerned, of temperance advocates and spiritualist writers. So, in the account of the Baconian theory of the authorship of the plays, several pages are about books of no value whatever, while that of Judge Holmes is dismissed with a mere mention. The more prominent critics and editors of the forty different editions of Shakspere's works with which Mr. Knortz credits this country have, with a few exceptions, brief notices. On White and Furness particularly he bestows well-merited praise. The most attention is paid to the veteran Hudson, of whom he says that he has done more than any living writer to make Shakspere's works accessible and intelligible to the masses. Mr. Knortz curiously ascribes the popularity of Shakspere in America, in large measure, to the influence of the clergy, and to the custom which publishers of periodicals have of offering copies of his works as premiums for new subscribers. Of the influence which was felt half a century before a critic began to write, or an edition was published, and has far outweighed every other since, that of the stage, Mr. Knortz says nothing. In the concluding paragraphs of his book he mentions as the actors who have distinguished themselves in Shaksperian characters "the elder and younger Booth, Forrest, and Janauschek." This monograph, to sum up, lacks both completeness and perspective.

—Francis George Shaw, whose person, name, and good works have been familiar to New-Yorkers for the past thirty years, died on Nov. 8 at his home on Staten Island, aged seventy-three. He was born in Boston in 1809, the son of Robert Gould Shaw, one of the merchant princes of that city. He took, we believe, a part of the course at Harvard College, and thereupon entered his father's firm. In 1840 he retired upon a competence, and in 1849 removed to this city. His only son, Colonel Robert Gould Shaw, fell, as is well known, at the head of a Massachusetts regiment of colored troops at Fort Wagner in 1863. Of four daughters, one married Col. Charles R. Lowell, who fell at Cedar Creek in 1864; another, Gen. Francis C. Barlow; and the other two, Messrs. George William Curtis and Robert B. Minturn respectively. Mr. Shaw was an early abolitionist, and a warm personal friend of William Lloyd Garrison. The movement set on foot in the second year of the war on behalf of the freedmen powerfully enlisted his sympathies; and more than ever after the death of his son he dedicated his leisure and his means to the elevation and protection of these unfortunates. He became the president of the New York association for the relief of the freedmen, and, on the consolidation of the various local societies under one harmonizing management established at New York, had an active share in the direction of the American Freedmen's Aid Association. This was his last prominent public ser-

vice. Mr. Shaw possessed a very ardent temperament, animated by a spirit of pure philanthropy, and controlled by the utmost tenderness and delicacy of feeling and the highest breeding. Like the type which he exemplified, his ideals were strongly socialistic. In 1848 he translated Pellerin's 'Life of Fourier'; and within a year he has supplied every member of the Society for Political Education, at his own expense, with a copy of Mr. Henry George's 'Progress and Poverty.' He was an uncompromising free-trader. His home was the centre of great intellectual vivacity, and the scene of the most beautiful and unstinted hospitality. Mr. Shaw's literary monument is not inconsiderable. In addition to the biography already named, he translated several of the works of George Sand—'Consuelo,' 'M. Sylvestre,' 'Le Compagnon du Tour de France'—and Zschokke's 'History of Switzerland.'

—From the near approach of the planet Venus to the earth in the latter months of the present year, and the occurrence of a favorable epoch for searching for a supposed satellite of the planet, unusual interest attaches to a communication in the last number of *Copernicus*, by Dr. Schjellerup, of Copenhagen. For more than a century this satellite has maintained its character as one of the myths of astronomy, and the rapid progress in the art of telescope-making has availed nothing toward clearing it up. Dr. Schorr has written a book about it, indeed, in which he sets down all the known observations which may be interpreted as pointing to the existence of a satellite of Venus. It was on comparing his list with the old ledgers of the Copenhagen Observatory that Dr. Schjellerup discovered the omission of seven observations made in 1761 by Roedkiaer, and one in 1768 by C. Horrebow and two other observers. These observations had never been published, and their exact transcription, together with the original observations of 1764, form the substance of Dr. Schjellerup's paper. He remarks, further, that to any one wishing to explain them it will always cause the greatest difficulty that all the observations of the supposed satellite, except those of Fontana, Cassini, and Short, were made within the space of ten years (1759–68), while nothing of the kind has ever been seen since. On the occasion of the last transit of Venus, in 1874, not a few observers scrutinized the solar disk very closely, but none of them remarked a satellite; and Venus was observed by Professors Hall and Holden, with the great telescope of the Naval Observatory, from October, 1877, until March, 1878, but no satellite was ever seen. The discovery of such a body would be of the last importance in astronomy, as the data would speedily accumulate for an accurate evaluation of the mass of Venus—a constant otherwise determinable only with great labor, and at present known only with meagre precision.

—There is in the possession of a Russian bibliophile one of the most remarkable *unica* in the world. M. Feuillet de Conches, the author of the 'Causeries d'un Curieux,' and Master of Ceremonies to Napoleon III., had La Fontaine's 'Fables' translated into a number of languages, and a single copy magnificently printed by Didot. He then sent the volume, an enormous folio with large margins, into "all the kingdoms of the world," with requests from the Ambassadors of the various Powers that artists in the different countries should illustrate the great fabulist, each in his own style and after the fashion of the country. And as when some clerk sends a postal card around the world, with a request that each postmaster shall put upon it the stamp of his office and a note of the time when it passed through his hands, and the card thus cast upon the waters returns after many days, so the volume of the "Curieux" returned laden with the contributions of many illustrious hands: the Sultan Abdul-Aziz, the King of Portugal, the King of Sweden, and, nearer home, Ingres, Eugène Delacroix, Paul Delaroche, Corot, Millet, the Duc d' Orléans, the Princess Marie, the Princess Mathilde, and many more.

—"Das Wissen der Gegenwart" is the title of a new series of popular works projected by the house of G. Freytag, in Leipzig. It is in two divisions, History and Natural History. The volumes, of nearly 300 pages, are neatly and clearly printed, bound in cloth, and astonishingly cheap—one mark (twenty-five cents) apiece. In the Natural History section, treatises upon Meteorology, Insects, the Sun, etc.; in the Historical, four volumes upon Australia, one each upon the Modern Drama, Russia, Morocco, etc., are announced. The series begins with a very valuable work, a History of the Thirty Years' War, in three volumes, by the distinguished historian, Anton Gindely, of Prague. These three neat volumes, costing less than a dollar all told, give us the ripe results of the studies of the highest living authority upon this important period; and, as Gindely's great work has as yet hardly advanced beyond its threshold, we have here conclusions for which we should otherwise have had to wait for years. For he tells us in his preface that his studies in the archives are completed for a large portion of the war, and his opinions are formed, although their full proof is not yet forthcoming. On the vexed question of Waldstein's guilt (the correct form of the name) his mind is not yet fully made up, although he inclines to accept the old opinion, that he was false to his master. The book is written in a sober, earnest style, worthy of its subject. It is illustrated with between thirty and forty cuts: portraits of Ferdinand II., Gustavus Adolphus, Waldstein, Tilly, etc., views of Vienna, Leipzig, Prague, Magdeburg, etc., battle of Lützen, Wimpfen, Wittstock, etc., diets, councils, etc., from contemporary engravings.

—The programme of the Congress of the Sorbonne in 1883 presents a number of interesting questions: 1. Best method of investigating the origin of names of places in France. 2. Date, place, and causes of the foundation of new cities and of *bastides* (country seats). 3. Origin and development of the communal militias. 4. Route which the French pilgrims usually took on their way to Italy or to the Holy Land. 5. What documents reveal the origin, character, organization, and object of the religious confraternities and the industrial corporations? 6. History of the preparation of the *coutumes;* what local *coutumes* remain unpublished? 7. Unpublished documents on the provincial assemblies. 8. Conditions of eligibility and electorship in the communes. 9. What addition can be made by research in archives and local libraries to the documents on the origin and progress of dramatic art as far as the sixteenth century, inclusively? 10. Point out the documents historically important contained in the old court records, the parochial registers, and in notaries' minutes. 11. History of schools before 1789: sources of information, statistics at various periods, origin, progress, number in each diocese and parish, from what sources the teachers were drawn, their pay, discipline, course of study, attendance, pecuniary assistance furnished, relations between the assistance given in the schools and in the University, text-books used. 12. What cities in France had printing establishments before the middle of the sixteenth century? Circumstances of their foundation and action. It will be seen that questions 5 and 11 have an interest not merely archæological—especially question 11, for the effect of the Revolution on popular education has been warmly debated of late between those who think '89 the sunrise of real civilization and those who regret the *ancien régime*.

—Wolff's time-honored 'Poetischer Hausschatz,' in spite of its bulk and typographical unattractiveness, has not yet been supplanted in public favor, and but few collections of modern German poetry fitly supplement it. One of the best, even if not the most comprehensive, we are acquainted with is the lately published 'Deutsche Lyrik der Gegenwart seit 1850,' by Ferdinand Avenarius (Dresden: Louis Ehlermann). It is very attractive in appearance without the aid of illustrations, generally considered indispensable in German works of this class, and is more than a mere compilation from easily accessible sources, several of the poems being here published for the first time. Good taste has guided the editor in his selections, which afford a very favorable view of the present poetic activity of Germany, although, of the eighty poets represented, many had done their best work before 1850. Thus, the names of Karl Beck, "Anastasius Grün," Hoffmann von Fallersleben, Eduard Mörike, etc., are associated with a period of German literary history which seems far removed from the present. Heine's "Für die Mouche" falls technically within the limits of the work, but it is difficult to account for the introduction of his "Asra" and "Altes Lied," except on the principle that "a thing of beauty is a joy for ever." More strictly as to time, though not characteristically, Freiligrath is represented by "Hurrah, Germania!" and by "Die Trompete von Gravelotte," the best patriotic poem which the war of 1870-71 called forth. Much space is justly assigned to Emanuel Geibel, *facile princeps* among living German poets, unless the 'Songs of Mirza Schaffy' be sufficient to establish the preëminence of Friedrich Bodenstedt. Paul Heyse, equally graceful in prose and poetry, is particularly favored by Herr Avenarius, while, in giving nine poems of Heinrich Leuthold, he does no more than justice to a writer who, three years ago, died in an insane asylum before Germany knew that she possessed in him a genuine poet. In cursorily looking over a collection of contemporaneous German poetry, one cannot help noticing the still predominating influence of Heine, resulting, in the case of "Ada Christen," in imitations of more than ordinary skill. Goethe's repose and antique perfection of form naturally find few imitators, although Arthur Fitger's "Lätizia" directly challenges comparison with the master's "Römische Elegien." A clever writer in other fields than poetry, Karl Emil Franzos, appears here in a new and by no means favorable light, and it becomes more and more inexplicable why, since the death of David Friedrich Strauss, his few occasional verses should be paraded by ill-advised admirers as evidences of poetic genius. Popular tradition has always pictured the average German poet as the most melancholy of his craft, and this collection as a whole confirms the suspicion that the German Parnassus of to-day is not too cheerful an abode. More than one note of sadness is struck, nor is it the least poetic minds whose strains are saddest. "Dranmor" and "Hieronymus Lorm" are deeply tinged with modern pessimism, but neither do they recall, nor does the gifted Wilhelm Jensen, the irresistible charm of Lenau's melancholy chord. On the other hand, the school of humorous poets evoked by Victor von Scheffel flourishes in Julius Wolff, Rudolf Baumbach, and others, although not all his disciples have, like him, found genuine inspiration in the days and ways of the Minnesingers. Nor should the dialect humorists, P. K. Rosegger (the delightful Styrian peasant-poet), Franz von Kobell (a professor of mineralogy and

contributor to the *Fliegende Blätter*), and others be forgotten who have deservedly found a place in this collection. It remains to be added that the 500 literary ladies of Germany who, according to Professor Heinrich Gross's work on 'The Female Poets and Writers of Germany,' are at present busy with their pens, are here represented only by "Ada Christen" and "Betty Paoli."

—Cowen's "Scandinavian Symphony" and the prelude to "Parsifal" were the novelties at the first Philharmonic concert on Saturday night. The symphony was produced last winter in London, and also at Vienna, where Hans Richter put it on one of the Philharmonic programmes, and where it was well received. The English have been insisting for some years that they are not such an unmusical nation as they are commonly supposed to be. Various cogent facts have been adduced in support of this claim, but the crucial test—an original and distinctly national composer—has still been wanting. Not that London lacks musicians who can write scholarly works, but, so far as known, they are usually based on German models (not always the best), and not exuberant in ideas. Whether Mr. Cowen is to be looked upon as the coming man is a question which must be held in abeyance. His symphony is certainly not English, its structure and scoring being distinctively German, and bearing evidence of his sojourn at Berlin and Leipzig. Nor is it Scandinavian, notwithstanding its title. National or local color is as difficult to impart to a work of art at will as the peculiarities of another author's style, and although in the "Scandinavian Symphony" a few characteristic peculiarities of rhythm, modulation, and melodic progression are introduced, they do not suggest the name adopted. This is not intended as unfavorable criticism. We simply wish to make it clear that Mr. Cowen's symphony is not English in the sense in which Sullivan's operettas are English, nor Scandinavian in the sense in which, for example, Gade's Ossian overture, which no German or Frenchman could have written, is Scandinavian. The first movement of the symphony is by far the best of the four. Its themes are vigorous, and the parts effectively contrasted. In the adagio, which is less original, the horn-quartet heard at a distance, and intended to represent "a party of revellers drifting down the moonlit waters," is a pretty device, which would be more effective if the theme were not rather commonplace. The frisky scherzo, with its muted violins, is described as an attempt to represent a sleigh-ride; and in the final allegro the workmanship rather exceeds in value the ideas employed. The instrumentation is discreet and effective, the strings being admirably employed to secure broad melodious effects or beautiful "floating harmonies." The reeds are several times combined in a rather uncouth fashion, and the brass "tacet" as a rule. As a whole the symphony is good enough to deserve repetition. The prelude to "Parsifal" is not a symphonic poem, like that to "Lohengrin," or Beethoven's great Leonora overture, but, like all the preludes to Wagner's later music-dramas, simply a composition intended to prepare the audience for the opening scene of the music-drama. This scene represents a large tree in the foreground, under which an old man and two pages lie asleep, but presently wake up and kneel down to say their morning prayers. The prelude is therefore very quiet and religious in character throughout, uniting as it does several of the most beautiful motives which pervade the whole drama. The mediæval, ecclesiastic modulations at first sound strange to the ear, but soon exert a wonderful fascination; and the magic charm of the instrumental combinations—the Grail motive sounded by the brass, the ascending tremulos of the violins, and the arpeggios at the beginning—are effects unsurpassed in any of Wagner's previous works. Both the novelties were favorably received by the large audience.

DETMOLD'S MACHIAVELLI.

The Historical, Political, and Diplomatic Writings of Niccolo Machiavelli. Translated from the Italian by C. E. Detmold. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 4 vols. 8vo.

We read in the preface to these superbly printed volumes: "If by the present translation I succeed in causing a more accurate acquaintance with the works of this remarkable man, I shall feel doubly rewarded, having already had ample compensation in the work itself, which, during several years of compulsory inactivity from impaired health, has afforded me constant, agreeable, and most instructive occupation." It is, therefore, a work of love that Mr. Detmold has undertaken, and accomplished most creditably.

Translations into English of separate works of Machiavelli were made even within a few years after his death, such as 'The Art of Warre, set forth in Englishe,' by Peter Whitehouse, 1562, dedicated to Queen Elizabeth; 'The Florentine Historie, Translated into Englishe,' by Thomas Bedingfield, 1594; 'Discourses upon the First Decade of Livy,' translated by Edward Dacres, 1636, etc. But the best-known is Ellis Farneworth's translation of Machiavelli's works, 1752, republished with notes, anecdotes, and life, in 1761, and more widely spread in the "carefully revised edition" of Bohn's Standard Library, 1847. In the present translation the first volume contains a sketch of the life of Machiavelli and the 'History of Florence,' with an excellent heliograph taken from the portrait by Bronzino; the second, 'The Prince,' the 'Discourses on the First Ten Books of Titus Livius,' and the 'Thoughts of a Statesman,' with a portrait of Lorenzo de' Medici, by Vasari; the third, the 'Embassies' to the several courts of Italy, France, and Germany, with a portrait of Cæsar Borgia, by Raphael; and the fourth, the continuation of the 'Embassies' and 'Miscellaneous Papers,' with Machiavelli's monument in Santa Croce at Florence. They embrace, therefore, the most important works of Machiavelli in a compact form, and well deserve a niche in every historical library.

It would be out of place to enter here upon the dispute, which has already lasted three centuries, as to the political morality of Machiavelli's works, especially in regard to 'The Prince,' which some call famous, others infamous. We will only remark that, to judge of an author, one must read *all* his works, and not a single one. Machiavelli, in his 'Prince,' did not present the living picture of a wily, heartless, bloody tyrant in order to teach kings how to rule despotically, for the despots that lived in his days, and long before him—Charles V., Henry VIII., Francis I., Alexander VI., and his son Cæsar Borgia—needed no instruction in the art of tyranny. His real design seems to have been to hold the mirror to the despotic nature of arbitrary power, and show vice his own image; to have the despot, in fact, painted to the life as our rare monsters are, and underwrit, "Here may you see the tyrant." Giovanni Matteo Toscano, a contemporary of Machiavelli, relates that he often heard the Florentines repeat the words which Machiavelli himself often used about 'The Prince': "I have taught princes in this manner in order that those who now oppress Italy so tyrannically may become still worse; whereby the Italians, driven finally by despair, may rise against them." We advise the reader to compare in this respect the 'Thoughts of a Statesman' with 'The Prince'; for the man who can lay down as a maxim that "that government alone is durable which rests upon the free will of the governed" could not have been the panderer to the treachery and cruelty of tyrants.

It is pertinent to add here that one of the first to do justice to Machiavelli was Macaulay, in his essay on that statesman, when, summing up his writings, he says:

"His works were misrepresented by the learned, misconstrued by the ignorant, censured by the Church, abused with all the rancor of simulated virtue by the tools of a base Government and the priests of a baser superstition. The name of the man whose genius had illuminated all the dark places of policy, and to whose patriotic wisdom an oppressed people had owed their last chance of emancipation and revenge, passed into a proverb of infamy."

Much light has since been thrown upon Machiavelli and his works, but the most able and exhaustive study is Professor Villari's 'Niccolo Machiavelli and his Times,' faithfully translated by his highly-gifted English wife, Linda Villari.

But to return to Mr. Detmold's translation. Machiavelli is one of the purest of the so-called *cinquecentisti* (fifteenth-century) writers, in spite of the decree of the Academia della Crusca, in its compilation of the Italian vocabulary, that his writings should be consulted "with discretion." (As to that, in its pedantic worship of the *trecentisti*, the Academy ostracised even the 'Jerusalem' of Tasso.) His style is clear, forcible, and terse, though employing the familiar language of the times. In his histories, especially, he approaches perfection—lucid and simple in his form, majestic in his periods, with now and then an intermixture of short, sparkling sentences; his words wonderfully well chosen, and his diction so dignified that he is called the creator of the modern style of history, to be compared only with Herodotus and Tacitus among the ancients, and superior to all his contemporaries and followers until Montesquieu.

In Mr. Detmold's translation we lose all this; for, though he has done his work faithfully, he has not held closely to the original. The meaning he has caught, as Machiavelli is seldom obscure, but in rendering it he not only comments but very often paraphrases a sentence; and, what is worse, he usually cuts whole periods into short sentences, which breaks the fluency and roundness of the Italian phrase.

We have quoted, for instance, the following passages at haphazard from the 'History of Florence,' giving the original first:

"Un Duca d'Atene, *privato condottiero vostro, l'ha soggiogata.* Ma quando l'è stata unita, non l'ha potuta superare un arcivescovo di Milano ed un Papa, i quali dopo tanti anni di guerra sono rimasi con vergogna."

"A Duke of Athens, *originally a private condottiere of yours, subjugated her when she was thus divided.* But when she was united, an Archbishop of Milan and a Pope himself failed to subdue her, and after many years of war gained nothing but shame" (vol. i., p. 136).

"I Signori volendo far prova di comporre con loro poi che per forza non vedevano modo a frenargli, chiamarono quattro de' loro Collegi, e quelli al palagio del Potestà per *intendere la mente loro* mandarono; i quali trovarono che i capi della plebe, con i Sindachi delle Arti ed alcuni cittadini, avevano quello che volevano alla Signoria deliberato domandare."

"The Signori, desirous of giving proof of their willingness to make terms with the rioters, seeing their own inability to control them by force, sent four members of their colleges to proceed to the palace of the Podesta and *state their wishes to the rioters.* This deputation found that the leaders of the populace, together with the syndics of the guilds and some citizens, had already prepared the demands which they intended to make of the Signori" (*id.*, p. 143).

In this last passage there is an actual error in the translation: *intendere la mente loro* means 'to learn what was the rioters' mind (or wishes),' not, "to state their [the colleges'] wishes to the rioters."

"Aveva, quando la plebe entrò in palagio, l'insegna del Gonfaloniere di giustizia in mano un Michele di Lando, pettinatore di lana. Costui, *scalzo e con poco indosso, con tutta la turba dietro*, salì sopra la scala," etc.

"When the mob entered the palace, one Michele di Lando, a wool-carder by trade, was carrying the standard of the Gonfaloniere. He *took off his shoes, and, not being encumbered with much clothing on his back*, leaped upstairs," etc. (*id.*, p. 145).

Scalzo does not mean that he "took off his shoes," but that he was already without shoes—viz., barefooted; while the next phrase should read: 'and with scant clothing (*poco indosso*), followed by the whole mob (*con tutta la turba dietro*)', but it is left untranslated, unless it is mistranslated in "much clothing on his back."

A few passages taken, also at random, from 'The Prince,' will show the tendency of the translator to paraphrase the original. For instance:

"Dall' altra parte Cesare Borgia, chiamato dal volgo duca Valentino, acquistò lo stato con la fortuna del padre, *e con quella lo perdette*."

"On the other hand, Cæsar Borgia, commonly called Duke Valentino, acquired his state by the good fortune of his father, *but lost it when no longer sustained by that good fortune*" (vol. ii., p. 22).

"E per esperienza si vede i principi soli e le republiche *armate fare progressi grandissimi*, e le armi mercenarie non fare mai se non danno," etc.

"Experience has shown that princes as well as republics *achieve the greatest success in war when they themselves direct the movements of their own armies*, while mercenary troops do nothing but damage" (*id.*, p. 42).

And further on:

"I Svizzeri sono *armatissimi e liberissimi*."

"The Swiss are *most thoroughly armed, and consequently enjoy the greatest independence and liberty*" (*id.*).

"Quello che non vinse fu Giovanni Acuto, *del quale non vincendo non si potea conoscere la fede*."

"Amongst those who were not victorious was Giovanni Acuto (John Sharpe, an English soldier of fortune), *whose good faith was never put to the test, he having been unsuccessful in the field*" (*id.*).

This continues throughout the translation, of which we consider it the greatest blemish. As already said, the translator seldom errs in the meaning of the original, but occasionally a too idiomatic passage or a narrative with too local coloring proves a sad stumbling-block. For instance, Machiavelli, in his 'History,' describes the rising of the nobility and people of Florence against Gauthier, Duke of Athens, a creature of Charles d'Anjou, Duke of Calabria, son of Robert, King of Naples. This French soldier of fortune had been proclaimed Prince of Florence a year before, and had ruled so tyrannically as to disgust even his strongest adherents. The text is:

"Venuto adunque *l'altro giorno, al suono di nona*, secondo l'ordine dato, si prese le armi, e il popolo tutto alla voce della libertà si armò, e *ciascuno si fece forte nelle sue contrade* sotto *insegne con le armi del popolo*, le quali dai congiurati segretamente erano state fatte."

This is translated as follows:

"On the following *morning*, therefore, according to the order agreed upon, *at the hour of nine*, the conspirators took up arms, and at the cry of 'Liberty!' the people armed themselves and *threw up barricades*, and *raised the banner* that had been secretly provided by the conspirators" (vol. i., p. 109).

This sentence absolutely falsifies the simple and straightforward original. *L'altro giorno al suono di nona* does not mean "the following morning at the hour of nine," which might be taken for nine o'clock in the morning, but 'the following *day at the sound of the noon bells*.' At that period (1343) there were no clocks in the cities, and the hours were indicated by the ringing of the canonical hours by the church bells; and *nona* meant, and means now, *noon*, and after *nona*, any time from noon till three o'clock—in fact, the English word *noon* is derived from *nona*. *Ciascuno si fece forte nelle sue contrade* should not be translated "they threw up barricades"; this in our day would mean street-barricades, while in Florence it then meant 'fortified themselves in their streets and houses,' *contrada* applying to both. The houses and palaces of Florence were built almost like fortresses for such very purposes, even having contrivances for projecting bridges across the streets from window to window, the iron supports of which can be seen to this day. *Sotto insegne colle armi del popolo* is not "the people raised the banner," but 'under banners with the device (or coat-of-arms) of the people.' The Florentines at that time were divided into six wards, called *sestieri*, and a number of guilds; each of these had its banner or *gonfalone* with its special coat-of-arms. These particular banners are here said to have been prepared by the conspirators. We will acknowledge, however, that such erroneous renderings occur very seldom in the first two volumes, which we have carefully compared with the original.

The 'Missions' (rather to be translated 'Embassies,' in our opinion), contained in the last two volumes, and which are for the first time translated into English, as we believe, are exceedingly interesting and instructive for students of the histories of the period. This official correspondence of the Florentine Secretary brings us face to face with most of the prominent characters of his time, and their Machiavellian politics, of which Machiavelli was a witness, and again a victim, rather than a teacher—the Lord of Piombino, in the service of the Republic of Florence, manœuvring for his pay; the Countess Sforza of Forlì, who made her son Ottaviano, a young condottiere of nineteen, play fast and loose with the Republic, in whose service he was engaged for two years; the several captains of fortune, both Italian and foreign—German, Swiss, French—in her service in the war against the Pisans, among whom Machiavelli was a Commissioner. We read graphic reports of his mission to Louis XII. of France about this Pisan imbroglio, in which the French court is constantly asking for money, money, money, from the Florentine Republic, if she wishes to retain France as an ally in that enterprise; of his mission to the infamous Cæsar Borgia, whose friendship the Republic wished to retain as an ally of France—the more so because he could interfere with her commerce. In this embassy Machiavelli is particularly instructed "to ask of Duke Valentino, in our name, to grant security and safe conduct to the goods of our merchants on their passage through his states and territories on their way to and from the Levant," which he obtained.

This correspondence, which began October 5, 1502, and lasted till the next January, 1503, gives us a full description of the doings of that prototype of Papal nepotism, Cæsar Borgia, who, during his father's Popedom, held the destinies of Romagna in his hands. The wisdom shown by Machiavelli in treating with him is most remarkable. He seldom expresses any opinion, but narrates with impartial fidelity events as they occurred from day to day, and the conversations held with the Duke; only now and then warily observing to the Signoria something as follows:

"Your Lordships are now informed of the language held by the Duke, and you will now weigh the matter with your usual sagacity, *having due regard to the individual who uttered it*." "The negotiations for an arrangement are favorable to the Duke, and he entertains them willingly; *but I will not pretend to judge what his real intentions are*."

We get also harrowing accounts of how the poor Italian cities were treated by these condottieri with the titles of Dukes and Princes. Thus, Cæsar Borgia having transferred his court from Imola to Cesena, with Machiavelli and the other ambassadors in his suite, the Secretary writes to the Signoria:

"The Duke and the troops are lodged in the city and vicinity, and live at discretion; that is to say, according to their own pleasure, and not according to that of the persons who lodge them. Your Lordships may imagine how things go on here, and how they went on at Imola, where the court remained three months, and the whole army two months, and where they consumed everything to the very stones."

Then follows the embassy to Rome, after the death of Alexander VI., in which the most interesting part is the report of the manner in which Julius II. got rid of the Duke Cæsar Borgia; later to Louis XII. of France; to Rome again, and to several minor courts of Italy.

The fourth volume contains, among others, the important embassy to the Emperor of Germany. It is interesting to note throughout these embassies the parsimony of republics to their ambassadors. Machiavelli constantly complains of the smallness of his appointment, and that he had often to pay for his couriers; and in this German embassy, writing from Botzen, Jan. 17, 1508, the first thing he mentions is, that "he had been delayed by the great distance, bad condition of the roads, worn-out horses, and *shortness of money*." Nevertheless, he always keeps his eyes open, gets information everywhere, and gives full descriptions of the "condition and manners of the people" he visits, both in Switzerland and Germany. This correspondence also includes the despatches of Francesco Vettori, the resident minister, to whom Machiavelli was sent as an additional and special envoy, and, though the former signs the documents, in the body of them Machiavelli is constantly mentioned as adviser. In one of these, dated Trent, February 8, 1508, Vettori says: "Machiavelli is very short of money, although I have thus far not failed to supply him; but on no account in the world would it do to recall him, and I entreat your Lordships to approve his remaining here until all matters are settled. His presence here is necessary."

Immediately after his return from the above embassy, Machiavelli was despatched as Commissioner to the army besieging Pisa, and, as Professor Villari states, "he was the very soul of it." This mission ended with the surrender of that town to Florence. Next come the reports of his embassies to the Duke of Mantua, again to Louis XII. of France, then to Sienna and Monaco, for the fourth time to France, and finally to Pisa, to the celebrated Ecclesiastical Council convened there, at the instigation of Louis XII. of France, to depose the warlike Pope Julius II. Here the correspondence ceases, for, on the return of the Medici family, August, 1512, Machiavelli was deprived of his office, and lived neglected for eight years on his small estate, where he wrote his immortal works. It is only resumed in 1521, on the occasion of two or three embassies of very little importance, and the volume ends with fragmentary papers interesting solely as sketches of the times.

Barring the few exceptions mentioned above, Mr. Detmold is worthy of all commendation for his patient and faithful labor in giving to us, in an English dress, these works of that remarka-

ble statesman on whose monument, in the Westminster Abbey of Florence, the Italians have deservedly written, "TANTO NOMINI NVLLVM PAR ELOGIVM."

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Charles Albert Fechter. By Kate Field. [American Actor Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 16mo, pp. 205.

Rachel d'après sa Correspondance. Par Georges d'Heylli. Paris: Librairie des Bibliophiles; New York: F. W. Christern. 1882. 8vo, pp. viii.-308.

Rose Rozier. Par Henry Gréville. Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern. 1882. 2 vols., pp. 244, 246.

Essays in Theatrical Criticism. By Mowbray Morris. London: Remington; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882. 8vo, pp. 226.

Theatrical Anecdotes. By Jacob Larwood. [Mayfair Library.] London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford. 16mo.

MISS FIELD'S sketch of Fechter's life is decidedly the poorest of the six volumes now published of the "American Actor Series," and yet it will probably please that mythical person, the average reader, better than Mr. Ireland's painstaking biography of Mrs. Duff. It is a lively bit of writing, not to call it pert; it would have been exactly in place in the columns of a daily or weekly paper immediately after Fechter's death—that is to say, it is a journalistic extemporization, and really has very slight claims to be considered as literature. There are numberless little slips in the account of Fechter's career on the French stage, which show plainly that Miss Field has not taken the trouble to understand the position of the Comédie-Française or of Fechter among his fellow-Frenchmen. She absurdly overrates the rank held by Fechter in Paris, and apparently believes that he had the French theatrical world at his feet. There is a tradition that the Comédie-Française refused him a final engagement because of his English accent, and it is certain that at no time was he more than a prominent stock actor. It may be said that Fechter was never reckoned among the great histrionic notabilities of Paris. To represent him as in a position to patronize Scribe (as Miss Field does on page 43), is to show a hopeless incapacity to understand the relative rank of the two men. In France Fechter was recognized as primarily a melodramatic actor—that is to say, an actor to whom situation was of more importance than character; one who thought more of what a man did than of what he was. As such he was held to be the inferior of Frédérick Lemaître, Bocage (here misprinted Boccage), and Mélingue. He had a quick eye for the picturesque, and an incapacity to understand the higher reaches of dramatic poetry. Hence his failure in "Othello" and in "Tartufe," in which latter part he made a most lamentable exhibition of his inability to comprehend Molière, though Miss Field seems to think that his *Tartufe* succeeded triumphantly. Hence, also, his success in "Hamlet," which has a highly-interesting plot, full of accident and incident, and concerning which we may recall Lewes's dictum, that no good actor ever failed in "Hamlet." Fechter pleased many people in this play because it lends itself to a melodramatic and pictorial treatment; he failed in "Othello" and "Tartufe" because those plays are not so accommodating.

Yet Miss Field's book is not wholly worthless, for besides the sketch of Fechter's career it gives us criticisms of his acting in "Hamlet," the "Lady of Lyons," the "Corsican Brothers," "Monte Cristo," "Don César de Bazan," and "On demande un Gouverneur" (known in English as "A Bachelor of Arts," though Miss Field fails to tell us this). The criticism of "Hamlet" is Miss Field's one contribution of real value. It fills some thirty pages, and is a running commentary on the way Fechter played the part. Now, it is needless to say that as an actor leaves little behind him, it is of great importance that some one should set down in detail his manner of playing the chief parts of Shakspere. It would be a great thing if we had thirty pages of minute notes of the "readings" and the "stage business" of *Hamlet* as played by Betterton and Garrick and Kemble. Following these criticisms are recollections by Mr. Herman Vezin, Mr. Edmund Yates, and Mr. Wilkie Collins. Mr. Yates provides two pages of idle chatter, omitting, characteristically enough, to tell us that he collaborated with Fechter in the "Golden Daggers," a drama which failed. Mr. Wilkie Collins gives us twenty pages on Fechter in public and in private, and affords a more distinct idea of Fechter as an actor and as a man than can be derived from all the rest of the book: such is the advantage of understanding the art of writing. It only remains to be noted that the volume has the elaborate index common to all the series. The illustrations are good.

To pass to M. d'Heylli's well-made volume on Rachel's correspondence is to take a long step indeed. As Miss Field was too flighty, so is M. d'Heylli almost too serious and methodical. Instead of giving us at once such letters of Rachel's as he could get together, with such editing and prefacing as he might think best, he has seen fit to prepare a lot of little chapters on Rachel's family, on Rachel and the Comédie-Française, on Rachel and Samson, on Rachel in the provinces and on her travels, and in America and on her sick-bed, and so on and so forth; and into these chapters he has put many scraps of Rachel's writing and a few full letters of hers and much of his own prose. So we get a good deal of M. d'Heylli's opinion of Rachel, about which we care very little; and we get here and there a glimpse of the real Rachel, about which we care very much. And for this little we must needs be thankful, for it is not likely that the full story of Rachel's life will be told yet awhile, or would even bear telling just yet; and, after all, M. d'Heylli's is the best of the several books about her. Mme. de Bury's biography is of no great value; Jules Janin's 'Rachel et la Tragédie' is of no value at all, save as a psychological index to its author; and M. Beauvallet's 'Rachel en Amérique,' of which there exists an American translation, is a thoroughly empty performance. But M. d'Heylli is at least careful and industrious. He has got together many curious facts, though he presents them too emphatically; and in the chapter on Rachel and "Médée" he has prepared the way for M. Legouvé's study of Rachel in his forthcoming 'Études de Théâtre,' certain of which have already appeared in the *Temps*. Both M. d'Heylli and M. Legouvé give evidence in support of the opinion recorded by Mrs. Kemble recently, that there was at times something *canaille* about the great tragic actress. M. d'Heylli takes the muse from off her pedestal, and shows her to us as a woman and as a wit; and M. Legouvé has revealed for the first time the dangerous personal and diabolically feminine rivalry which she ventured on against Signora Ristori, and which she had wit enough to forego when she saw that success would cost more than failure. So far as a stranger and a foreigner can see into Rachel's character, she was one of the most extraordinary of women. She was positively plain, yet with success she bloomed into beauty or something very like it. She was without education, yet she held her own among the best and brightest people in Europe, and with no false shame or concealment. She had a common streak in her nature, an animal taint, and yet she played the purely spiritual heroines of French tragedy with an elevation never before equalled. It is easy to construct a list of paradoxes. What remains in the final analysis is that she was the finest actress of the century, as Kean was the finest actor. Like Kean's, her art had marked limitations, and she often played a series of effects rather than a whole character. M. d'Heylli's book is beautifully printed, and it is adorned with four etchings by M. Massard, one of which is from a portrait of Rachel by Müller, painted in 1852, and now owned by M. Alexandre Walewski, her son, and the grandson of Napoleon I. There is also a facsimile of a four-page letter; and there are various appendices, but no index.

Mme. Henry Gréville's story belongs among books about the stage because it is a tale of theatrical character. Of late, French novelists have been fond of writing stories of the stage and of making studies of histrionic character. We have had M. Cadol's 'Rose: Splendeurs et Misères de la Vie théâtrale,' M. Claretie's 'Troisième Dessous,' M. Monteil's 'Cornebois,' M. de Goncourt's 'La Faustin,' and M. Dreyfuss's most amusing 'Scènes de la Vie théâtrale'; and any one of these is better than this novel of Mme. Gréville's. It is lacking in knowledge of life behind the scenes, and its histrionic psychology is lamentably weak. Mme. Gréville's earlier tales of Russian life were delightful—in part, no doubt, because they were written out of the fulness of knowledge. 'Rose Rozier' shows signs of effort, and has none of the ease and natural flow of incident which made a slight sketch like 'Sonia' so charming. Even the style has fallen off, and we cannot but miss the simplicity and freshness of the elder tales. The chief situations of 'Rose Rozier' are old, and they are not skilfully combined—the joints creak. The main idea of this story was vigorously treated in M. Dumas's 'Comtesse Romani,' and again, in an animal and "naturalistic" fashion, in 'La Faustin'; here it is handled in a forced, artificial, and ineffective manner. The tone of the book is unhealthy.

Mr. Mowbray Morris was, until recently, the dramatic critic of the London *Times*, and the most of the present volume is reprinted from that paper. It was well worth reprinting. A great change has come over the English stage in the past ten or fifteen years, the signs of further improvement are abundant, and the theatre chances to be fashionable not only among the fast and frivolous, but also among the literary and the learned, though in a less degree. Still, there are many things in British dramatic art, as one may now see it in London, which are not as they should be, though an amiable public is pleased to be pleased. Mr. Morris rudely broke in on this dream of perfection; he has not been afraid to speak right out in meeting; he has managed to be on the right side when it was unpopular to be on the right; and he has at all times tried to remember that the drama is a department of literature, and not merely a branch of the "show business." The present compilation deserves to be read by all who are interested in the drama as it is and as it ought to be. Although calculated for the meridian of London, there is much that will apply further west. We have suffered here from the plague of British melodramas—"Youth" and "The World," and the like—and we are to suffer soon from Mr. Henry Irving's painful peculiarities of speech, all the more painful because of this actor's undeniable cleverness. On both of these subjects Mr. Morris frees his mind, and for this he has been roundly abused in a recent number

of the *Theatre*, the trade monthly of the British stage. The essays on "American Plays and Players" and on "Othello at the Lyceum" (when Mr. Booth acted with Mr. Irving) are less satisfactory, because Mr. Morris shares the customary British misunderstanding of all things American. But the book as a whole is one to read and to keep.

Mr. Larwood's theatrical clippings are of no great importance. A really good collection of theatrical anecdotes, containing only well-authenticated stories, and giving a reference for each, is still a desideratum. Mr. Larwood gives credit for his borrowings sometimes, but not always: he does not mention, for instance, the American book on the 'Theatres of Paris' from which he has taken half-a-dozen passages or more.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

THERE can be no doubt that the time is coming when the phrase "general culture" will imply as thorough an acquaintance with Teutonic as with Greek mythology. The old Nibelungen Lied may not fully deserve the name of "German Iliad," but in connection with the Elder and Younger Eddas and the Völsunga Saga it supplies an abundance of imaginative material which is more and more attracting the attention of modern poets. Hebbel, Jordan, and Geibel in Germany, and Wm. Morris in England, have based some of their best works on this material; and Richard Wagner has, in his "Ring of the Nibelung," utilized and adapted some of the dramatic motives which abound in it. As the stage is the most effective means of popularizing a theme, the younger German generation is already almost as familiar with Wotan, Brünnhilde, Siegfried, and Gunther as with Jupiter and Juno, Mars and Venus. An opportunity is now afforded young Americans, too, of acquainting themselves with some of these poetic legends. Mr. James Baldwin's 'Story of Siegfried' (Scribner) tells in simple but vivid style some of the incidents which, in the old works above named, are grouped around this fascinating "hero." In the general arrangement, and in some of the details, the author has followed poetic precedent and deviated from the older versions; but all the principal features are retained. Young folks in reading this book will not only enjoy it for its own sake, but will prepare themselves for a better appreciation of Morris's "Sigurd the Volsung," and of those musical works which will before very many years take possession of our operatic stage. Mr. Howard Pyle's illustrations are much above the ordinary in imagination and in artistic feeling.

Roberts Brothers have reprinted the 'Proverb Stories' which were Miss Alcott's earliest work. They are hardly worth preserving, though two of them now have a kind of historical interest as showing, if not what people actually said and did in the days of the War, at least what a bright, enthusiastic woman imagined they did.

The author of 'Brothers of Pity' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.) has the faculty of combining scenes and incidents from natural history with the forcible teaching of needful lessons, and yet without the least suspicion of a perfunctory moral. Children who read the book will be kinder and gentler for the sake of old "Flaps" or for the example of the "Brother of Pity," a little lonely boy: "It must be much easier to play at things when there are more of you, than when there is only one." Some elders might take heed to "Toots's" master: "I am not fond of killing, myself, though I have a sort of conscience about knowing how it is done. I don't like leaving necessary executions to servants." The gipsy story is fine enough for something more than its whimsical setting, though that is not to disparage the quaintness and humor of the setting itself. It is a surprise to find a book so simple in style, so picturesque, whether it be by a mere hint, as of the robin redbreast lying dead in the moon-lit quarry, and the sexton beetles busy about him, or the fuller drawing of the home of the hedgehogs, chosen "because the fallen leaves were untrodden, the hyacinth and ragged robins ungathered by human feet and hands, . . . because the trees were unmarked by woodmen and over-populated with birds, and the water-rat sat up in the sun with crossed paws and without a thought of danger." The illustrations are of the best, and the design upon the cover is a happy epitome of the contents of the book.

'Snow and Sunshine,' by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb (White & Stokes), is a story something better than the "goody" type, though made up entirely of stock materials—the boy rich and mischievous, another ragged and good, etc.—and more than the usual quota of lost children and narrow escapes. The pictures are not bad, but they are almost at haphazard, and the text has an air of having been written up to them.

Harper & Brothers publish a small 12mo volume, by Mr. Geo. B. Bartlett, containing explanations of about one hundred 'New Games for Parlor and Lawn, with a Few Old Friends in a New Dress.' Many of these games have already been published as contributions by Mr. Bartlett to juvenile magazines. A large portion of them are intended to combine instruction with amusement, by drawing upon such knowledge as the players may have of geography, history, literature, etc., and many are calculated to interest parents as well as children. Even persons who make no practical use of the games will find the book pleasant reading.

The late Mr. W. H. G. Kingston's 'James Braithwaite, the Supercargo' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) is prefaced with a portrait of the author and a short biographical sketch. Mr. Kingston, to judge by his portrait, was a person evidently of a most kindly disposition, and one whose sympathetic character would attract and retain the affection of youth. In his books for boys he has always given a thoroughly religious tone to his narratives. From a farewell letter addressed to his juvenile readers while suffering from a mortal disease, one can readily see that he was a man of sincere convictions, and wrote from a full belief in the truths of revealed religion. When this has been said of a portion of the contents of the present volume, there is but little to add. 'James Braithwaite' is the story of an exemplary young man, who goes as supercargo on a trading voyage during the first years of the present century. The usual varied adventures befall him. He is engaged in sea-fights with the French, and his vessel is burned, wrecked, and disabled in action. From all this he emerges the exemplary young person and the chosen of fortune. The usual low-comedy element is introduced in the person of the conventional Irishman, who, in moments of the deepest depression to his companions, overflows with boundless spirits and sallies of wit.

The motive of Mr. J. T. Trowbridge's 'The Jolly Rover' is to show the evil influence of the dime-novel literature. Arthur Wing, a boy of fourteen, runs away from home with another lad, in search of adventures like those related in "*The Boys' Own*, a weekly paper, filled with stories of astonishing boy-heroes." In the course of a fortnight, he manages to be fleeced by a sharper, run down in a steamer, picked up at sea, and wrecked on the coast of Maine, and to rescue a man from drowning, besides other incidents of less moment. From this it will be seen that the story, in its way, is almost as sensational and improbable as those whose bad influence over boys the author deprecates. There is, in addition, a low tone about the first part of the story which seriously detracts, in our opinion, from its possible value in teaching boys true heroism. Still, it should be said that the tone improves when the bad companion disappears from the scene, and that Arthur's courage in caring for the fever-stricken fisherman is well brought out. On the other hand, the parents are represented as not making the slightest efforts to find their son, and, before two weeks are over, "his absence, though never out of their minds, had almost ceased to be spoken of in the little household." When he writes to them, they go for him and bring him home. Some of the illustrations are exceedingly poor.

Mr. C. H. Hanson's 'Stories of the Days of King Arthur' (T. Nelson & Sons) is a capital book for boys. The author asserts that it is "the most complete epitome of the Arthurian legends that has yet been prepared for the use of young readers"—no doubt with truth, for Mr. Lanier's 'Boy's King Arthur' consists entirely of extracts from Sir Thomas Malory, while the present compilation embraces many legends of which Malory took no account. It is a question whether the fulness of narration in Mr. Lanier's stories will not make up for the greater completeness of this selection; it favors uniformity of style, at any rate, for it is entirely in Malory's words, while here we have passages in the editor's modern style side by side with others in which "the quaint style of Malory" is preserved. The book is so good, however, that this slight blemish (if it be one) is hardly noticed. The illustrations, by Doré, are interesting, but deficient in clearness.

Six Months in Persia. By Edward Stack. Two vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882. With seven maps. 8vo.

THE impression received from this account of a journey through Persia last year is an unusually favorable one. This is doubtless in some degree owing to the fact that the author came to the country, not from England, but from India after an eight years' residence. Still, it is also true that Persia is prospering under the rule of the Shah. Telegraph lines have been established; some progress has been made in road building, though carts are still unknown except in one or two cities; brigandage has been put down with a strong hand, so that "for the European traveller in Persia the roads are almost invariably safe." There are some enlightened governors who show an interest in the welfare of their subjects by remitting taxes in time of want, and by removing oppressive burdens upon commerce. The country, generally, is at peace and free from crime, the Vice-Governor of Yezd, one of the largest and most prosperous cities, telling Mr. Stack "that he had hardly any work to do, scarcely a dispute to settle; and I saw for myself the emptiness of his court-yard—strange contrast to the environs of an Indian cutcherry." The price of arable land is high, and considerable sums are being spent by private owners on irrigation works. When it is added that Persia has no public debt, it will be seen what a vast contrast there is between her condition and that of the neighboring countries under Turkish rule. Even as compared with India, much can be said in favor of Persia. "The average level of the Persian peasant is higher than that of the Indian ryot." The villages are better built, and though parts of the land were still suffering from a two years' famine, our author "saw neither man, woman, nor child in a state of weakness from insufficient food." The manly and independent bearing of the Persian is also in strong contrast

to the obsequiousness of the Indian. He is courteous, hospitable, and singularly free from prejudice and caste exclusiveness. Nothwithstanding many evidences of misgovernment which Mr. Stack makes no pretence of covering or palliating, he concludes that "it is a nice question, what degree of misgovernment by one's own countrymen is worse than government by foreigners." The chapter in which he treats this subject might be read with profit by those who are interested in watching the proposed establishment by England of self-government in Egypt.

Persia can hardly be regarded as a land for enjoyable travelling. The greater part of the country is either salt desert or treeless tableland, with here and there patches of scant vegetation, skirted by ranges of bare rock whose only redeeming feature is their extraordinarily brilliant coloring. A scene like the following is a typical one:

"Before and below us, from left to right, stretched a plain five miles wide, backed by black mountains seamed with glittering veins of salt, and breaking at their bases into little hillocks and runlets of pure salt, sparkling in the sun. A broad white stream of salt ran down into the middle of the plain, and toward the right hand it expanded into a lake, the intense whiteness of which was heightened by contrast with the black rocks beyond."

In these regions the villages are few in number, and small, and even the great trade routes are comparatively deserted. There are other places, however, as the plain bordering upon the Caspian, where the vegetation is more luxuriant than that of India. Some of the mountain villages, also, where water is plenty, have a wonderful charm. Mahallat, a village lying to the north of Ispahan,

"is watered by a spring that wells up from the foot of the cliff, and sends fifty little channels down the streets and lanes and through the houses, here turning a mill, there watering a garden, now disappearing under a wall to course through a series of rooms whose half-opened doors show the sparkle of water in the gloom, and then appearing again, dashing across the road or lining the wayside with laughing waterfalls. The lanes are bordered and often quite overshadowed by trees, giving the prettiest vistas, while the open spaces have tanks of water under magnificent plane-trees. The richness and beauty of the foliage make one pause and look, and try to disentangle the many-leaved labyrinth overhead, where vines hang from the poplar-stems, and apple and walnut, pomegranate, mulberry, plane and willow, plum-trees and cherry-trees, fig and apricot, mingle their boughs and offer their fruits indiscriminately."

In such spots as these the traveller is wakened "in the night by the rapturous singing of nightingales, whose wild music burdened every bough."

Mr. Stack's route was from Bushire on the Persian Gulf to Shiraz and Persepolis, and from thence through the unexplored region to the south to Lar. Turning here to the northeast, he passed through Kirman, Yezd, Ispahan, and Teheran to the Caspian, thus traversing nearly the whole length of the country. He had the great advantages of a knowledge of the Persian language and literature, and of being accompanied by a Persian gentleman who made all the necessary arrangements at each stopping-place. Many opportunities were therefore offered him—all of which he improved—to see and talk with the chief men of the villages and towns through which he passed. The general intelligence which many even in the villages showed surprised him. Questions in regard to England's relations with Turkey and Russia were frequent, as were comments on the campaigns in Afghanistan. Once, at least, he was asked about Ireland. In the region bordering upon the Gulf, especially, the desire was sometimes openly expressed that England "would come up from the sea like a flood and take the country. We should all be content." His attention was particularly directed in every place to the land-revenue system, and the results of his inquiries are given in a valuable chapter at the end of the work. The land belongs either to the state or to private owners, and is divided also into wet land—that which is watered by rivers, springs, and wells—and dry land, or that which is dependent upon the rain. "In the winter, when seed-time approaches, all the lands are divided among the number of ploughs which the village can muster. Each sahra [tract] is parcelled out into longitudinal strips, and to every plough is assigned a strip or strips in each sahra, so as to make the apportionment fair. This is a matter settled by the elders of the village in conference with the plough-holders." The dry land, however, is generally the property of the state, and can be cultivated by "anybody who will take the trouble and risk of breaking it up and throwing seed into it on the chance of timely rain," on the payment of one-fifth of the produce. Naturally, the use of water by the various villages and farmers in each village has to be carefully regulated, and in some places the system is exceedingly elaborate. All the water of a spring or stream is divided first into taqs.

"The water of a village has so many taqs, each taq being twelve hours, measured approximately from sunrise to sunset, and again from sunset to sunrise. If there are eighteen taqs, the meaning is that the water-supply is sufficient to water the whole village in nine days. Each taq contains a certain number of tashts—suppose a hundred and thirty, which is a favorite number in the Yezd plain (sixty-five by day and sixty-five by night: sixty-five tashts in twelve hours)—each tasht is therefore equivalent to the use of the water-supply for a little more than eleven minutes; and this space of time is measured by floating a copper bowl with a needle-hole in its bottom in a large vessel of water: the duration of the tasht comes to an end as the bowl sinks. . . . The bowl, like everything else, is divided into six dungas by marks inside, so that, in the case supposed above, a man's right to the use of the water could be measured to within less than two minutes. . . . If he has a right to twenty tashts, then (to continue our previous illustration) he will receive water for 3¾ hours of the day or the night, as the case may be, every tenth day, or three times a month."

Mr. Stack is evidently a careful observer, and his book, though at times rather dry, gives a presumably accurate account of the present condition of that part of Persia which he visited. He is lacking somewhat in imaginativeness, as well as in curiosity, and so we miss the little graphic touches by which many records of travel are lightened. Unfortunately, also, to our mind, he has chosen to transcribe his diary apparently with little or no abridgment. As one day's experiences were often very like another's, and the scenery was generally monotonous, the reader is needlessly wearied. Had he condensed his narrative, and put an itinerary of his journey in an appendix, he would have escaped this difficulty. The spelling of Persian words and proper names which he has adopted is different from that of other recent writers, and is not always consistent, either in the text or on the maps. These latter are admirably clear, and in some places add materially to our geographical knowledge of the country.

Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac. A Critical History of Operations in Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, from the Commencement to the Close of the War, 1861-1865. By William Swinton, author of 'Decisive Battles of the War,' 'Outlines of the World's History,' etc. Revision and Reissue. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

We have here a very old and valued friend in a new and attractive dress. The reputation of Mr. Swinton's 'Army of the Potomac' is so well established, that we need do no more than to say here, once for all, that it is a work well-nigh indispensable to the student of the war. The general correctness of the narrative, the spirit of fairness with which praise and blame are awarded, the perspicuity of the style, have always been admitted. Still, written as the book was, a year only after the war was over, many topics were more or less imperfectly treated, and a revision which should have embodied all that has been since ascertained, would have been a very great boon. This we do not find in the present edition, nor, in fact, does Mr. Swinton pretend to give it to us. All that he has done is to correct some trifling errors in the first issue, and to add twenty pages of notes in an appendix.

These notes are, however, valuable. The extracts from General J. E. Johnston's narrative give us that officer's views as to the impossibility of following up his victory at Bull Run, and as to his theory of defending Richmond in the spring of 1862 by a concentration of all the disposable forces of the Confederacy. Certain corrections are made in regard to the operations at West Point, under General Franklin, and as to the part taken by General Sumner in the battle of Williamsburg. The Fitz-John Porter question is elucidated by an extract from the Report of the Board of Officers convened by order of President Hayes, in which Porter's conduct is sustained, and the verdict of the court-martial shown to be without foundation, as well as by General Grant's letter to President Arthur of last December, in which he begs the President to enter upon an investigation of the case, and states his own belief that Porter had rendered efficient and faithful services. One of the most interesting of the appendices is a letter from General Humphreys about the battle of Fredericksburg, giving the share of his own division, the Third of the Fifth Corps, in that terrible assault.

We are particularly glad to find that Mr. Swinton has taken up the statement made by General Doubleday, in his work on Gettysburg, in Scribner's series of the "Campaigns of the Civil War," that, at the council of war held on the night of the 2d of July, General Meade desired to retreat. In a brief examination of the evidence, Mr. Swinton shows on what insufficient grounds the statement rests. A too brief note is devoted to the interesting question of the intention of General Lee in regard to the grand assault on the Federal position at Gettysburg on the afternoon of the 3d of July, whether the divisions of Hood and McLaws in Longstreet's corps were to participate in the movement or not. The question seems to be considered by Mr. Swinton as incapable of any satisfactory settlement, the evidence being so contradictory. General Humphreys supplies an extremely valuable sketch of the manœuvres in the autumn of 1863, when General Lee attempted against General Meade a flanking operation similar to that which had been crowned with success in the summer of 1862. This time he accomplished nothing of importance, and both on his march to Centreville and on his return to the Rappahannock he suffered a considerable loss.

These, and some other notes, also of interest to the student, constitute all that Mr. Swinton has seen fit to give us in his reissue. For these we are certainly grateful, for his topics are well selected, and every note in the appendix is a contribution to the history of the army. But we wish he had done more in the way of revising some, at any rate, of the statements in the text of his book. There is, for instance, often great reason to doubt the accuracy of his estimates of the numbers of the opposing armies. We do not believe that Grant had 140,000 men at the opening of the Wilderness campaign, and we have

seen good reason to suppose that Lee had considerably more than the 52,626 with which he is credited on page 413. General Meade, we happen to know, supposed that he crossed the Rapidan with only 125,000 men, including the Ninth Corps; and it is very difficult to make the total of the infantry foot up to 100,000 men. Twenty-five thousand more for the cavalry and artillery is a liberal estimate. As for Lee's force, Col. W. H. Taylor, in his 'Four Years with General Lee,' page 125, puts it at 64,000, instead of the 52,626 given us by Mr. Swinton.

Again, the narrative of the operations by which General Grant intended to capture Petersburg, in June, 1864, is at fault on a material point, in respect to which there has been ample time to procure correct information. We refer to the fact that Grant succeeded in getting his army across the James and before Petersburg two days before Lee arrived in the town. Mr. Swinton is certainly in error when he says, on page 506, that "during the night of the 15th, the van of Lee's army reached the town." The only troops in and about Petersburg during the 15th, 16th, and 17th were the troops under Beauregard's command, and it was not till the morning of the 18th that General Lee rode into the town with the leading division of the Army of Northern Virginia. We may regret that so little use was made of our advantage, but we shall all agree that the strategy by which such an advantage was obtained should not be overlooked by the historian.

For all that large class who have grown up since the war was over—since, in fact, Mr. Swinton's 'Army of the Potomac' has been out of print—this new edition will be invaluable. The book is, and always will be, a standard work.

China. By Robert K. Douglas. E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1882.

THIS compilation—the latest in the endless series of books about China—by the Professor of Chinese at King's College, prepared for the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, is considerably above the average. In England, Dr. James Legge, the Professor of Chinese at Oxford, represents the conservative view of ancient history and chronology, holding to the standards of native scholarship. Professor Douglas, on the contrary, following the drift of modern criticism, is the disciple of Mayers and Terrien de la Couperie; he places the authentic beginnings of Chinese history much later than Legge or Edkins, and sees in the Y-King, or book of sacred diagrams, on which Dr. Legge has consumed years of laborious scholarship, only collections of syllabaries common to Akkad and to the primitive Chinese. In the first chapter of the book now under notice, the author puts in a popular form the result of the researches which bid fair to demonstrate the common origin of the Chinese and the Euphratean nations. This same subject, we may remark in passing, is discussed in the current number of the *Quarterly Review*. The Susian text interpreted by Dr. J. Oppert, the Babylonian studies of Professor A. H. Sayce, and the identifications of La Couperie, the specialist in archaic Chinese epigraphy, furnish the materials which Professor Douglas has here digested in popular form.

To the question, Where did these people (the Chinese) come from? the answer which recent research gives is, From the south of the Caspian Sea. In the chapter on the language, the philological reasons leading to this discovery are set forth at some length. In addition to the migration into the northern bend of the Hoang-Ho, mentioned in the books of the northern Chinese, there is also proof of another settlement at the same time, as far south as Annam, of which the classics make no mention. In all probability, as Professor Douglas thinks, the outbreak in Susiana of possibly some political disturbance, in about the twenty-fourth or twenty-third century B. C., drove the Chinese from the land of their adoption, and they wandered eastward until they finally settled in China and the countries south of it. They brought with them the rudiments of western civilization. The resemblance between the name and attributes of the legendary founder of the Chinese social system, Hwang-Ti, or Nak-kon-ti, and those of Nakhunte, the chief of the Susian gods, is pointed out; and the striking similarities in the Chinese and Babylonian systems of chronology, astrology, astronomy, weights, etc., etc., seem, when thrown in the scale with the arguments from language, to demonstrate that early relationship existed between the people of Akkad and the Chinese. The Kwei people, whom the immigrants found on the soil of what is now China, and who are mentioned in the classics as having presented their conquerors with books and assisted them in music and astronomy, are conjectured by La Couperie to have been Aryans. Remnants of these aboriginal people still exist in northern Cambodia; while the Fung people, who delighted the ancient Chinese Emperor with their skill in dancing and singing, and made him presents of their books, still live in southwestern China. These proper names, Kwei and Fung, are to be read as phonetics; but as the words mean also "tortoise" and "phœnix" respectively, it has been universally accepted by Chinese writers that the Kwei-shu, or Book of Kwei, was a sacred writing on the back of a tortoise, and that some phœnixes—birds of good omen—visited their ancient Emperor. The origin of the character Ti in Shang-Ti, which Dr. Legge would translate by Jehovah or Theos, and on which many Protestant missionaries propose to build the foundations of Christian theology in Chinese, but which the Roman Catholics are forbidden to use, is not accounted for by the Chinese themselves. Professor Douglas thinks it is in all probability nothing more than the eight-pointed star of the Akkadians, meaning "ruler," which with Shang may be translated "Supreme Ruler," though in both Chinese and Akkadian it is also applied to temporal rulers.

The other eighteen chapters of this book, though containing text much fresher than the illustrations, call for no special notice.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' Hand-Book of Winter Resorts. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Belt and Spur: Stories of the Knights of the Middle Ages. Scribner & Welford.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone. Harper's Franklin Square Library. Two-column edition. 25 cents.
Brown, R. H. Stellar Theology and Masonic Astronomy. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Calvert, Rev. W. The Wife's Manual; or, Prayers, Thoughts, and Songs. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2 25.
Capsadell, L. The Complete Guide to Silk Culture. W. B. Smith & Co.
Century Magazine. June to October, 1882. The Century Co.
Champney, Lizzie W. Three Vassar Girls Abroad. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Clarke, J. E. Chatterbox. 1882. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Conway, M. D. Emerson at Home and Abroad. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Cozzens, S. W. The Young Silver Seekers. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Dindorf, G. Homeri Ilias. Libri I.-XXIV. Chicago: Townsend MacCoun.
Duncan, Prof. P. M. Heroes of Science: Botanists, Zoölogists, and Geologists. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 20.
Flagg, I. Anakreonteia: Anacreontics, Selected and Arranged, with Notes. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Fromentin, E. The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Garnett, J. M. Beowulf: An Anglo-Saxon Poem. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.
Gautier, T. My Household Pets. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Gibbon, C. Of High Degree. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Greéy, E. The Wonderful City of Tokio. Adventures of the Jewett Family. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 75.
Hanson, C. H. Homer's Stories Simply Told. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1 50.
Happel, J. Das Christentum und die heutige Religionsgeschichte. Leipzig: Otto Schulze.
Harper's Young People. 1882. Harper & Bros.
Henderson, H. Practical Hints on Camping. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 25.
Howells, W. D. A Foregone Conclusion. Their Wedding Journey. 2 vols. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Ingersoll, E. Knocking Round the Rockies. Harper & Bros.
Kellogg, E. The Live Oak Boys. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 25.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers: Egypt and the Holy Land. Harper & Bros.
L'Estrange, Rev. A. G. The Friendships of Mary Russell Mitford. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Linton, W. J. Rare Poems of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries. Boston: Roberts Bros.
McMichael, W. Konneautt Lake: A Story of Early Times in Northwestern Pennsylvania. W. B. Smith & Co. $1.
Millinckrodt, J. F. Novissimum Organon: The Certainties, Guesses, and Observations of John Thinking-machine. St. Louis: Hugh Hildreth Printing Co.
Mueller, L. Q. Horatii Flacci Carmina. Chicago: Townsend MacCoun.
Olssen, W. W. Personality: Human and Divine. Thos. Whittaker. 75 cents.
Otis, J. Mr. Stubbs's Brother. Harper & Bros.
Parsons, S. B. A Treatise on the Propagation, Culture, and History of the Rose. New ed. Orange Judd Co. $1 50.
Perry, T. S. The Life and Letters of Francis Lieber. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Prentiss, Elizabeth. Life and Letters. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2 25.
Reiss, W., and Stübel, A. Necropolis of Ancon in Peru. Part 8. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7 50.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakspere's Henry VI. Parts 1, 2, 3. Harper & Bros.
St. John, C. Natural History and Sport in Moray. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Schmid, R. The Theories of Darwin. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2.
Sir Roger de Coverley. Illustrated by C. O. Murray. D. Appleton & Co. $2 25.
Spofford, Harriet P. Hester Stanley at St. Mark's. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Symonds, J. A. Renaissance in Italy. Italian Literature. In 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co. $7.
Tennyson, A. "Ring Out, Wild Bells." Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 50.
Vincent-Hurlbut. Lesson Commentary on the International Sunday-School Lessons for 1883. Phillips & Hunt. $1 25.
Von Glümer, C. A Noble Name: or, Dönninghausen. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Whitney, Prof. J. D. The Climatic Changes of Later Geological Times. 3 Parts. Cambridge, Mass.: Museum of Comparative Zoölogy.
Williams, F. H. Theodora: a Christmas Pastoral. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Zola, E. A Mad Love. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 23, 1882.

The Week.

FROM time to time we are told that the organizations formed by workingmen have been largely extended and perfected; that they command so-and-so many hundred thousands of votes in the country; that they will soon run candidates of their own for State and national offices; and that they are going to revolutionize our politics from top to bottom. Such statements seem to make but little impression upon the general public, but they are undoubtedly to a very large extent believed by the workingmen themselves. If there is a State in which workingmen's organizations should be able to acquire political strength, it is Pennsylvania. Some three or four months ago, indeed, the leaders of the "workingmen's party" in that State proclaimed that they had the controlling power of the future in their hands, and that they should not be in the least surprised if they carried the State election this year. They pretended to have 75,000 voters enrolled in their organizations as a nucleus round which all outside sympathizers with their cause would rally. They nominated Thomas A. Armstrong, of Pittsburgh, as their candidate for the Governorship, who had already been nominated by the Greenback party, so as to concentrate the efforts of all those elements whose objects were in any way akin to each other. Inasmuch as the Greenback party of Pennsylvania had polled about 20,000 votes in the election of 1880, their alliance seemed to be a desirable one. Mr. Armstrong thus became the candidate of the "Greenback-Labor party." When the votes were counted it was found that he had received about 22,500 of them, only 2,500 more than the Greenbackers had polled in 1880, and 52,500 less than the Workingmen's party pretended to have enrolled in their organization.

There is much perturbation in Massachusetts over the choice of Senator Hoar's successor. It seems to be taken for granted that he is not to have another term, though no definite reason is given. His capacity, and integrity, and fidelity are not denied by anybody, but, as well as we can make out, the fault found with him is that he is zealous about things on which he ought to be lukewarm, and lukewarm about things on which he ought to be zealous, and is, accordingly, not in sympathy with what seem to be the dominating tendencies of the party at this moment. For instance, he is all aglow about the tariff just as it is, while his attitude toward civil-service reform is one of great calm, to say the least. Then, those who most fully concede his honesty, feel as if the honesty of a man who could approve of the River and Harbor Bill is, like a loaded gun, a dangerous thing to have in the house. In addition to this, too, the triumph of Butler is looked upon as in some mysterious way a popular condemnation of "the Hoars," and an intimation that there ought to be a change in the Senatorial delegation. Governor Long is more talked of than anybody else, and seems to be the one generally recognized "rising man" in Massachusetts politics at this moment; but he is young, and can wait, and probably would be disposed to subordinate his claims to Mr. Hoar's if the friends of the latter were in a better humor and showed more reserve in vindicating him.

Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., has, in the Springfield *Republican*, suggested the name of Gen. Francis A. Walker for the benefit of those who at crises like the present are on the lookout for "the ideal thing." There is no question whatever that in these days General Walker is exactly the kind of man Massachusetts ought to have in the Senate, and there is just as little that he is the kind of man she must have, if she is determined to retain, or some would say regain, the influence she possessed in the national forum during the long conflict with slavery. The times are changed, and both States and men need to change with the times if they wish to be "heroes in the strife." But unfortunately General Walker has "gone back" on Mr. Adams by declaring for Mr. Hoar—a fresh illustration of the uncertainties of politics.

The appointment of Mr. Trescot and General Grant as a commission to negotiate a commercial treaty with Mexico leaves, as the French say, much to be desired. It is no impeachment of the perspicacity or sagacity of these gentlemen to say that the negotiation of a commercial treaty by a lawyer and a soldier is a decided and not very useful novelty in statecraft. Neither of them can possibly know enough of trade or commerce, past, present, or future, to negotiate a treaty of this sort properly. It ought to be done by experienced business men, with the aid, perhaps, of a lawyer. We ought at the same time to point out to our protectionist friends that a commercial treaty will promote that accursed thing, a freer interchange of commodities. The Mexicans will not enter into a treaty binding them to buy more of our goods than they are now doing for gold, yet this is the only kind of treaty which, on the protectionist theory, could do us any good. An arrangement for more barter will draw after it the ruin from which the tariff has so long saved us. A true commercial treaty on the American plan ought to bind the Mexicans to send a certain amount of gold in a bag for the purchase of goods into this country every year, or else to move into this country and consume our manufactures on the spot.

The Chicago Board of Trade, after some years of experimentation, has decided to rescind the rule which prohibits "corners in grain." This rule did not assume to prevent persons from buying up all the grain in the market, but if they did so, and then bought options for still more grain which the sellers could not deliver, the Board would not recognize such option contracts, and would not enforce them by expelling the defaulting members, but would, in case of appeal, fix a price at which contracts should be settled. A few years' experience has shown, as might have been anticipated, that short sellers, instead of relying wholly on their own wits and exercising prudence to keep out of the hands of the cornerers, have relied largely upon the Arbitration Committee of the Board to help them out of scrapes. In other words, they have taken more risks than they would have taken if the anti-corner rule had not been in force. Things have gone on from bad to worse till a contract on the Board of Trade has ceased to have any binding force, except in the sense of honor of individual traders. Arbitrations have multiplied, and lawsuits have followed on the heels of arbitrations, and demoralization has become so marked that the trade of the city has been perceptibly lessened. Under these circumstances, the Board has decided, wisely, to repeal the anti-corner rule, and let bulls and bears look out for themselves.

The recent decision in the telegraph-consolidation case seems to have had a remarkable effect upon Mr. Jay Gould's views of the proper management of stock companies. An application has been made in his behalf to the Attorney-General for leave to begin a suit in the name of the people to vacate the charter of the Mutual Union Telegraph Company. If the case ever comes to trial there is likely to be a great deal of "laughter in the court." Mr. Gould says in his affidavit that, although the stock of the company is limited to 12,000 shares and $1,200,000, it has issued in excess of that limit to the amount of 80,000 shares and $8,000,000. It is further complained that no adequate consideration has been paid for this stock. There will be laughter at this, because, in such a state of facts, it would be expected that Mr. Gould would appear as a defendant rather than a plaintiff. People will remember the abortive proceeding of another Attorney-General to dissolve the Manhattan Elevated Railway because it had abused its franchise and issued many millions of stock for which there was nothing to show. They will recall the manipulation of the shares of the Western Union Telegraph Company, and other watering processes, with which the name of Jay Gould is not wholly unconnected. The facility with which he turns against his opponents the weapons of accusations of illegal and unscrupulous methods so often directed against himself, will afford much amusement. If his course implies a real change of heart, if he has resolved henceforth to countenance none but regular and honest methods in the transactions of stock companies, very few will doubt that a period of reform has set in with great violence.

Mr. F. B. Thurber's monograph on postal telegraphy, which comes before the public in the form of a report to the Board of Trade and Transportation, favors the purchase by the Government of the existing telegraph

lines in the country, to be operated hereafter as a branch of the Post-office Department. Mr. Thurber estimates that the actual cost of the Western Union lines has not exceeded $16,000,000, yet he favors their purchase at their present market value—*i. e.*, $80,000,000 at 82, or $65,600,000 plus the outstanding bonds of the company. The other companies—the Mutual Union, the Baltimore and Ohio, the American Rapid, and sundry small companies scattered here and there—would be entitled to the same treatment, which would bring the total cost, including their bonded indebtedness, up to $100,000,000 or more. All this for property which, by the hypothesis, could be duplicated for, say, $25,000,000. The proposition strikes us as sufficiently generous, and one which the Western Union Company would readily accept, considering the vulnerable nature of a property exposed to such incessant competition. We doubt whether Congress could be induced to pay such a bonus for the plant, but, on the other hand, it would be unfair for the Government to employ the revenues derived from the whole people to destroy the property of a portion. If the Western Union can make head against its competitors, present and prospective, well and good. The Government ought not to interfere either to confiscate its property or to save it from apprehended loss. The time has not come, in our judgment, for embarking in this enterprise. Mr. Thurber makes light of the objection that the civil service of the United States is not adapted to the assumption of new duties of enormous magnitude like that of operating the telegraph system of the country. He says that the argument would be equally valid to justify the abandonment of the Post-office Department to private enterprise. This is like saying that a family which is already afflicted with measles might as well have the smallpox also. The Government has the Post-office now, and a pretty mess has been made of it, as shown by the Star-route trials. The Post-office is a much less complicated machine than the telegraph, and the chances of corruption and botch-work would be far greater in the latter than in the former.

The greater complexity of the telegraph system than the postal consists mainly in two things: first, in the fact that all messages transmitted pass under the eyes of the transmitters, and the contents become known to them (except in the few cases where cipher is used), whereby the whole system becomes in its nature confidential; second, in the fact that the means of carriage have to be provided by the carrier of telegraphic messages, whereas the means of carrying letters are not provided by the Post-office, but only the arrangements for delivery at the end of the route. We are far from saying that these difficulties are insurmountable by the Government, but we do say that they ought not to be assumed until the public service is organized on a business basis. What would be the effect upon business of putting the chief offices of the telegraph service up as rewards to the Mikes, Barneys, and Johnnys of the Republican party, and then turning them all out at the end of four years in favor of the Mikes, Barneys, and Johnnys of the Democratic party? It may be thought that the abuses revealed by the Star-route trials are merely analogous to the defalcations which are going on more or less in banks and mercantile houses. We cannot agree to this view. These are analogous to defalcations of postmasters, and robberies of letters by carriers and clerks, which are not infrequent. If it had been shown that the Superintendent of the Western Union Telegraph had been appointed for political reasons, in the first place, because he was "strong in Indiana," and had then been systematically robbing the company of millions of dollars for years and years, such a case would be analogous to what has been shown in the Star-route trials.

The Star-route proceedings seem to resolve themselves into an inquiry into the causes of the failure of the first trial. This investigation is interesting, and may be important, but it is much more to the purpose to push on to a second trial and secure a conviction of the thieves. That the whole policy of the defendants has been not to show their own innocence directly, but to discredit the prosecution indirectly, is sufficiently clear. One attempt in this direction is described by Mr. J. A. Walsh in a letter to Attorney-General Brewster. He repeats the story of his appearance before the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia in June, 1882, when Brady and Price were indicted on his testimony, which, he says, was equally adequate to the indictment of Senator William P. Kellogg; of his reappearance before another Grand Jury in the following month, when an indictment was refused on his testimony, and of the introduction by somebody to the jurors of a copy of the contested Senatorial election case of Spofford and Kellogg. Mr. Walsh argues that the improper use of this document and the course of the jury in the matter were intended to save Kellogg, and to throw doubt upon the testimony of Walsh in the Star-route trial, for which he had been subpœnaed as a witness. Nobody will be inclined to argue on the other side of this proposition. His account of the behavior of the members of the Grand Jury throws some light on the composition of juries in the District: "Such of them as did not tilt their chairs listlessly against the walls, resolved themselves into cross-examiners in the interest of the persons against whom I was testifying, with the apparent motive of trying to exhaust the case of the Government in the Grand Jury room." The best use to which the Attorney-General can put this report is in redoubling the efforts of the prosecution to get a respectable jury on the next trial. Mr. Walsh urges him to inquire who furnished the Grand Jury with a copy of the Spofford-Kellogg case. However important such an inquiry may be, it can safely be postponed to the more pressing business of convicting Dorsey and Brady and the rest.

The slackening in railroad construction has diminished the demand for steel rails, so that the price has fallen off from about fifty dollars to forty-two dollars within three months. Two of the Chicago companies, the Joliet and the North Chicago, are accordingly going to close their rolling mills, the reason being, of course, the very sufficient one that they cannot make rails at forty-two dollars at a profit. But Mr. O. B. Potter, the President of the North Chicago Company, in explaining the matter to a reporter, was not content with this. Nothing short of "three causes" would satisfy him. Besides the decline in prices, he gives high wages, which is of course included in the decline in prices, and the "probability that Congress will reduce the tariff to $14 per ton from $20, as at present." But it is $28 at present, and what is talked of is a reduction to $20. The allusion to the tariff, in fact, looks as if there was going to be some "closing-down of works" and "dismissal of large bodies of skilled laborers" this winter to prevent Congressional interference with the tariff. It would, in fact, apparently be impossible to provide a tariff that would meet the wants of our iron and steel friends. When they have a high tariff, they ascribe their good times to its beneficent operation. When, under its stimulus, they make more iron than they can dispose of, they ascribe their bad times to the fear that it will be reduced. The truth is, that their perfect tariff would provide for the purchase of their surplus production by the Government, whenever the home demand fell off or the market was overstocked. No matter how high the tariff is made, they are sure to work up to it and over it, and then have no purchasers to turn to when the home consumption fails them.

The negro voters in Beaufort County, South Carolina, where they number 5,415 to 336 white, have been playing sadly into the hands of their enemies at the last election. They have elected one of the most notorious thieves of the Moses period, named Gantt, to the Legislature. He was at that time also a member of the Legislature, and was convicted of taking bribes freely, and swore himself that Treasurer Parker gave him $100 to vote for one bill. In fact, his terms were so low as to make him a discredit to his own class. He has now been restored to public life. The worst revival is, however, that of Whipper, whom some of our readers will doubtless remember as one of the pattern colored rascals of 1875 or thereabouts. In that year his brother rascals actually elected him as Circuit Judge, along with Moses, the ex-Governor. He had been a member of the carpet-bag Legislature, where he stole very profusely. He furnished his rooms handsomely at the public expense, and he took bribes right and left, and defaulted to the tune of $12,000 when Commissioner of the Sinking Fund. He ought undoubtedly to be in the penitentiary, but the colored voters apparently like that kind of man for Probate Judge. It must be acknowledged, however, that the example the whites set them is not what it ought to be. It is not difficult in many parts of the North for a man convicted of corruption to get back to Congress or the Legislature, if he has a brazen front and does not flinch. There are cases of this kind in nearly every State. The remedy, too, seems to lie rather in the hands of the knaves themselves than in those of the people. Charges are now so common, and are reëchoed in so many newspapers, that

the moral ear of the public has grown a little dull, while its forgetfulness is proverbial. So that if the accused does not run away or resign, and boldly declares that he is innocent as a lamb, he stands a good chance of regaining or retaining his place; but, to be completely rehabilitated, he has generally to give up his old tricks. It is generally owing to his unwillingness or inability to do so that his final overthrow is effected.

Mr. Henry George delivered a lecture on Monday evening, apparently in support of the thesis that, "when God sends mouths he sends meat"; that is to say, he demolished Malthus over again, using the arguments to that end which are found in his work on 'Progress and Poverty.' De Laveleye, the Belgian professor, who has mixed so much fine sentiment in his own works on political economy that it is hard to separate his facts from his moral theories and religious musings, reviews Mr. George's 'Progress and Poverty' in the current number of the *Contemporary Review*. He shows that Mr. George's work has no scientific basis worth mentioning, but follows him in a flight through the empyrean of lofty hopes and fervid diction. The value of this class of writing would be much heightened if the writers would serve their facts and their fancies in different courses, so that the public could choose the course which they prefer. The majority would undoubtedly prefer the latter, because fine feeling is almost universally distributed—a fortunate circumstance for the human race—while the craving for facts is confined to a few, of whom Darwin and Malthus are melancholy examples.

There has been trouble at Opelika, Ala., the citizens having had a little riot, in which three of their number were shot. At Forest City, N. C., there has also been trouble among "the most prominent citizens in the place." First, Barnes King shot William Suttle, and then Suttle shot him. Then Gaither Front, not being fully satisfied with King's condition, shot him again twice. Whereupon John Harrell coming up, also in a critical and discontented frame of mind, fired two shots into Suttle. We believe, but are not quite sure, that both King and Suttle are dead. It now remains for Gaither Front and John Harrell to dispose of each other, and quiet will reign once more among the prominent citizens. These occurrences, we need hardly say, will be much regretted all over the South, and as Suttle and King regret them also, and Front and Harrell are going to regret them, it would be discourteous to make any further allusions to them. The three citizens who were killed at Opelika are probably sorry also.

The war between Austria and Russia, for which extensive preparations were made in this city on Saturday by some of our contemporaries, came to an end, as we anticipated, on Monday. The members of the Hungarian Delegation who raised the alarm are, it is announced, unofficial persons of no account, who are allowed to wring the neck of the Russian eagle without causing any anxiety.

The complete collapse of the opposition to the new rules of procedure introduced by Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons seems to indicate beyond question some kind of understanding with the Irish members, who are refraining from all serious opposition. The Tories believe this, and are very indignant over it, as if it were an act of peculiar baseness, and are trying to get at the "true inwardness" of it by a committee of inquiry into what they call the "Treaty of Kilmainham," meaning thereby an alleged arrangement under which Mr. Parnell was liberated from jail. Mr. Gladstone, however, totally denies any such arrangement, and challenges the inquiry. The true reason of Parnell's liberation undoubtedly was that there was found to be no use in keeping him shut up any longer, and a letter of his opened up the prospect that he would behave differently in the House when he got back. Mr. John Morley says, in a late article in the *Nineteenth Century*, on the "Irish Revolution," that it is a point of honor with many English members not to accept any Irish measure proposed by an Irishman, which is quite true. But this fuss over "the Treaty of Kilmainham" shows that there are many also who think that a private arrangement with Irish members, such as is made by the Ministry with English or Scotch members at nearly all important crises, to make special concessions in return for support or for abstinence from opposition, has something peculiarly dreadful about it. If Mr. Gladstone has disarmed Irish opposition, however, by promises of legislation, he has opened up the true road to Irish pacification.

The most formidable piece of evidence yet produced against Arabi Pasha is that of Suleiman Daud, who says he received orders from him to burn Alexandria and murder the Khedive. This is important, because it is admitted on all hands that if Arabi had a hand in the destruction of the city nothing can save him. Arabi's only answer to this is that Suleiman wanted to burn the city himself, and that he (Arabi) tried to prevent him, but could not do so. This defence, however, cuts both ways, because it weakens the plea that Arabi was the Commander-in-Chief of the National forces, and therefore, as a prisoner of war, not responsible to anybody for the manner in which he met the invaders. If his story about Suleiman be true, it makes himself simply one of a party of mutineers, each of whom did whatever seemed good in his own eyes. If, as is expected, Nuri Bey, who commanded at Ramleh, should corroborate Suleiman, it would undoubtedly go hard with Arabi. Anyhow, the precise position of England in the proceedings grows more and more puzzling. The theory of it now seems to be that England interfered for the complete restoration of the Khedive's authority on every matter except the punishment of Arabi. When one asks why this exception is made, the answer is that the British public does not believe the Khedive would treat Arabi fairly; but it is hard to see why if he cannot be trusted with Arabi he can be trusted with the other five millions of Egyptians.

The fuller details received of the dispute between England and Spain, over the Cuban refugees, make it plain that it has a tolerably serious side. The refugees are General Maceo and two others, who figured prominently in the Cuban insurrection, and have since their surrender been confined at Ceuta, a Spanish convict station on the African coast. They recently made their escape to Gibraltar by way of Tangiers, and as soon as they disappeared the Spanish Minister gave notice to the British authorities at Gibraltar that "three convicts" had escaped, and asked that if they turned up at Gibraltar they should be detained. Orders to that effect were accordingly given to the English police, without a suspicion that the runaways were really political prisoners. When they landed at Gibraltar they were arrested and carried before a police magistrate, who, apparently, had misunderstood his instructions, for he forthwith, without any inquiry, sent them across the lines and delivered them to the Spanish gendarmerie. Now, it appears that there is an extradition treaty between England and Spain, very recently concluded, but it of course does not provide for the surrender of political criminals, or for the surrender of any criminals except after inquiry before a magistrate to establish the fugitive's identity, and to show that the offences with which he is charged are within the purview of the treaty. No such formality, or indeed any formality, was observed in the present case. The magistrate failed in his duty, and the Spanish Government got the men, if not under false pretences, by concealing a material fact. Under these circumstances the British Government have naturally asked for their return, and the Spanish Government, after full deliberation, have refused it. In other words, they have announced their intention to take advantage of the mistake.

It is, however, not at all likely that they will be allowed to keep them in peace. However unwilling Mr. Gladstone might be in the present state of European politics to put pressure on a Power as weak as Spain, he can hardly avoid doing it in a case like the present which touches the British right of asylum, a point on which the Liberal party has always been extremely sensitive. He would probably have in coercing Spain what he has not had in putting Arabi down—the united support of his party. There are some subjects on which all Englishmen are Jingoes, and the security of political refugees on British soil is one of them. The Spanish defence is, we believe, that they found these men on Spanish soil, and that if they came there by a blunder of the British police, it is no affair of theirs. But then the blunder was undoubtedly due in the first instance to the piece of deception practised by them in giving notice of the escape of the "three convicts." This was well calculated to throw the British off their guard, because they, of course, could hardly suppose that the Spaniards would ask them to be on the lookout for criminals whom, under the treaty, they could not surrender. In fact, the plea is one which, if adopted as it is said to have been by the Cabinet, would do little credit to Spanish notions of honor.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, November 15, to TUESDAY, November 21, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

A CABINET meeting was held in Washington on Friday. All the members except the Attorney-General were present. The principal questions before the several executive departments were discussed, with a view to their consideration in the President's annual message to Congress.

Chaplain Mullens, who has charge of education in the Army, in his annual report to the Secretary of War says that considerable progress has been made in the work of organizing and establishing post-schools and reading-rooms, and that there is a growing interest in these institutions among both officers and enlisted men. The average number of pupils who attended the day and night-schools during the year at all military posts and camps was as follows: Enlisted men, 1,586; children of enlisted men, 987; children of officers, 970; children of civilians, 412.

The Chief of the Secret Service Division of the Treasury Department has submitted his report. It shows that the total number of arrests made by Secret Service agents and by local authorities for which a reward was paid from the funds of the Division was 335, the majority of which were for possessing, dealing in, and manufacturing and passing counterfeit money. The total amount of counterfeit money captured during the year was $8,830,-124 51.

The Chief of the Bureau of Statistics reports that during the month of October there arrived in the customs districts of Baltimore, Boston, Detroit, Huron, Minnesota, New Orleans, New York, Passamaquoddy, Philadelphia, and San Francisco 45,965 immigrants. The number of immigrants arrived in the month of October, 1881, was 67,929.

Secretary Folger has decided to allow holders of three per cent. bonds of large denominations to exchange them in corresponding amounts for bonds of smaller denominations, provided such holders are willing to waive any rights they may have, founded on priority of numbers, and consent to take newly numbered bonds.

All the heads of divisions in the Post-office Department at Washington deny positively that there is any intention of making extensive removals of employees in their divisions. Assistant Postmaster-General Hatton indignantly denied the report that a number of clerks in his department, who had failed to respond freely to the assessment circular, were to be removed. He said he did not know whether his subordinates had paid their assessments or not, and that it was untrue that he had a list of those who had failed to contribute.

The Post-office Inspectors who recently examined the free-delivery system of the city of New York, have submitted their report to the Department. They found the service, so far as deliveries and collections are concerned, conducted with more liberality than is really demanded by the patrons of the office.

It is said that at the coming session of Congress the friends of cheap letter-postage will renew the efforts to secure a reduction of the letter rate from three to two cents, and that in view of the flourishing condition of the postal revenues they have strong hopes of success.

The President has directed that all the Executive departments at Washington be closed at noon on Saturday next in honor of the opening ceremonies of the Garfield Monument Fair at the Capitol. The President and the members of the Cabinet will participate in the ceremonies. Justice Stanley Matthews was to have delivered the oration, but he refused to serve unless the Committee could secure a suitable hall, and this they failed to do.

The Congressional Committee appointed to investigate the condition of the Mississippi River, examined three river pilots at Helena, Arkansas, on Sunday, who agreed in testifying that, in their opinion, the river had not been improved by the Government work on it during the last twenty years, beyond the taking out of snags and the putting up of lights. They did not believe it to be possible to confine the river within prescribed limits. The Committee have declined a reception tendered them by the various commercial bodies of New Orleans.

Mr. Hayes, President of the Tariff Commission, in an interview said that the report of the Commission will be made to Congress when it reassembles, and that it will be found to be an intelligent survey of the tariff and measures of reform. Mr. Hayes says that the Commission has been unfairly treated by the politicians, but that the public will see, when the report is presented, that it has done its work faithfully and properly.

The Canvassing Board appointed by the Edmunds Utah Commission, and consisting of three Gentiles and two Mormons, canvassed the vote for Delegate from Utah, and found 23,039 votes for Cain (Mormon) to 4,880 for Van Zile (Gentile). Van Zile protested against the vote for Cain being counted, on the ground that he is a polygamist, but the Commission overruled the protest, on the ground that it was not specifically charged and proved that Cain is actually a polygamist.

Governor-elect Pattison of Pennsylvania has declined the militia escort tendered him for the day of his inauguration, on the ground that it involves useless and unnecessary expense to the taxpayers.

The official returns of the Pennsylvania election give the total vote for Governor as 743,803, and Pattison's plurality 40,202. Stewart, the Independent candidate, polled 43,743 votes.

The message of Governor Cobb, of Alabama, which was sent to the State Legislature on Wednesday, shows the financial condition of the State to be excellent. The bonded debt is $9,407,800, and the amount of cash in the treasury on October 1, the end of the fiscal year, was $421,000. There has been an increase of nearly 25 per cent. in the assessed value of the property in the State during the last three years. The message recommends a reduction of taxation, as the State expenses have been greatly reduced in the last few years, and after paying all claims there has been a surplus in the treasury at the end of each year.

The official count of the vote for Governor in Alabama was made on Saturday in the presence of both Houses of the Legislature. It gives O'Neal, Democrat, 100,591; and Sheffield, Ind., 46,386.

On Wednesday, Governor Alfred H. Colquitt, of Georgia, was elected United States Senator by the State Legislature for the full term of six years, and Pope Barrow was elected to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Hill.

Senator David Davis, of Illinois, is reported to have said that he is not a candidate for re-election to the Senate, and has not made any canvass therefor, and that he expects to spend the remainder of his days in Bloomington after the expiration of his term of office in March next.

The city government of New Orleans is in a bad way. The Chief of Police has resigned, and the incoming Mayor has offered the position to a number of persons, but has found no one who will accept it. Meanwhile the entire police force of the city only numbers about fifty men, the others having quit their beats with a knowledge that they can never be paid for their services.

The Independents of New Orleans have been investigating the alleged election frauds in that city, and the results have been of a startling character. In one ward frauds have been discovered at every poll, the result of the election having been completely reversed by the Democratic election officers. In the Third Ward alone 1,500 fraudulent votes have already been detected.

The freight agents of the Joint Executive Committee of the trunk-line railroads and their Western connections agreed on Thursday to advance east-bound freight-rates on a basis of five cents per 100 pounds between Chicago and New York. The advance is to take place on December 1. The rates on the two principal classes of business—grain and provisions—will be thirty and thirty five cents per 100 pounds respectively. The Committee has decided that hereafter no rate on business between terminal and intermediate points shall be made at a less figure than the proportionate through-rate from one terminal point to another.

A despatch from Chicago says that the Joliet Iron and Steel Company has determined to close its works on or before the 1st of December, and other Western companies making Bessemer steel expect to follow suit speedily, thus throwing out of employment at least 20,000 skilled and unskilled workmen. The reasons assigned for this action are that a majority of Congress hostile to the maintenance of the present tariff has been elected, and that the price of steel rails has declined; and the companies propose to restrict their operations while there is time and the season is slack. The workmen are much depressed at the prospect.

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has rendered a decision in favor of the Standard Oil Company of Ohio in the dispute between the commonwealth and the company concerning taxes and penalties claimed to be due the State by the latter. This decision ends a long litigation.

An electric storm of extraordinary intensity swept over the continent eastward from Ogden on Friday, and seriously interfered with the working of the telegraph wires.

The yellow-fever epidemic in Florida has subsided. Only one death and no new cases were reported at Pensacola on Monday. The Pensacola and Atlantic Railroad has resumed the running of passenger-trains between Pensacola and Eastern points.

The report from the Investigating Committee of the subscribers to the Irish Skirmishing Fund was presented on Sunday. The report says that John J. Breslin and John Devoy perverted the money from the purpose for which it was subscribed to their personal use, and were guilty "of infernal and despicable rascality as trustees of the fund." The Committee estimate that about $100,000 were contributed to the fund. The two rams which were built at a cost of about $4,000 and $32,000 respectively, are useless except as old iron. James O'Kelly spent nearly $10,000 of the fund in securing his election to Parliament.

Mr. W. W. Corcoran, of Washington, is endeavoring to have the body of John Howard Payne, the author of "Home, Sweet Home," removed from Tunis to the United States. If it is found impossible to have the body brought here on a Government vessel, Mr. Corcoran will have the removal made at his own expense.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday the second rule of procedure was adopted. On Thursday the third, fourth, and fifth rules were adopted. On Friday an amendment to the eighth rule, by Mr. Gladstone, exempting committee stages from the operation of the rule, was agreed to, and on Monday Mr. Gladstone accepted an amendment providing that the rule shall not apply in nominating select committees. The rule, as amended, was then carried.

In the House of Commons, on Thursday, Thomas Dickson, Liberal, asked whether, considering the difficulties which have arisen in

the working of the Arrears of Rent Act, the Government would not introduce a bill extending for three months the time for the payment of arrears due November 1, 1881. Mr. Gladstone replied that it would be difficult to amend the act this session, but the Government would do its best to prevent the benevolent intentions of Parliament from being defeated.

In the House of Commons on Monday Mr. Trevelyan informed Mr. Parnell that the unions in the western part of Ireland had been ordered to relieve the distressed people, and that the Local Government Board had instructed the inspectors to see that the arrangements were sufficient and that the relief measures were not interfered with for the want of funds. Mr. Trevelyan also said that up to the 15th inst. the applications under the Arrears of Rent Act had reached 14,167, and that the Land Commissioners hoped to settle before the 30th inst. all cases lodged prior to November 25. Mr. Courtney informed Mr. Parnell that up to the present time the applications under the Land Act by tenants for loans to improve their holdings numbered 625, of which 310 had been granted, 210 were inadmissible, and the remainder were being investigated.

In the House of Commons on Monday Mr. Gladstone moved the adjournment of the debate on the procedure rules, in redemption of his promise to give Mr. Yorke an opportunity to move the appointment of a select committee to inquire into the so-called Kilmainham treaty. Mr. Labouchere, opposing the motion for adjournment, talked till the close of the session of the House, and on Tuesday Mr. Gladstone refused to allow Mr. Yorke further opportunity for discussing the subject.

On Tuesday the eighth procedure rule relative to the suspension of members was taken up. Mr. Gladstone offered an amendment, which was agreed to, that the term of suspension for a second offence be reduced from a month to a fortnight, and that for a third offence the suspension be for a month instead of for the remainder of the session.

Sir Stafford Northcote will go to the Mediterranean shortly for his health. During his absence the Right Hon. Sir Richard Assheton Cross will act as leader of the Opposition.

Tennyson's new play, "Promise of May," has met with a complete failure in England. The critics agree in condemning it, saying that it is crude in conception, clumsy in structure, weak and often puerile in dialogue, and totally devoid of dramatic quality.

Ten thousand persons attended a meeting of the Irish National League at Tulsk, Ireland, on Monday. Among the speakers were Messrs. Sullivan and O'Kelly, members of Parliament. The latter referred to what he called the efforts of Mr. Davitt to split the Irish party, and said they were tantamount to stabbing Ireland in in the back. He threatened to resign his seat if the country wavered in its allegiance to Mr. Parnell, and advised the farmers to take advantage of the Arrears of Rent Act. Votes of confidence in the speakers were carried.

Patrick Joyce and Patrick Casey, who have been on trial for the murder of the Joyce family in Ireland, have been found guilty and sentenced to be hanged on the 15th of December. The jury deliberated only eight minutes. Joyce heard the verdict calmly, and protested that he was not guilty.

Queen Victoria reviewed the troops which have returned from Egypt in London on Saturday. There were about 5,000 troops in line, but the spectators are said to have exceeded a million. The appearance and demeanor of the troops were excellent. The streets were decorated, and the enthusiasm great. General Wolseley, the Guards, the Indian troops, the Naval Brigade, the Seaforth Highlanders, and the Royal Irish Fusileers were received with the greatest enthusiasm. The Queen presented war medals to two representatives of each regiment.

The health of the troops composing the British Army of Occupation in Egypt is improving, and the average mortality among the 600 sick men is now only one daily, against six last week.

The British Government has declined to entertain the renewed proposal of the Porte for the despatch of Servir Pasha to Egypt as Ottoman Commissioner.

Suleiman Daud was examined before the Prosecution Committee in Cairo on Wednesday. He admitted that he gave the order to fire Alexandria, but alleged that he had received peremptory orders to do so from Arabi, who, when a general conflagration was at first apparent, sent instructions several times to Suleiman to fire more points at a time. Suleiman further alleged that when the Ramleh Palace was surrounded by troops on July 12, Arabi ordered him to murder the Khedive. It is said that Nuri Bey, who commanded the troops surrounding Ramleh, has given evidence corroborating that of Suleiman Daud. According to a despatch from Cairo on Saturday, however, the latter's testimony was generally discredited.

A long affidavit by M. Ninet, formerly Arabi's adviser, has been published. It declares that Arabi endeavored to prevent incendiarism, and protected Christians.

Messrs. Broadley and Napier, Arabi Pasha's counsel, have written to the London *Times* in regard to the trial. They say that the prisoners will prove that the Porte approved their action from first to last; that the Khedive for some time wavered between the retrograde party and the Nationalists, but that he acquiesced in the early phases of the resistance. They also say that they will prove the recent war to have been the most humanely conducted of any in the history of the nation, and that the efforts of the leaders were uniformly directed to secure the safety of person and property.

The Egyptian troops ordered to Sudan have been deserting in such large numbers that, as a measure of precaution, the arms and ammunition required for the expedition are being forwarded separately.

At the opening of the Landtag on Tuesday, the 14th instant, the Emperor William in his speech laid special stress on the necessity for abolishing the four lower grades of class-taxes, which he said pressed harshly upon the lower classes, and for putting a speedy end to the oppressive distraints connected with the levying of this impost. A sacrifice of 7,000,000 marks of revenue would be involved by the adoption of this plan.

The Prussian Minister of Finance made his budget statement in the Diet on Saturday. The deficit, which will be met by a loan, is 31,100,000 marks. The decrease in the revenue caused by the abolition of the lowest grades of class-taxes is to be met by a license tax on the sale of liquor and tobacco.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Saturday a bill ratifying M. de Brazza's Congo treaty was read and received with applause. Urgency was declared for it. M. Roche brought forward his interpellation accusing M. de Freycinet, late President of the Council, of having when in office illegally allotted 50,000 francs to the Archbishop of Algiers, after a motion to grant that amount had been rejected by the Chamber. Minister Fallières explained that the allotment was in repayment of advances made by the Archbishop, who had patriotically promoted French influence in Tunis at a great personal sacrifice. On Tuesday the Congo treaty was ratified.

On Monday, the estimates for the Foreign Office were discussed. M. Duclerc, Minister of Foreign Affairs, opposed the amendment offered by a Radical member for the abolition of the Embassy at the Vatican. The amendment was rejected by a vote of 339 to 171. A proposition was then made that the Ambassador be replaced by a chargé d'affaires. M. Duclerc said that if this motion were carried he should resign. It was rejected by a vote of 339 to 147.

Twenty-five persons, three of whom were foreigners, were arrested in Lyons on Sunday on the charge of being members of an association formed for the purpose of fomenting strikes among workmen, obtaining a general division of property, and destroying sentiments of patriotism among the people.

The French imports during the past ten months, compared with the same period of 1881, show an increase of 75,000,000 francs, and the exports an increase of 175,000,000 francs.

The recommendations of the Conference on Submarine Cables, recently held in Paris, have been published. The principal of them are that wilful damage to cables shall be punishable, and damages recovered by civil action; that fishing-boats and other vessels shall be bound to keep a mile distant from ships laying cables, and that fishing-boats losing gear in endeavoring to avoid cables shall be able to recover against the companies.

A despatch from St. Petersburg says that the students of the University of Kazan, in consequence of the severity of the police regulations, created disorders, and that the University has been closed. In consequence, also, of aggravating orders issued by the Curator of the University of St. Petersburg, an active demonstration of dissatisfaction by the students is anticipated.

A despatch to the London *Daily News* from Berlin says that great importance is attached to the visit of M. de Giers, the Russian Foreign Minister, to Prince Bismarck. It is considered as a fresh proof that Russia is making friendly advances to Germany.

The Secretary of the Russian Embassy at Constantinople has been sent to Rumelia to investigate the causes of disagreement between the Russian Consul-General and the Governor-General of the Province. The latter recently objected to the high-handed demeanor of the Consul-General, and demanded his recall.

The Spanish Ministerial papers say that, while the Ministry are conscious of the importance of the adhesion of the Republican party to the throne, they cannot admit the principle of a reform of the Constitution. The union of Señor Martos and his followers is much discussed by the press. The Ministerial papers affect to doubt the sincerity of the conversion. A semi-official journal states that at a recent Cabinet council the Minister of Finance declared that, despite the exceptional condition of affairs in some provinces, owing to bad crops, the revenue had considerably increased. He said that the financial measures he had introduced had produced very satisfactory results.

A royal decree has been issued, summoning the Spanish Cortes to meet on December 4.

The infant Princess of Spain was baptized in Madrid on Saturday in the presence of the members of the Court, the Spanish Ministers, the representatives of foreign Powers, and deputations from the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. The Empress of Austria was represented by the Queen's mother, as sponsor for the child.

Two imperial decrees have been published in China on the subject of the banishment of the ex-Regent of Corea to Pao-Ting. The first announces the necessity of carrying out the sentence, notwithstanding an appeal for clemency from the King of Corea; and the second acknowledges the receipt of further petitions for mercy from the same source, and recognizes the filial feeling of the King of Corea, but forbids him to renew the topic, while giving permission that a messenger from Corea may visit the ex-Regent once a year to inquire after his health. The Japanese War Department estimates the cost of the preparatory demonstration in the Corean affair at $350,000.

THE GAME OF POLITICS.

THE Boston *Herald* has some very just observations on the badinage exchanged between Governor Long, of Massachusetts, and his successor, General Butler, at a dinner given to them last week, by Mr. Ames, the new Lieutenant-Governor. Governor Long was full of compliments and complimentary jests, which Butler received with a kind of surly humor, that had, we are bound to say, under the circumstances, a good deal of dignity in it. The general effect of the Governor's jokes was, as the *Herald* points out, to make it appear that "the recent hot political campaign was only a game." That is undoubtedly what it was to Butler, but if the people who opposed Butler's election and heaped abuse on him during the canvass should now confess, either directly or indirectly, that they too thought "it was only a game," it would go far to prove that Butler was as good a Governor as Massachusetts deserves—as good as even the minority which voted against him deserves. Butler's plan of campaign is to say whatever comes into his head by way of damaging his opponents. He invents nearly all his facts and figures, and bases on these inventions the most villanous slanders against his rivals and enemies. He has, for instance, accused the State administration of which Governor Long is the head, of the grossest corruption. The Boston Republican papers, too, were filled during the late campaign with stories of Butler's corruption, falsehood, and general baseness, to most of which we believe he has no answer whatever, and which have stood unshaken and indeed unimpeached through twenty years of active service.

Now, we submit respectfully that Massachusetts Republicans, although it is the part of wisdom to accept with a good grace the results of the popular vote, and even to extract wholesome lessons from their defeat, cannot afford to treat their opposition to the victorious candidate as simply a bit of laborious humor. They cannot afford, after conducting a campaign on moral issues, to confess the whole thing to be a grand joke, and chuckle over it with their enemy, and poke him in the ribs. Their seriousness and their morality constitute almost the whole claim of the Republican party on the confidence of the people of the State. They propose nothing in the way of legislation which is better than what the Butlerites offer. If they are not more conscientious, truthful, clean-handed, and public-spirited than Butler and his following, there was no good reason for opposing him.

We hear a good deal nowadays, and we cannot hear too much, of the effect on the rising generation of the spectacle offered by the doings of their elders in politics and in the administration of justice. There is a great cry from the decent people of Missouri about the effect on the boys of the fêting of Frank James, the murderer and robber, which is now going on there, and of the production in the local theatres of a dramatization of the career of Jesse James, his deceased brother. There is no doubt it is all very horrible, and that the boys of that region must be very peculiar if it does not sow the seeds of crime in many of them. But may we not also safely predict that many a Massachusetts boy will suffer irretrievable moral damage, will become a worse citizen and a worse man, from finding that his father's denunciations of the Claimant, as a liar, and falsifier, and bribe-taker, and converter to his own use, either were all campaign gammon, or, if seriously meant, constitute no obstacle to jovial relations with the new Governor, and even furnish material for an interchange of jokes with him? There is an enormous amount of silent education in every canvass. Boys are not corrupted politically by the badness of the Mikes and Barneys and Bens as long as they see their fathers fighting it valiantly. In fact, the spectacle is a lesson in patriotism, and a promoter of high aims. But if, when the struggle is over, they see their fathers hobnobbing with Mike and Barney and Ben, and laughing over their respective lies and charges, does it not give them a little glimpse of the bottomless pit? There is much balderdash talked by politicians about the pernicious influence of the political "cynic" in our day, but could the great Cynic himself desire anything better than such a scene as an aid in destroying reverence for all things human?

THE DEMOCRATS AND THE FINANCES.

THE rock upon which the Democratic party has foundered after every temporary triumph that it has gained in recent years, has been the public finances. It has repeatedly dashed its own fair prospects by proclaiming its intention to pay off the bonds with greenbacks, and to abolish the national banks. It has also held an attitude of "hostility to capital" in general sufficiently pronounced to excite the fears of the well-to-do classes, and to cause them to put forth unwonted exertions in every Presidential election to prevent the party from seizing the Executive power and reaching a position where it might do great mischief.

The Democratic party will control the next House of Representatives. The Senate will stand Republicans 38, Democrats 36, Readjusters 2. The Executive being in the hands of the Republicans, the opportunity to work positive harm will be small, but on the other hand there will be measures of importance requiring affirmative legislation during the next two years upon which a Democratic majority in one branch of Congress can, if so disposed, do a great deal of harm. Before the end of 1883 the Government will, in all probability, have paid off all the three and one-half per cent. bonds, including some $30,000,000 held by the Treasury as security for national-bank circulation. When these are out of the way the three per cents will begin to be drawn in. Nearly $200,000,000 of these are held as security for bank notes. In short, the question of dealing with one of the gravest problems of finance will be forced upon the attention of the next Congress, and its solution one way or the other cannot be avoided, for if it is not met by some legislative action, it will resolve itself. The banks will begin to lose their circulating notes by the withdrawal of their security bonds before the end of next year, and after that time will lose them rapidly. This will be contraction of the currency of an artificial, and therefore disturbing, character. It may be said that the banks can avoid this extremity by buying and depositing four per cent. bonds as the threes are paid off. This will be practically impossible, for the reason that the fours cannot be bought in the open market in sufficient amounts without carrying the premium to a point at which the issuing of bank notes upon them would be unprofitable.

If the Democrats remain true to their recent, though not to their older, traditions, they will embrace this opportunity to destroy the national banks, or allow them to be destroyed, so far as their note issues are concerned, by the progress of events, and to substitute greenbacks in place of them. The Republican party will oppose the latter step upon grounds of impracticability and unconstitutionality; and if both parties stand firm, there will be a deadlock, resulting in contraction. It has been suggested that means may be taken to reduce taxes to a point at which there will be no surplus revenue to redeem the bonds with. This policy would imply a permanent national debt—a policy which the people would not and ought not to tolerate. It is plain to any observer of the current of public opinion that the nearer we come to seeing the end of the debt, the more determined are the people to see the end of it. No party, in our judgment, could safely put itself on the platform of an everlasting national debt. The Democratic party, with all its proneness to blunder, is not likely to make that particular blunder.

To devise a plan by which national-bank notes shall be made secure, even after the bonds are paid off, is not by any means an impossibility, but it is likely to prove a grand puzzle to a Democratic Congress. To them it will seem the shortest way of dealing with the question to double the present issue of greenbacks. But the Government will have no use for these greenbacks except to pay its own debts, and it will have no debts to pay till 1891, when the 4½ per cent. bonds mature. Even if we should allow that the plan were constitutional, it would be pernicious in the last degree.

Another plan, short and mischievous, but not so bad as the greenback plan, would be to repeal the tax on State-bank notes. We need not recount the evils that would follow the reintroduction of that system, since all persons whose recollection goes back to the ante-war period can easily recall them. Nevertheless, the old system is still popular in the South, and a movement to revive it would probably receive the bulk of the votes of that region. But the Northern Democrats and all the Republicans may be counted on to oppose and prevent it.

It behooves the leaders of the Democratic party (for there are some among them who understand these questions, and have already discerned the responsibilities imposed upon them by the late elections) to make the best use of their time from now until the meeting of the next Congress. They have a perplexing problem to deal with, and a hard road to travel, when we consider the character of their following. Something they must do. A misstep, leading to monetary pressure before the Presidential election, would bring upon them overwhelming defeat. Failure to take any

step would equally lead to disturbance of business, and equally bring the party to disaster.

SKIRMISHING FUNDS.

THE Investigating Committee of the subscribers to the Irish Skirmishing Fund have made a very depressing report to their constituents, which we cordially commend to the attention of the subscribers to Hubbell's Skirmishing Fund. They have discovered, it seems, that the two rams now lying unfinished at Jersey City, which were supposed to be intended for the destruction of the British fleet, were really intended "as a blind to deceive the subscribers into the belief that something was being done to carry out the skirmishing idea." This one item cost the Skirmishers $36,390. But the Trustees did not confine themselves to rams as "blinds." They also used funerals for this purpose, and spent $2,030 on that of the late John O'Mahoney, Esq., which they tried to convert into a "national demonstration." Of course, the only way to spend money on a funeral is to give it to the mourners. The days are long past when people put money or goods into the coffins of deceased heroes to comfort them in the spirit-land. It is to be presumed, therefore, that O'Mahoney's mourners had their sorrow to some extent assuaged by the skirmishing idea. We regret to discover, also, that $2,000 of the fund was used to "purchase or subsidize the *Scottish Highlander*." The Scotch press has hitherto been considered exceptionally pure, and ever since the escape of the Pretender, in 1745, the Scotch Highlanders have been considered proof against pecuniary temptation. If Mr. John Murdoch, therefore, allowed the *Scottish Highlander* to be subsidized by the Irish branch of the Gael family, he has done a great wrong. That O'Donovan Rossa should have got $1,331 for salary as secretary will cause no surprise. In fact, we think his "scoop" has been exceedingly moderate for a person of his expensive tastes.

The most enjoyable part of the report is that relating to the expenditures of one of the Trustees, Mr. John Devoy. This gentleman appears to have secretly abandoned the "skirmishing idea," and to have resolved on what the report calls a "Parliamentary programme," which seems to have had only one feature—viz., the election of James O'Kelly, Esq., to the House of Commons. To bring this about, Mr Devoy started for Ireland himself, at a cost to the fund of $6,000, and gave James O'Kelly, Esq., $10,000 for the expenses of his election, and gave "J. O—— — " $1,000 for making a "favorable report" on his (Devoy's) own doings, and laid out $5,000 in "trying to get control of the *Irishman*" newspaper in Dublin. The sole result of these very costly operations was that James O'Kelly, Esq., was elected, and is now James O'Kelly, Esq., M. P., and yet the House of Commons exists, and sits, and Ireland is not free.

We pass over without notice a very painful passage in the report about the conversion of registered into coupon bonds, with a view to sale, by two of the unscrupulous Trustees, through the negligence of the other five. Suffice it to say that $53,000 of the fund has, according to the report, been squandered, without any result whatever beyond the presence of James O'Kelly, Esq., aforesaid, in the British Parliament. What interests us most is the fact that this unhappy state of things has in no way shaken the faith of the Committee in "the skirmishing plan as the simplest and most efficient mode of warfare the Irish people can adopt in their fight against England." "If carried out in good faith," they say, "there can be no doubt that it will result in freeing Ireland from English rule." History is full of the attempts of oppressed peoples to get rid of a foreign yoke or overthrow domestic tyranny by force of arms. In all books on military science these attempts are fully discussed, and all the schemes that have occurred to the acutest minds to enable down-trodden peoples to overcome the difficulties created by the want of an organized government and army have been fully set forth. In none of them, however, is any mention made of the "skirmishing plan," so that it must be original with the Trustees of this fund, and must be a weapon of extraordinary power, and very cheap. The Committee, of course, do not reveal what it is; but whatever it be, it is plainly a new political force, which, if successful, will soon change the face of the modern world. If Ireland can be skirmished out of the clutches of England by an outlay of $100,000 or $200,000, of course skirmishing will soon begin all over the globe. The Turks will be skirmished out of Europe, the Austrians out of Bosnia, the British out of Egypt and India, and the Russians out of Central Asia.

The accounts of the Irish skirmishers having been laid bare, it would seem as if those of the officers of the American skirmishers, headed by Jay Hubbell and John F. Smyth, ought now to undergo some sort of audit or examination. If these worthies had carried the election (or, as the Irish would say, had succeeded in "freeing Ireland from British rule"), of course there would be no troublesome inquiries as to what they had done with the half million or thereabouts which they got from the Government clerks. But as matters stand there are loud calls from every quarter for an accounting. People want to know where Hubbell's rams are, and how much Smyth spent on the election of *his* James O'Kelly, Esq., and on the funeral of his John O'Mahoney, Esq., and the corruption of his John Murdoch. But there is as yet no sign of any revelations on the subject. The *Tribune* sent a reporter on Saturday to several members of the State Committee, but failed to get any information on the subject. The active members, Smyth, Sharpe, Wheeler, and Johnson, appear to have left town immediately after the defeat, and have not reappeared. Hubbell is buried in the forests of Michigan. One member of the Committee, who has been trying to find out something, says that in this State "more than half the counties were given neither money nor advice." Several thousand dollars were spent on lithographic pictures of candidates, not including those of Mr. Howard Carroll, which were not circulated, thus leaving the voters in ignorance of his majestic countenance. The Skirmishers' own hotel bill was $2,000, which, however, is much less than Devoy's travelling expenses, and no report is made, or to be made, to the Committee. "The checks and books are destroyed, and that is all there is of it. The party has to trust to the honesty of Smyth & Co." Hubbell's operations are buried in equal mystery. Most of his money is said to have gone to the South to skirmish the Bourbons. In short, there is much reason to fear that if an account were rendered, it would in many respects outdo the Irish report as a revelation of rascality; and it would, considering the kind of constituency on which Hubbell and Smyth levy, be a far more painful one. Americans have not the same excuse as Irishmen for allowing themselves to be made the victims of imposture.

THE POLITICAL ROMANCE OF 1848.

DR. GOTTFRIED KINKEL, who died on the 15th inst. at Zurich, in Switzerland, was one of the truest and most conspicuous representatives of the romantic tendency which characterized the revolutionary outbreak in Germany in 1848. The Germans, previous to that period, were not at all a political people. With the exception of one or two of the smaller principalities, which had representative assemblies and something like freedom of debate in them, the affairs of government were managed exclusively by the kings and princes and their ministers, and the bureaucracy acting under their orders. The people, standing outside of the charmed circle, had to be satisfied with what public criticism a vigilant press censorship permitted; but they were entirely debarred from that experience which is acquired only by practical participation in the management of public concerns. There was a strong yearning for political freedom and national unity pervading the educated classes, and an indefinite feeling that in the course of time great events were sure to happen. There was also an abundance of bitterness and wrath against the stolid intolerance of the pressure from above accumulating in many hearts, and now and then some local attempts at revolutionary organization and action; but these were easily suppressed. The movement, if it may so be called, remained essentially a literary one. Students occupied their minds with the history of governments, and formed their theories of what ought to be; poets sang the glories of the past and the praises of liberty, and some also, who had their verses published outside of Germany, hurled their bolts of anger or satire at the crowned heads and their minions. But while this kind of literature exercised a growing influence in sharpening popular discontent with the existing state of things, and inflamed the desire for a change, it cannot be said to have given the German people a political education of a practical nature.

At last the revolutionary spirit which broke out in France in February, 1848, dethroning Louis Philippe and putting a republican government in his place, swept like a hurricane over the whole European continent. A sudden impulse brought forth popular uprisings everywhere, and the absolute governments, ut-

terly taken by surprise, yielded to the wave of revolution after a short struggle. The spirit of the movement in Germany was not a vindictive, it was an essentially enthusiastic, one. It stopped short of the thrones; it effected the removal of the principal feudal burdens which rested upon the people, and good-naturedly applauded the fair promises, as to political liberty and the introduction of free institutions, made by the princes, and then put the work of the political organization of Germany into the hands of a National Parliament at Frankfort, an assembly of unusual learning and ability, in which the professors and other eloquent men occupied about a year in ventilating their theories of constitutional government. The princes in the meantime took breath again, made sure of their organized strength, recovered their old ground step by step, dispersed the National Parliament, repudiated the constitution it had made, and sought to restore as much as possible of the old order of things. Then in 1849 new uprisings took place against the reaction, which were also beaten down, not without bloodshed. But, though it miscarried, the revolutionary movement of 1848 in Germany was by no means in vain. It was the beginning of that political schooling of which the German people stood so much in need ; it strengthened the bonds of national cohesion; it quickened political aspirations, and it prepared the popular mind, as well as the Governments', for those great events which have made Germany once more a powerful empire.

The revolution of 1848 itself was animated with so essentially an idealistic spirit just because the soberness of experience was wanting. It naturally carried away with it the educated youth of the country. The universities were burning with patriotic fire and an enthusiasm of the most unselfish and devoted kind. Thousands upon thousands of young men threw themselves into the revolutionary current without a moment's thought of what might become of them if the great ideal cause succeeded or if it failed, and so they poured out their blood and laid down their lives. It was this spirit which seized upon Kinkel, who was then a professor extraordinary at the University of Bonn, lecturing on the history of art and literature. He was a poet of note ; of an artistic nature, also, ardent and impatient of restraint. He was an orator of wonderful fertility of imagination and power of expression. His lectures were sought by many for the musical beauty of his utterances. His popular harangues attracted large and admiring audiences wherever his voice was heard. Being, in addition to all this, a man of stalwart stature and commanding mien, he was the very picture of a popular leader. He preached advanced democratic ideas, and his political programme fairly represented the romantic indefiniteness of the whole revolutionary movement. When the reaction came, he left his professorship, his wife and children, and, gun in hand, fought as a private soldier in the insurrectionary army of Baden. In one of the engagements he was wounded and taken, and then sentenced to imprisonment for life, put into a penitentiary, clothed in a convict's garb, and forced to spin wool—the mere thought of which touched every heart in Germany. Then he was brought from the penitentiary to be tried at Cologne for an attempt upon an arsenal, in which he had taken part—an offence not covered by the sentence already passed on him. The court was thronged with spectators and with soldiers. He defended himself. Before he had closed his speech, which was like a poem, the judges, the jury, the spectators, the soldiers, the very gendarmes by his side, were melting in tears. His wife stood outside the bar, forbidden to approach him; but when in the agony of grief he called out to her to come to him, the soldiers involuntarily stepped aside to let her rush into his arms. It was as if all Germany had looked on and wept with those who were in the court-room. Then he was taken back to the penitentiary and set to wool-spinning again, until in November, 1850, some friends aided him in escaping. Again the popular heart was stirred in its poetic sympathies. His whole public career was like the most romantic episode of a romantic time—a fair representative of the spirit of those days, their heroic devotion to an ideal, and their indefiniteness of aim. And it may be regarded as an equally significant feature of the time, that after he had escaped from prison and for some time taken part in political schemes which never led to acts, such as are characteristic of the first years of the exile's life, he resumed his academic activity as his only occupation, and refrained from all participation in the political movements of Germany when things began to take a definite and practical turn not in accord with his ideals.

THE TEMPER OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

LONDON, November 5, 1882.

ECCLESIASTICAL affairs have, during the last few years, come less than usual into the sphere of political conflict. People have been too much absorbed, first, by questions of foreign policy, then by the disorders of Ireland, to give attention to domestic affairs. The Nonconformists have by the reform of the Burial Laws obtained a redress of their most pressing grievance with regard to the churchyards; and they have not yet opened, although they are now preparing to do so, their campaign against the existence of a State Church. There has been, altogether, a cessation of Parliamentary hostilities on questions concerning the Anglican Establishment, though no doubt it is merely a truce, and by no means a peace likely to continue. But the course of ecclesiastical history has not, meanwhile, stopped. If not the most externally prominent, it is one of the most interesting sides of our national annals, and deserves to be occasionally described to those who are interested in the social, and intellectual, and moral life of the English people.

Three recent events have been significant, as indicating the changes passing on the temper of the Church of England. The first of these is the death of Dr. Pusey, famous as the man who for a time seemed to lead, and even gave his name to, that remarkable movement toward Roman Catholic doctrine and ritual which so profoundly affected the religious thought of the Anglican Church. People now ask how it happened that the adherents of that movement should ever have been called Puseyites, a title which is now disused and replaced by that of Tractarians or Ritualists. He was not an original thinker ; had nothing very profound or penetrating about his mind ; was not known as the proclaimer of any new truths in the sphere of religion. Neither was he an eloquent or impassioned advocate, able to set forth old truths in a way that brought them home to men's hearts and consciences. Neither, again, was he one of those who dominate others by mere force of character, a lofty and vivid soul, whose convictions burnt themselves into the memory of the men who gathered around him. As a thinker, a writer, and a preacher, he stood immeasurably below Dr. Newman; he contributed far less to the diffusion of his own views than did John Keble; and he was probably inferior to many others whose names are hardly remembered by the younger generation of churchmen. Yet it was he and not Dr. Newman, much less Keble, whom the outer world fixed upon as the head of the new school; and he continued down till his death in extreme old age a few weeks ago to be regarded with deep veneration by the more advanced section of the High Church party.

The explanation is to be sought partly in the accidents of his position, but partly also in certain really remarkable qualities of character. When the Tractarian movement began, Pusey was already a Canon of Christ Church and Professor of Hebrew in the University of Oxford. He occupied a conspicuous and honorable position, which gave a definite weight to his utterances. He was also a man of birth and social position, belonging to one of the oldest families in Berkshire—a family which possesses an ancient horn alleged to have been given to their ancestors by King Alfred. England was far less democratic fifty years ago than she is now; and it made some difference whether opinions were associated with the name of one who held a dignified and lucrative post in a great university, and himself belonged to the best county society, or came from one who had nothing but eloquence to recommend him. Thus Dr. Pusey took a place in the early days of Tractarianism which his merely personal gifts would hardly have won for him. He could not, however, have retained it without some considerable gifts. His was an eminently English mind, a mind rather practical than imaginative, political than speculative. But in its way it was a strong mind. He had enough learning and judgment to be able to speak with sufficient knowledge, and debate with sufficient force, about theological questions, as well as upon those questions of Biblical interpretation which immediately belonged to his professorial chair. Without being a great Hebrew scholar of the modern type, he was a very fair and sound scholar of the older type. His theology was not profoundly philosophical, but it was definite and consistent. He knew what he meant and thought; and, having once made up his mind, he never afterward wavered. While others of his school drifted on into the Church of Rome, or fell away back into scepticism, he maintained throughout a long life the same position which he had taken up comparatively early, holding most of the doctrines of the Church of Rome, but refusing certain developments, and declining to recognize what he thought the extreme pretensions of the Pope.

The same tenacity showed itself in practical matters. He was a keen and active ecclesiastical politician, not only in the affairs of the Church at large, but also in those of his University and his college ; and for a long time was the leading influence in both. That influence was secured partly by his skill as a tactician, but still more by his firm and constant will, and by the unwearied industry which he bestowed on every detail. Nothing was too small for him; no personal consideration deterred him from fighting every point which he thought im-

portant and bringing all the resources of his knowledge and his ingenuity to bear upon it. These powers were guided by a very high and conscientious spirit. Earnest on behalf of what he thought the cause of faith, he never sought anything for himself, and owed much of his weight to his obvious unselfishness. If he was not unworldly in his choice of means, he was so in the ends he sought. His own time and strength—a very remarkable physical strength—were consecrated to the service of religion, and his own life entirely absorbed in religious study and work. The "note" of his sermons, and that which made them impressive in spite of a somewhat heavy style and a monotonous delivery, was the intensity of conviction and the earnest religious fervor which breathed through them, and this quality was no doubt a principal cause of the personal influence he exercised. It made him for many years a sort of oracle of his party, to whom men came and wrote, seeking counsel in their speculative or practical difficulties. He was not a conspicuously genial man, nor had he a specially acute and flexible judgment, such as confessors ought to have. But he had fixed and definite principles, of whose truth he was perfectly satisfied, a great store of ecclesiastical learning, and, above all, the deep religious spirit which could care for and strive to help the religious efforts of others.

For a long time Dr. Pusey was regarded by a large part of England with the utmost horror, as a man doing the Pope's work and bringing confusion and dissension into the English Church. Even in his own university he was once forbidden for a time to preach. Of late years he had withdrawn more and more into seclusion, leaving the guidance of the High Church party to younger men. Age softens animosities; and of course no one expected that when he passed away his career would be criticised as sharply as if he had died at fifty, when the movement was still a new thing. The remarkable thing is—and I mention it as an indication of the altered temper of English ecclesiastics—that from every quarter, except the organ of a small and extreme section of the Low Church party, there was a chorus of praise and sympathy. No man in the Church of England had been so much associated with the Romeward movement, or incurred more unpopularity on that account; yet all this seemed to be forgotten, and we heard only of his learning and his piety. There could be no better proof of the extent to which the Ritualist party has made good its position in the Church of England, and the greater tolerance with which divergences of theological opinion are now regarded. The first alarm that Dr. Pusey and his friends were going to send a large part of the nation to Rome has passed away, and people are ashamed of having ever entertained it. Conversions do still occasionally occur, and, as they occur mostly in the ranks of the aristocracy, they attract some notice, and excite some slight regret. But it is clear that no large defection is to be looked for; the extremest High Churchmen find themselves quite happy in the Church of England, where they enjoy a freedom of criticising and even disregarding their ecclesiastical superiors which would be denied them in the Church of Rome.

Everybody now acknowledges heartily and gratefully how much good the High Church movement has in some directions wrought: how much more decorous are the services of the Episcopal Church, how much better the music, how much handsomer the edifices; how many zealous clergymen of this school are laboring among the poor in our great cities, spending themselves with a self-sacrifice undreamed of fifty years ago. The English have, more than most nations, a disposition to acquiesce in accomplished facts, and to believe that when any doctrine or school has established itself it must have had a solid *raison d'être*, and ought not to be interfered with. Hence the change of tone toward the Ritualists, the disposition to tolerate even the disobedience to constituted authority which some of them practise. It would be impossible now to pass the Public Worship Regulation Act which was passed in 1874; and the sympathy felt for Mr. Green, the clergyman who has been committed to prison for refusing to obey the court which directed him to discontinue certain practices in public worship to which he was conscientiously attached, is by no means confined to those extreme Ritualists who share his opinions. Thus it has happened that Dr. Pusey, from being the suspected and hated leader of a new party, has become accepted as an ornament of the whole Church of England, whose piety may be celebrated without any expression of sympathy for his doctrines.

Since his death we have had another indication of the same tendency to tolerant views and a pacific policy. Some twenty years ago an annual gathering of members of the Established Church was created under the title of the Church Congress. The ancient constitutional assemblies of the Anglican Church are, of course, the two Convocations of the provinces of Canterbury and York, bodies which do meet, and have of late years regained something of their old prominence, although their powers are extremely limited and their proceedings watched with much jealousy. But these bodies are no longer really representative. They consist of clergymen only, the laity being quite unrepresented, and the ordinary clergy are in them unfairly subordinated to the higher dignitaries. Consequently some more popular outlet for the zeal and activity of members of the Church of England was needed, and this was found in the holding of this annual gathering, at which everybody who likes may appear and join in discussing questions of current interest. It is a good instance of the tendency of human society to develop institutions which suit its needs. The old Convocations, with their dignified historical associations and their recognized legal position, are now practically less important than this new assembly, which is nothing more than a large public meeting continued over several days, but in which the actual opinion and sentiment of a large ecclesiastical body finds a voice. Well, this Church Congress has been hitherto distinguished not only by the zeal but by the violence of those who frequent it. Bitter invectives of the High Churchmen against their Low Church persecutors and against the jurisdiction of lay judges in ecclesiastical matters, angry collisions not only between Low Churchmen and High Churchmen, but between both and the Broad Church or heterodox clergy, who occasionally joined in the mêlée—were frequent during its earlier years. The High Church party, as being that which has the keenest interest in all ecclesiastical affairs, generally came off victorious, and gave a High Church character to the Congress as a whole. But in the last few years there has been a visible change. Broad Churchmen and Evangelicals recognize the value of the Congress, and use it more than they formerly did. The High Churchmen are more temperate and conciliatory. And now, at the meeting of this last October, there was, together with some warm discussion, a general convergence of sentiment, a feeling of friendliness between the three great parties, a sense of unity underlying their divergences, which strikingly contrasts with the tone of earlier years. It is not that the old controversies have disappeared or are on their way to disappearing; it is rather that each section of the Church has learnt by experience that it cannot extinguish the other, either by the aid of the law or by mere clamor and denunciation. The Ritualists have made good their position in one direction, the Latitudinarians in another; and there is no use in treating them with the same impatience which was felt while they were still new and ungauged forces. And the Ritualists themselves, just because they feel themselves stronger in numbers and influence, are less disposed to intemperance of language, or, at any rate, are better able to control it when they meet those who belong to different schools.

So far I have spoken only of parties within the Church of England. But we witnessed, about a fortnight ago, an incident which showed that the moderation or tolerance of sentiment extends even beyond its limits. The Congregationalist Union, the annual gathering of that great Nonconformist body which calls itself Congregationalist or Independent, met this year in the ancient city of Bristol. It was there welcomed by the Dean of that city and a large number of the Anglican clergy, who sent to their "nonconforming brethren" an address full of friendly sentiments, to which the Congregationalists responded in an equally genial strain. This may seem the most natural thing in the world to Americans accustomed to a system of religious as well as political equality. But it caused some sensation here, and not without reason, for it would not have happened twenty, or even ten, years ago. It is a testimony not only to the growth of democratic feeling, but also to a changed view of the position of Christianity and the duties of the Christian Church as a whole. It is now felt that in the presence of an aggressive scepticism which denies the foundations even of theism, minor differences as to doctrine have become insignificant, and that those who agree in holding the existence of a deity and a future life and the mission of Christ, whatever varieties of opinion they may have as to the nature of that mission and the organization by which its work was to be subsequently maintained, may properly regard themselves as being all allied against common opponents. This feeling found decided expression even at the Church Congress; and there is also a growing sense of the duty of all Christian churches to grapple with the physical as well as the moral evils of society. The crusade against intemperance has united Christians of all denominations in a way never seen before. The Church of England clergy have gone almost beyond the limits of sound judgment in their anxiety to sympathize with and adopt whatever can be thought practically useful in the methods of the Salvation Army. Much more, therefore, do the wiser among them feel the necessity of cultivating greater friendliness with the old nonconforming bodies. The matter is one of so much interest that I hope to return to it in a subsequent letter. Y.

BISMARCK AT FRANKFORT.

BERLIN, October 31, 1882.

THE third and last volume of the work, 'Prussia in the Federal Diet,' is just about to be published. The Cologne *Gazette*, and after it a great many other papers, devote dozens of columns to extracts from the book. It contains 200 more official despatches and confidential notes than the first two volumes. All the documents collected here were written by Bismarck during the last three years of his residence in Frankfort—viz., from May, 1856, to May, 1859, or until his promotion to the St. Petersburg embassy. In personal interest and political gossip, and in the discussion of important state questions, this volume is of even greater value than

its predecessors, and especially surpasses them in details of diplomatic life and contemporary history. The most interesting document which it contains is the so-called "Little Book" of March 14, 1858, under which title it has for years been known in the initiated circles of German diplomacy. Written for the purpose of giving some practical hints to his successor, Count Usedom, Bismarck specifies here his ideas on the German Confederation, and the tasks of Prussian policy in regard to Austrian presumption and arrogance, and sums up his views as to how the then chaos of German political complications should be turned to good for Prussia and for all Germany. It is hardly possible to give you more than these outlines of the memorial. Its terse language, its sharp points, and keen analysis can scarcely be reproduced in a translation, wherefore the book, if possible, should be read in the original. Never have I seen so bitter and at the same time so just a criticism on Austria and its traditional policy toward Prussia and the smaller German States. I can, however, not refrain from translating at least the introductory pages of the "Little Book," which will summarily explain to you the origin of the Prussian-Austrian antagonism and of the subsequent war.

"Up to the year 1848," Bismarck begins, "the German Confederation, whatever the theoretical claims that may have been made for it, was in reality only treated as a protective union of the German governments against war and revolution. Austria at that time generally granted Prussian policy in Germany full freedom, and in return demanded Prussia's help in European matters. In Germany the Vienna Cabinet only sought to restrict Prussia's scope as far as possible. For this purpose the sphere of the business of the Confederacy was limited to few and relatively unimportant affairs, but the veto right and the independence of the several governments were carefully fostered, and matters on which Austria and Prussia differed were never discussed *in pleno*. A difference of opinion of the two Powers will hardly ever be found in the minutes, and an open quarrel between the two representatives during the sessions was unheard of, and was avoided on every account as being pernicious to the existence of the Confederacy. And rather, also, than force the smaller governments of the Confederacy by a majority vote, treaties were carried on with them for years if the small governments were not suspected of favoring liberal endeavors. The idea of bringing important differences of opinion to a decision by a majority vote was so little thought of, that the Vienna Cabinet left the representation of its interests to the Prussian Ambassador, watching him through the Saxon Ambassador, and only sent its own delegate to Frankfort at long intervals. The management of the Presidency by Prussia, and the long undisturbed union of both Cabinets respecting the affairs of the Confederacy, greatly helped to establish the superiority of the Presidency in the Confederacy after its reinstatement.

"In the year 1851 the negotiations of the Diet show a totally different aspect. Prince Schwarzenberg took up the plan of gaining for Austria, by the means which the existing constitution of the Confederacy offered, the hegemony of Germany, which Prussia had not succeeded in attaining by the constituent assemblies and its attempts at unification. The plan was natural, since the inner organization of Austria had taken a direction which could only continue successful by keeping company with Germany and strengthening the relatively few German elements of the Empire. The carrying out of the plan was possible if Austria could win over the majority of the Confederacy, and could enlarge its competency and the majority votes, and if Prussia was not strong and energetic enough to offer a successful resistance. The circumstances greatly favored such a conception. Austria, with her intimate relations with Russia, could count on the latter's help in her German policy, and had formed such connections with the new Emperor of France as, toward the end of Prince Schwarzenberg's life, gave cause to apprehend a close alliance of the three Emperors in opposition to Prussia and England.

"The great majority of German governments, terrified by the Revolution and the dangers arising from it, were afraid of losing a part of their sovereignty to Prussia, and therefore willingly sided with Austria. The latter was authorized to appoint the delegates of the different governments, without an exception, for the Diet of 1850, who are nearly all still serving; and took care to select such men as were closely connected with Austria's interests by their past and their personal relations. Austria could feel sure of the majority of the Diet for a long time. The recollection of the events from 1848-1850 had awakened a fear of Prussia's supremacy, founded on the geographical situation of the Confederate States with reference to Prussia. And the jealousy with which the other petty sovereigns watch the two centuries' growth of the Prussian dynasty works in the same way as the fear of Prussian aggrandizement at their expense. Austria possessed means, which were solely at her command, to cherish and stimulate such feelings.

"In the first line stand the personal relations of nearly all the prominent and influential men of Southern and Northern Germany. Old custom draws the nobility of the Southern and Middle States into the Austrian service. At home the opportunities for a career are too small and narrow, while in Austria the conditions are easier to fulfil than in any other of the Confederate States. Austria readily favors these dispositions. As soon as the relatives of a public functionary, be he minister or ambassador, are old enough to choose a profession, they find themselves surrounded by Austrian enlisters, offering them brilliant promises; and it happens that young men of sixteen years, who have never seen a regiment, receive an officer's commission without ever having asked for it. When once established in Austria they serve as a pledge for the devotion of their fathers, and, besides, for keeping up Austria's connections with the courts where their relatives are employed. Among the ambassadors of the Confederacy those of Saxony, Darmstadt, Nassau, Brunswick, and of those petty princes who together have sixteen votes, are more closely connected with Austria by family relations than with their own governments, and serve Austria in every way in all their official actions, particularly by partial reports.

"Where such relations do not exist, Austria tries every means to create them. She rewards her friends with the same energy with which she tries to destroy and push aside her enemies. It suffices for an ambassador boldly to carry out the instructions of his Government, without due consideration for Austria, to call down persecution upon him. He is treated impolitely; he is irritated; everything is sought for that can be brought forward against him to undermine his position with his own Government. A few years ago the Ambassador of Nassau was made subservient by the bad treatment of his sons, serving in the Austrian army; later, the delegate of Würtemberg was so tantalized by repeated attacks and complaints at Stuttgart that he did not again dare to encounter Austria's displeasure. Lazy and timid people do not easily forget all the trouble it cost them to refute the charges brought against them to their Government. At the present moment the Hanoverian Deputy is the object of similar persecution; and although Herr von Heimbruch only executes the orders of his Government, and as yet is protected by it, because it feels the injustice of the Austrian proceeding, it is nevertheless easy to foresee that he will be sacrificed to the susceptibility of Austria, and the other ambassadors will again see how perilous it is to work as an instrument of the home Government against Austria. If such an ambassador cannot be put aside because he is protected by his Minister, the Vienna Cabinet attacks the Minister himself, and tries to hinder him from acting independently and from serving his own King. Austria sides with whatever opposition there is in the country: with every rival. She supports all malcontents, even the Minister's subordinates, and the well-known secrecy of Austrian intrigues enables many to participate in alliances which come very near to treason. If Austria puts all the persons devoted to her into action, she can easily circulate calumnies against a Minister at his own court, and she even tries to employ the private correspondence of the princely families for this purpose. Moreover, in all German States the Vienna Cabinet has at its disposal the expedients of the different political leaders of the Catholic Church.

"By her industry and her high rate of interest Austria more than balances the uncertainty of her State debts in relation to those of Prussia. Hereby she attains two advantages. In the first place, the want of home means is made good by foreign capital, and then, above all, every possessor of Austrian State securities becomes a political adherent of Austria in the same measure as his fortune depends on her success and the credit ensuing to her therefrom. The administrators of the Frankfort money establishments intrusted with the payment of the Austrian interest can amply testify as to how far this basis of Austrian sympathies goes, since the trustees, on account of this high rate of interest, invest many a private princely fortune in Métalliques or Government loans."

When Bismarck wrote these characteristic sketches he occupied a relatively subordinate position, and it required great moral courage to send them not only to his superior, but also to a great admirer of the Austrian policy. Gradually, however, Von Manteuffel yielded to his ambassador's cool judgment and clear discernment, and was even grateful to him for his sagacious councils; but the vacillating Cabinet of the weak Frederick William IV., and afterward the so-called "Ministry of the New Era," under the Prince Regent, did not dare to act accordingly. They were subaltern characters, and when, as in 1859, it came to the point, they hesitated to follow the directions of a superior mind, and lost a golden opportunity. It was thus left to Bismarck himself to carry out his own ideas with "blood and iron," while he laughed at the impotent idea of his predecessors in office, of attempting so-called "moral conquests" in Germany. They in their turn never fully trusted him. What, however, twenty or twenty-five years ago, was considered by a great many people the vague dream of a political adventurer, has ever since 1864 been, and still is, the settled policy of Germany.

How Bismarck grew with his higher aims and ends, how, shortly after Frankfort, he made his influence felt in St. Petersburg and Paris, can of course not be printed for the present, as such a publication would not be in accordance with diplomatic customs and etiquette; but, whatever may be published hereafter, the outlines of the character and importance of this "serious man" are perfectly drawn in the present work, and allow an exhaustive judgment on the extraordinary services which from the beginning of his official career he has rendered to Prussia and to the accomplishment of German unity. Bismarck proved himself to be much more than a merely able and lucky statesman. He not only knew how to realize the gains of three wars, but he will also stand in history as the real author and instigator of them—as the pathfinder of a policy which was settled in his mind long before the smallest sign of hostility had shown itself, and which long before was developed by him in official documents with a clearness and moderation that made any aberration from the right way impossible. As every man of genius distinguishes himself from mere talent by the fact that he finds hosts of men eager to assist him, and circumstances propitious to his aims, so Bismarck found everything waiting for him to commence and triumphantly carry out his ideas. Other German patriots had the same impulses and tendencies, and were prepared to risk and sacrifice everything for their realization, but their views were less definite, their plans somewhat nebulous, and their means rather scanty. Bismarck alone calculated with realities, created them when he wanted them, and himself paved the road to his success. It is the great merit of the present work that it proves these facts by new, rich, and irrefutable documentary history. + + +

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN HEIR ABROAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While fully sympathizing with the "American heir abroad" on the difficulty of obtaining what he and his namesakes believe to be their own, I cannot help commenting on the

strange ideas of the writer who has taken up the cause which they seem to have themselves abandoned.

To an Englishman, there is something almost as ludicrous in the suggestion that the clew to the Hedges difficulty is the political corruption of the Lord Chancellors in successive governments, as the remark of this evening's paper that "the English have been for years supplying the Democrats with money, in order to break the back of Protection." But, to an American who has formed his ideas of political morality from what he naïvely calls "the entire publicity of his own simple system," it may seem natural to transfer the familiar picture to England. For this reason, and because of the high position held by the *Nation*, I think it necessary to answer an article which is merely the betrayal of a pardonable ignorance.

To begin with, the writer is not aware that the Bank of England, though founded by the State, is now, as much as any other bank, independent of Government control, and has not the slightest need for the smiles of any political party.

Again, the idea that under any circumstances whatever, the deposited money of private owners, known or unknown, could be utilized for political jobbery, is preposterous. Even if within the bounds of legality, the crushing power of a public opinion, which unfortunately has no parallel here, and still more the argus-eyed intelligence of the Opposition, would damn the career of any minister who hinted at such dishonesty.

What little money is expended for political purposes, such as elections, is provided by the candidates themselves, or by the Liberal and Conservative private clubs; and whenever this use of perhaps a few thousand dollars comes to light, it usually ends, as in the case after the last elections, at Oxford and other towns, in the disfranchisement of the borough and a general outcry against the wire-pullers. So far from it being possible for any public money to be expended in party purposes, every member of Parliament is compelled to post the personal expenses of his election within a month of his return. The "extraordinary secrecy which surrounds the use of money in English politics," is not surprising when there is no secret to keep and only a few thousands pounds expended!

But while giving the lie to such naïve suspicions against the character of men like Lords Selborne and Cairns, and of Liberal and Conservative Governments, I fully admit the idiocy and vexation of the proceedings of the Court of Chancery. Perhaps, as a descendant of the famous claimant who figures as Jarndyce in 'Bleak House,' I shall not be accused of partiality for the court. The most antiquated and cumbrous forms cling like barnacles around that rotten hulk, and the best explanation of the Hedges case is perhaps the proverb about those who get their heads in a certain undignified position. Another case, within my own experience, may also throw some light upon this. My own grandfather was the undoubted heir to a very large London property, but feeling sure that to try and make good his claim would only be throwing good money after bad, he wisely tore up his documents and washed his hands of the whole business. The lawyers, who saw that they had lost the chance of a constant source of income, begged the American branch of my family to take the question up. They, too, wisely refused. The inference is that the Hedges family were the victims of these professional men, who live by hunting out heirs for the millions of unclaimed property lying in the Bank of England, and trying to make good claims which they know will cost enormous sums to maintain.

The writer of the article admits that nothing has been heard of the matter since the heirs (note the *plural*) sent over to possess themselves of the property it was "said" the Chancellor had pronounced to be theirs. Surely, if the Hedges had so nearly secured these many millions, they would not so silently have let go their grasp.

The writer in the *Nation* cares more for a chance of an unkind cut at the British Lion than the Hedges family for $5,000,000,000!

I remain yours respectfully,

HAMLET STANLEY PHILPOT, M.A.,
Trin. Coll. Oxon.

[Our correspondent must convince the Heirs of all these things, and they are a very incredulous body. We fear his account of the high character of the Lord Chancellor and the independence of the Bank of England will not weigh with them against the fact that they never get a cent of their money. As for ourselves, we are so much concerned by the facility with which he has fallen a victim to what we supposed was a very broad joke, that we are willing to atone by believing everything he says. We admit that the Lord Chancellor has no access to the deposits in the Bank of England, and concede that the Bank is honestly managed, and that Mr. Gladstone is not permitted to use the balances for stock speculation or electioneering, and that the Governors send over no money to the Democrats in this country. We will now confess, too, that we have some acquaintance with the history of the Bank, and the Acts of Parliament which regulate its working.—ED. NATION.]

RESPECT FOR LIFE AT THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Though to the manner born and bred, I must acknowledge the truth of your reply to W. J. M.'s criticism, in your issue of the 9th, upon your article "The Influence of Homicide on Southern Progress," October 26th. In mentioning, however, the Harrall case at Selma, Ala., are you not in error in saying, "Yet this cowardly savage was an ex-officer of the Confederate Navy"? The Jones who was killed in this horrible affair—a highly cultivated, peaceable, and modest gentleman—was Catesby Ap R. Jones, ex-officer of the United States Navy, Executive Officer of the *Merrimac*, and in command during her engagement with the *Monitor*, March 9th, 1882. I was not aware of the fact that the "cowardly savage," Harrall, was also an ex-officer of the Confederate Navy. EX.

RICHMOND, VA., November 13, 1882.

[Our correspondent is right.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Respect for your high-toned journal induces me to appeal to your sense of justice. Recognizing the elevated motives that seem to inspire your columns on most subjects, we in this region are amazed at the charges they so frequently contain against our moral principles and sentiments. We concur in your abhorrence of the bloody scenes so often enacted in our Southern communities, and, if you were more cautious in your statements, we would gladly second your praiseworthy efforts to abate the evil. But you have so far transcended the limits of truth, under a misapprehension of the condition of society in these States, that a respectful protest becomes a solemn duty to ourselves. It is unnecessary to quote your language, which lies before us, because you are too candid to deny its purport. You have several times of late insisted that indifference to human life is a characteristic of our society; you represent our people as growing up and living under the constant expectation of being involved in murder, and in the general habit of carrying arms for the purpose of committing it. According to your hideous misrepresentation, manslaughter is familiar to our observation, and the crime is admired by many and lightly excused by the rest of our people. I do not pretend to use your words, but am sure that I have not overstated your meaning.

Now, in the name of truth and justice, I must insist that, in such charges of a general disregard of the sixth commandment, you have unintentionally trespassed against another commandment: "Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor." Let me remind you that this country contains a large percentage of professed Christians and an immense number of outsiders under Christian influence. Among these manslaughter is as rare as in any Christian community on earth. A portion of our people—much smaller than you imagine—is decidedly irreligious. A small fraction of this class worship a false conception of *honor* as their highest aim; and a few hundreds of this class make no scruple in slaying one another in open combat. The small class professing to be men of *honor* carry deadly weapons, and some few others, who fear collision with them, do the same in self-defence. You have no conception of the contempt that is generally felt toward these men of *honor*. They are the habitués of drinking-saloons, the vulgar and blustering demagogues at our court-houses, the lewd youth, the reckless gamblers of the towns, the scoffers at all law, human and divine. You are quite right in condemning us as a people for *tolerating* such characters as much as we do. Our best citizens refuse to hold office in these times, and hence you will find many desperadoes in our Legislatures and in our halls of justice. This is the cause of the impunity enjoyed by so many criminals, whose friends and money rescue them too often from merited punishment.

But how do these admitted facts justify your charges against our people at large? From the circumstance that a few homicides here and there escape justice, you jump to the conclusion, which all charity forbids, that our population generally adopts the false sentiment of *honor* to which I have referred, and is disposed to excuse the murderer, because the most of us are prepared to commit murder ourselves. You ought to reflect that when good men generally refuse to hold political office, the administration of justice must often fall into unreliable hands. We are in fault, but the fault does not consist in a heartless disregard for human life. It is rather because a general disgust leaves our politics and government too frequently in the hands of the worst class of our society. Desperadoes are the Southern men you hear of through the press, but they are not representative of our character as a people.

I am sorry to charge you with exaggeration, but your imagination has led you sorely astray. The outrages to which you refer are few and far between. You might as well represent the yellow fever as a constant endemic disease in these States as to fasten the charge of lawlessness upon the Southern people. Millions of them never saw a bloody affray in their lives. Death by such means is a thing unheard of in almost all our rural communities, and the same may be said of hundreds of our towns and villages. I solemnly believe that, except in a few localities, life is nowhere safer than in most of these

States. When you state that "all the best portion of the male population goes armed" in a Southern community, and fail to specify the community to which you refer, leaving the impression that it is general, you recklessly, but I doubt not ignorantly, inflict upon us an injury which can never be repaired. I have lived here all my life, and never yet knew or heard of any community where this state of things existed, except perhaps in Texas in former times. I know of none now where the "best" portion of the male inhabitants go armed. There are a few places where the "worst" men do so, but they are too remote to be known.

You evidently abhor wrong, and this has been my warrant for addressing you. It will be creditable, and consistent with your general tone, if you will modify your language concerning us. This is not an *unsafe* country. Your people coming into our midst *unarmed* would be as free from danger as at home. Nothing is regarded here by all classes as more disgraceful than shedding the blood of the defenceless. An unprotected man can traverse the country freely without the slightest apprehension of insult or assault. Secret assassination, as you well know, is as uncommon here as it is in your own best communities. SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been a diligent reader of the *Nation* for almost a decade, and, apart from the sound and sensible views of government advocated, each number is to me a source of true enjoyment, inasmuch as in "the struggle for existence" in this Western country it is about all I read that connects the busy, active life of the present with the student life of the past. A Southerner born and bred, I can stand without flinching your criticisms of the Southern people and Southern civilization, even when they take the form of ridicule, provided always they are based on facts; but your statement in a late number that it is the custom of the best people at the South to carry arms, shows such an unjustifiable ignorance of the subject that I think it right to call your attention to it. Of the thirty-two years of my life, thirty have been spent in different Southern communities, from the Atlantic seaboard to the Rio Grande, and I can assert most positively that it is not the custom for any class of people distinctively Southern to carry arms.

Readily acknowledging that the Southern people do not stand "in the foremost ranks of time," I believe intelligent foreign criticism—as yours is, to all intents and purposes—is wholesome for us; and I wish the *Nation* was more generally read at the South, especially by the young men. If our idols must be broken, be it by moral rather than by physical force; less rude will be the shock, far less tragic the transformation. Yet I cannot see what good such statements as the above can accomplish. A picture thus overdrawn is clearly somewhat akin to the *terra incognita* myths of centuries ago.

Very respectfully, W. L. WHITAKER.

CHIHUAHUA, MEXICO, Nov. 13, 1882.

[Our correspondent, "South," who, it is no indiscretion to mention, is a clergyman, and whose remonstrances we desire to treat with the utmost respect, seems to have read our articles on this subject with the haste due perhaps to a sense of wrong. We have not said that life was unsafe at the South from secret assassins or from robbers. On the contrary, we admit freely that a stranger may travel all over that section unarmed with as great security as in any country in the world. We have ourselves tried the experiment in worse times than these. Nor have we said or insinuated that there is not at the South a large body of quiet, religious, upright people, to whom bloodshed is as repulsive as to anybody at the North. What we have said, and we now repeat, is, what our correspondent substantially admits, that homicide goes unpunished; and we maintain that, as the result of this impunity, there has been infused into the great mass of the population a readiness to think of killing as a mode of settling a dispute, which makes life everywhere insecure. We have not designated any portion of the South as specially insecure, because we find that these business or social homicides occur everywhere—in Virginia, in South Carolina, in Georgia and Mississippi, as well as in Texas. Every mail brings us the news of one or more, and we never hear of one being punished. In fact, the biographical sketches of the slain which one finds in the Southern papers almost always reveal the fact that either he or the slayer had already killed a man or two before engaging in their last fray. We deny emphatically that only "a few homicides here and there escape justice." Redfield's 'Homicide Contrasted, North and South,' published in 1878, the statistics of which were carefully collected, and have never, to our knowledge, been assailed, revealed the awful fact that there were in the States of Texas, Kentucky, and South Carolina, in 1878, 734 homicides, besides 522 persons wounded with shots or stabs, and the author estimates that there have been 40,000 homicides at the South since the war. There were more homicides in Kentucky in that year than in the eight States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and Minnesota, with an aggregate population of ten millions. In the same year there were more in South Carolina than in eight Northern States with a population of six millions. In fact, the case as stated in that volume, as the result of careful investigation, is one of the most appalling stories of modern civilization.

Nor are these homicides the work of low desperadoes, the haunters of bar-rooms and gambling-houses. The cases which we have ourselves been collecting for some time past, and which reach us every week, not only occur in all parts of the South, but they occur in the more peaceable and respectable circles of society, as the result of ordinary business or social quarrels. People are killed in the street, in the court-room, on the high road, about an account, or a contract, or a lawsuit, or a love affair, about chickens, or a horse—about things, in short, which enter into every man's life, and which no settler at the South can keep clear of. Of punishment we never hear. If our correspondent can forward reports of any cases in which a manslayer has been hanged for a business or social murder we shall gladly publish them. In Pennsylvania, a few years ago, the Molly Maguires began to commit this kind of murders, but the police were put on their track and hunted them down till twenty were hanged in two years. The truth is—and we say it with deep regret—that the unconsciousness of men like "South" of the spectacle which Southern society presents to the civilized world to-day under the head of homicide, is one of the very bad symptoms of the time. Several Southern newspapers have acknowledged the justice and truth of our remarks. But confession and lamentation are not enough. There must be a rising against the manslayer on the part of what is best in Southern society. The young must be taught to abhor bloodshed, to reverence human life, to put away the revolver and shotgun, and to appeal to the law for protection against violence; and juries must be taught to see in the murderer, not a vindicator of his "honor," or a poor fellow in trouble, but a wild animal, an enemy of the human race, to be hunted down, and strung up after a fair but short trial. Southern society covers one of the fairest regions on earth. Nobody can deny the great capacity of its people. Everything that is good in the modern world is within their reach, if they will only get rid of this awful stain and misfortune, this "primal eldest curse," which puts them in the category of semi-barbarous states.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

OUR surmise that the designs for the beautiful folio edition of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., were enlarged from those which Mr. Darley had made for the modest edition of 1866, was unfounded, as a note from the publishers assures us. They are wholly new. We spoke under correction.

Late this month A. C. Armstrong & Son will publish Mr. Charles Loring Brace's 'Gesta Christi,' already announced in these columns.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert publish immediately 'The House that Jill Built (after Jack's had Proved a Failure),' by E. C. Gardner, with illustrations by the author; 'The Still-Hunter,' by Theodore S. Van Dyke; and 'The Problem of the Poor,' by Helen Campbell.

Under the title, 'Charles Darwin,' Macmillan & Co. have reprinted from *Nature* the brief but striking memorial notices which followed, in that journal, the great naturalist's death. Prof. Huxley furnishes the introduction, and is followed by G. J. Romanes—"Life and Character"; Archibald Geikie—"Work in Geology"; W. T. Thiselton Dyer—"Work in Botany"; G. J. Romanes—"Work in Zoölogy" and "Work in Psychology." Jeens's perhaps unrivalled engraving of Darwin is revived as a frontispiece for this little volume.

The "Scientific Worthies" series, by the way, to which the above portrait belongs, is continued in *Nature* of Oct. 26 with one of James Prescott Joule, the demonstrator of the mechanical equivalent of heat. An interesting biographical sketch of Joule accompanies the likeness.

An urgent appeal is made by Prof. C. E. Norton, President of the Archæological Institute of America, for help in raising the sum of $2,500 to continue the explorations at Assos. Their suspension is imminent.

The original and altogether admirable 'Handbook in Outline of the Political History of England,' by Mr. A. H. Dyke Acland and Prof. Cyril Ransome (London: Rivingtons; New York: T. Whittaker), has been condensed by its author into a sort of primer, called 'A Skeleton Outline of the History of England.' The parallel "Foreign and Colonial" column, as such, is suppressed, but occasional insertions are made from it in the English column. As this

epitome has all the merits of proportion and accuracy which distinguish the larger work, it may be confidently adopted by teachers of our intermediate schools as a most useful help in instruction.

Clubs formed for the purpose of study during the winter months would do well to examine Miss Kate Sanborn's "Round-Table Series" of Literature Lessons (Osgood). These are twenty-five in number, covering the whole field of English literature, from "Pre-Chaucerian literature" to the "Laureates," each card having one central figure about which are grouped the other names of the same series. There is an abundance of suggestive questions and of references —the last, we think, too numerous for common classes: they seem to aim at being exhaustive, and yet the first card omits two such important works as Skene's 'Celtic Scotland' and Grant Allen's 'Anglo-Saxon Britain.'

In deference to the growth of culinary æstheticism, Susan Anna Brown's 'Book of Forty Puddings' (Scribner) puts on a holiday garb; but both Bridget and her mistress would have been better off with an index than with the ten sauces thrown in.

'Sketches from *Texas Siftings*' one might profitably consult, it would appear, for the natural history of that remote source of continental humor. There are chapters or sections, illustrated with pen-drawings, on the razor-back hog, the Texas cow, the red ant, the pelon dog, the cayote, the horned frog, the Texas mustang, the tumble-bug, the chaparral cock, etc.; while others treat of human nature partly peculiar to Texas, but mostly of a too common variety, like the drummer, the conductor, the hotel-clerk, the reckless local reporter, etc., whom we have always with us. The designs are hardly up to the level of those in 'Hood's Own.' The humor is *sui generis*.

Parts 11-13 of 'American Etchings' (*Art Interchange* Publishing Co.) give the customary single specimen of three exceptionally good artists—Mr. Stephen Parrish's "Sunset—Gloucester Harbor," looking landward, and therefore sunward, upon a crowd of sails; Mr. J. Henry Hill's "Roadway near Nyack Turnpike"; and Mr. Thomas Moran's "Three-Mile Harbor, L. I."

President Gilman's seventh annual report of the progress of the Johns Hopkins University embraces in its review the past six years, and is full of interesting particulars concerning the several departments. The chemical laboratory is being enlarged, and a new building, to be entirely devoted to the study of biology, has been begun; there is pressing need of an adequate physical laboratory. Dr. Brooks, of the marine laboratory, whose investigation of the reproduction of the oyster has qualified him to seek for the causes of the ravages in the Chesapeake oyster-beds, has been accordingly placed on the State Oyster Commission. Important results are anticipated from Dr. Martin's method of keeping alive the heart of a warm-blooded animal after the death of the rest of the organism. The German citizens of Baltimore are about to present the Library with Bluntschli's library.

The third annual report of the Treasurer and Secretary of the "Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women" (by professors and other instructors of Harvard College) indicates, by its title, that the movement behind the "Annex" has at last got a State charter, with power to hold land and buildings, and "to transfer the whole or any part of its funds or property" to the College whenever the union may fittingly take place. It is now hoped an endowment fund will soon become a reality. From the report we learn that out of fifty-five courses offered during the past year, only twenty-eight were given, as being demanded. The cost of tuition for a full course is two hundred dollars—nearly twice that of the highest at similar institutions. While the health of the students has been good, too few of them were disposed to improve the opportunity of systematic exercise under the director of the Gymnasium. Applications for teachers who have been instructed at the Annex have begun to come in to the Secretary.

We have received from the University of California its *Library Bulletin* No. 3, "Catalogue of the Library presented by Henry D. Bacon," and No. 4, "Catalogue of the Bacon Art Gallery," a double record of public spirit worthily manifested.

The Boston Public Library's *Bulletin* No. 63 begins a list of Franklin's works (*a*) as owned by the Library, (*b*) as not owned and desired. One remarks translations, in whole or in part, into French, German, Dutch, Swedish, Spanish, Italian, and Greek. The next *Bulletin* will deal similarly with Frankliniana, and a subsequent number with books and other publications printed or published by Franklin. The Library's Franklin collection has now taken a fine start, thanks to the generosity of the Mayor of Boston. Mr. Wendell Phillips, too, has made a significant addition to the anti-slavery collection.

A trial bibliography of English translations of La Rochefoucauld is printed by Mr. A. Granger Hutt in the November number of the *Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton). The earliest-named bears date of 1685. Under the head of "Correspondence," an auctioneer's catalogue is quoted for a delicious error whose occurrence had been predicted in a previous issue: "Lot 282, Sir Noel Paton's Illustrations, Shelley's *Prometheus*, unbound, 12 plates. N.D."

Two pamphlets have been prepared by Serg. John P. Finley, of the U. S. Signal Corps, one being a clear and scientific description of tornadoes, preceded by a number of valuable definitions, and the other a long list of questions to be voluntarily answered by persons who may witness or live near a tornado.

We have also received, from Fowler & Wells, a pamphlet with the rather pronounced title, "How to be Weather-Wise; or, a New View of our Weather System," by Mr. Isaac P. Noyes. Why the author claims newness for his view is not made evident. What he does is to describe in a rather interesting way the freaks of movement of areas of low pressure. He perhaps thinks that a few minutes devoted to the U. S. weather-maps will make a person more weather-wise than years of unaided personal observation. His article is very unscientific—in fact, crude—and contains nothing which is not already well known to those who read the "probabilities."

The current *Bollettino* of the Italian African Society of Naples discusses, or rather presents, the Congo Question as now debated by France, Belgium, and Portugal, and more particularly by Stanley and M. de Brazza. While Stanley has been working away at the main stream, and building roads around the cataracts, De Brazza has entered at the back door, so to speak. Ascending the Ogoway from Gaboon, he finds a comparatively low carry between the headwaters of that stream and the Alima and Licona, two navigable rivers heretofore conjectured and now determined by M. de Brazza to be affluents of the Congo, giving access to its middle and upper course. Of the intervening region he acquires eminent domain for France by "treaty" with King Makoko (Sept. 10, 1880), and then scuds home, with Stanley after him as in pursuit of a trespasser. Meantime, Portugal puts in a prior claim. In the same number of the *Bollettino*, G. Buonomo describes with appropriate fervor the vast career open in Africa to the *insolatore* Pifre—a contrivance for utilizing the sun's rays in distilling water, making ice, boiling an egg, and roasting a joint. There are, it seems, portable *insolatori di carovane*.

A new convenience has been added to life in Paris—an office to which subscribers who do not care to receive their letters at home, to be scrutinized by a *concierge*, a *bonne*, or a husband, can have their letters addressed. Boxes are at the moderate price of 4 francs a month, 10 francs a quarter, 30 francs a year. This is not dear, for a prodigal son or an unfaithful wife. But suppose that husband and wife should both hire boxes at the same office, and some time should meet there. Here is a *motif* of which we make a free gift to Gaboriau or Fortuné.

Later than ever this year comes the 'Almanach des Spectacles,' one of the most beautifully printed little books sent forth even by M. Jouaust (New York: F. W. Christern). It is the eighth of the new annual series, and contains the statistics of the Parisian play-houses during last year, with lists of the plays acted and of the members of each company. As usual, there is an obituary record and a bibliographic list—unfortunately incomplete. The frontispiece is, as before, a portrait of the latest associate of the Comédie-Française—a striking full-length figure of Mlle. Lloyd, etched by M. Lalauze.

The latest American additions to the "Tauchnitz Series" are Mr. Bret Harte's 'Flip, and Other Stories,' Mark Twain's 'Stolen White Elephant,' and the anonymous novel, 'Democracy,' which has afforded our British friends much amusement of late. This selection goes to show that the editor of the "Tauchnitz Series" is still governed in his choice of American books by the taste of readers in Great Britain. The American contingent is less than ten per cent. of the whole series, although the percentage has rapidly increased in a few years.

Koolman's 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (Norden: Braams) reaches, in the sixteenth part, the word *püt-water*. Numerous words have a special interest for English readers, like *pit* (kernel), *planter*, *plank*(*e*), *plâster*, etc. A familiar English simile is repeated in the phrase "so plat as 'n pankôk"; and the old wail of the husbandman who plants for posterity has the homely form: "Is de-bôm grôt, is de planter dôd."

Last week occurred the phenomenon which the Signal Service once called the November Atmospheric Wave—an era which instantly substitutes icy winter for the Indian summer. The change reached the Plains on Monday morning (Nov. 13), the Mississippi Valley on Monday night, and the Atlantic Coast on Tuesday.

—The average civilian, not to speak of the critic or caviller, who decries the standing army, will find unexpected information in 'A Record of Engagements with Hostile Indians,' lately compiled at General Sheridan's headquarters. Sheridan's military division embraces more than a million square miles of territory, stretching from the British to the Mexican line, and inhabited by about 175,000 Indians. During the last fifteen years, more than 1,000 officers and enlisted men have been killed or wounded in the 400 and odd armed collisions of which this Record is, in great part, a mere chronological list. It takes no account of the Division of the Pacific, whose eastern boundary is about 115° west longitude, and whose tale would run in much the same fashion. A few of these actions attracted public notice when they occurred, as, Custer's victory on the Washita and his defeat on the Little Big Horn, the Nez-Percé surrender on the Upper Missouri, and Thornburgh's fight in Colorado; but the most of the work has been done without observation and without special

comment. There is little holiday time on the Plains for the United States soldier in time of presumed peace; and whoever may be responsible for the occasion, men of all degree are exposed to frequent privation and peril endured by no other army except in the extremity of declared war. Passages like these show one form of hardship: "The mercurial thermometer failed to register the intensity of the cold"; "after a march of nearly 200 miles through deep snow, with the thermometer ranging from 10° to 35° below zero"; "a march of about 600 miles in the coldest weather known for years in the always severe climate of that region [Montana]"; "although the weather was bitter cold, the thermometer 18° below zero, with blinding snow-storms raging, the column pressed on." There is very little romance and much rugged reality in the work of the American trooper, and it is not surprising if some recruits develop a distaste for it that overcomes their fidelity.

—The Governing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens held its semi-annual meeting on November 17, in this city. The following members were present: Professors J. W. White, of Harvard (chairman); L. R. Packard, of Yale; B. L. Gildersleeve, of Johns Hopkins; A. Harkness, of Brown; H. Drisler, of Columbia; W. M. Sloane, of Princeton, and Messrs. F. J. de Peyster and T. W. Ludlow, of New York. The committee increased its membership to fourteen by the addition of Professors Tyler, of Amherst, and Van Benschoten, of Wesleyan, and invited Professor Packard to accept the Directorship of the School for the second year, to succeed Professor Goodwin. Letters were read from Professor Goodwin announcing his arrival in Athens toward the end of September, and the immediate beginning of the activity of the School, to which much courtesy has been extended by the authorities and by the people of Athens. Mr. Goodwin has hired for the School a convenient house on the Boulevard which skirts the Palace gardens. The position is an excellent one, the ground being so high that the rear windows command a splendid view, over the city, of the Saronic Gulf and Ægina. The building has been furnished at the expense of the School, and ample accommodation is afforded for the meetings and work of its students and for its library. Professor Goodwin selected, this summer, in England and Germany an excellent working library to start with, for which he expended more than $1,000. This will be added to and kept up to date. The School opens with six students in attendance, namely: J. R. Wheeler and F. E. Woodruff, of the University of Vermont; H. Fowler and P. Shorey, of Harvard; J. R. S. Sterrett, of the University of Virginia, and F. H. Taylor, of Wesleyan University. Several of these students have studied after graduation, or have already taken higher degrees, at Harvard, at Johns Hopkins, or various German universities. The prospect of a satisfactory number of applications for membership in ensuing years is good. A subcommittee was appointed to report at the next meeting, which will take place in Boston in May, upon the publication of the Bulletin of the School. This the Committee hopes to begin next year. The income of the School for the present year will amount to $2,500, of which the greater part has been paid in already to the Treasurer. It is expected that the University of Virginia will join at once the nine colleges already pledged to support the scheme, and that Williams, the University of California, Dartmouth, Cornell, and Union will join next year. From other colleges which have been addressed by the Committee no answer has been as yet received. It is, however, safe to estimate the resources of the School, after this year, at at least $3,000 per annum. While it is desirable that the School should own its building in Athens, and that a generous endowment should be obtained in time to place the institution upon a permanent footing, the Committee is in a position to say that the existence of the School under the present arrangement is secured for a number of years to come, and that its promise of usefulness is high. The union of so many of our chief institutions of learning to bring about an object destined to benefit not only themselves, but the classical scholarship of the whole country, is a significant manifestation of the growth of the true university spirit on this side of the Atlantic. It must not be forgotten that the whole credit of devising this project, and of carrying it into execution, belongs to the Archæological Institute of America.

—The scientific world has met with a severe loss by the death on Monday of Prof. Henry Draper, son of the late Prof. John W. Draper, at the early age of forty-five. A mind so keen and vigorous and ingenious, and a hand so cunning, must have had many triumphs in reserve for the interval between middle life and the allotted term of man. From his father he received a thorough training in medicine and in chemistry, and a natural predilection for astronomy. He became a practising physician in connection with Bellevue Hospital, a professor of physiology in the University of the City of New York, a teacher also of chemistry; and at the age of twenty-three, on his return from Europe, he began the construction of a 15½-inch reflecting telescope, which enabled him to take a 50-inch photograph of the moon. To celestial photography, indeed, he devoted himself with remarkable assiduity and success, and among his achievements in this direction were photographs of the nebula of Orion (1880) and of the spectra of more than a hundred stars. His management of the photographic observation of the transit of Venus in 1874 obtained for him a gold medal from Congress. In 1877 he discovered the presence of oxygen in the sun—his greatest distinction. More recently, stimulated by the new interest in electricity as a source of light, he had ardently joined the host of experimenters, for which his admirably equipped private laboratory in his city home furnished him opportunity, as his private observatory at Hastings did for his astronomical researches. Professor Draper's ample means were employed without ostentation in the interest of pure science. Socially, he was a most entertaining and genial companion, and on this account also his departure will be greatly lamented.

—Mr. Ingleby having suggested that the late Mr. Darwin's letter to a Jena student, referring to his religious beliefs, was mispunctuated in the German translation first published in the *Rundschau*, Professor Haeckel replies, in the *Academy* of November 4, that this is not the case. Mr. Darwin's own words were as follows:

"Down, Beckenham, Kent, June 5, 1879.
"To Nicholas Baron Mengden:
"Dear Sir: I am much engaged, an old man and out of health, and I cannot spare time to answer your question fully — provided it can be answered. Science has nothing to do with Christ, except in so far as the habit of scientific research makes a man cautious in admitting evidence. For myself I do not believe that there ever has been any Revelation. As for a future life, every man must judge for himself between conflicting vague probabilities.—Wishing you happiness, I remain, dear sir, yours faithfully,
"Charles Darwin."

This letter Professor Haeckel had forwarded to the London *Nature*, together with his lecture on "Die Naturanschauung von Darwin, Goethe und Lamarck"; but the latter only was printed. This peculiar proceeding reminds one of the first German edition of the 'Origin of Species,' in which the translator suppressed the brief reference to the descent of man. The *Academy* also contains this note:

"In the *National Reformer* for October 29, 1882, is the account of a visit paid to Darwin in the autumn of last year by Dr. Ludwig Büchner and Mr. Aveling. Darwin is there reported as having said: 'I am with you in thought, but I should prefer the word "agnostic" to the word "atheist." . . . . I never gave up Christianity until I was forty years of age'—and in reply to a question why he had given up Christianity: 'It is not supported by evidence.'"

—The *Academy* brings a communication by George Dennis confirmatory of the accuracy of an interesting statement of Herodotus (iii., 60). The Greek historian, speaking of three wonderful works executed by the Samians, places the following foremost: "A tunnel through a mountain 150 fathoms high, cut from the base upward, with openings at both ends. The length of the tunnel is seven stadia, the height and width eight feet each. Through its entire length is dug another channel, twenty cubits deep and three feet wide, in which the water of a copious spring is conveyed through pipes to the city." Some attempts at discovering this aqueduct were made many years ago, but with uncertain success, the identification being far from convincing. But, a few months ago, a Samian priest, by unearthing some stone slabs at the depth of about six feet, disclosed a channel sunk in the rock, half-way up the mountain-side on which the ancient city was built. He followed the course of the channel, by opening pits at short intervals, to the base of the rocky height at the west end of the city. "On clearing away the debris at this spot, it was found that the channel penetrated the hillside in a tunnel, the mouth of which was a narrow passage, just high and wide enough for a man to pass through, paved with slabs, flanked by masonry of small polygons, and roofed overhead by the leaning-to of the upper blocks on each side." Mr. Dennis, in a hurried visit to Samos shortly after, repaired to the spot, and on passing through the opening in the mountain found himself, after a few paces, in a much wider passage, roughly hewn in the rock, and about eight feet high and wide—the dimensions stated by Herodotus. Through the centre of this tunnel was sunk a narrow channel, barely three feet wide, and, as the traveller was told by his guide, ten metres deep, which closely corresponds to the twenty cubits of Herodotus. He was also informed that the tunnel ran thus through the heart of the mountain for 1,270 metres, expanding at the further end into a spacious chamber. This length of 1,270 metres differs from the seven stadia of the historian only by about thirty yards. The height of the mountain pierced by the tunnel is given in the Admiralty Chart No. 1530 at 747 feet, which also agrees tolerably well with the round 900 of Herodotus, whose measurement was undoubtedly based only on sight. "As there is no water in the narrow channel nowadays, and no traces of the spring within the tunnel, it probably communicated with open channels in the mountain slope through which water from the heights to the north or east was conveyed through the tunnel to the city on the south of the range."

—At the thirty-sixth meeting of the philologians of Germany, which was held in the prosaic town of Karlsruhe, Sept. 27 to 30, the learned body was saluted after the approved German fashion by a *Festschrift* prepared for the occasion by the philological professors of Heidelberg, one of the two universities of Baden. The studies thus presented are mostly of interest beyond the narrower philological circle for which they were intended. So any one who has kept Greek

enough to read easy apophthegms may spend a pleasant half-hour in looking through the collection which Prof. Curt Wachsmuth has published here after a Vienna MS., in maintenance of his thesis that there once existed a vast alphabetical *corpus apophthegmatum*. To be sure, the chief amusement in examining such a collection is the recognition of every-day friends under Greek names, the jokes of yesterday's newspaper or last night's farce coming up in a Greek garb, often much the worse for wear. So long as men are what they are, they will always feel a certain satisfaction in observing plagiarisms, and even in these few pages some shameless appropriations will be noticed. The mother of the Gracchi, for instance, may be thought to have a prescriptive right to her jewels, but if we turn to these apophthegms we find that Cornelia has been dealing in paste these nineteen hundred years and more. Hundreds and thousands of girls have been christened Cornelia on the strength of the Roman anecdote, and now it turns out that the wife of Phocion made the same remark about her husband ; and Olympias said the same thing of Alexander. Schöll's detailed discussion of Pseudo-Plutarch's Alexandrian Proverbs will interest specialists only; but Uhlig's contributions to the restoration of the oldest compendium of grammar, which goes under the name of Dionysius Thrax, will attract the attention of all who care to follow the curious history of grammatical study. Prof. Zangemeister has given us an account of the *periochæ* of Livy, from which it appears that they were based, as Orosius was based, on the epitome, and not on Livy himself. There is something comforting in this, as when a servant tells us that a plate was broken six months ago : a manuscript said to have been burned up by Omar is not half so great a sorrow as a manuscript that disappears in the Renaissance ; and if Orosius had no Livy, we can console ourselves with what is left of the great historian. In the last article, Von Duhn expresses his fear that archæologists have not yet wholly emancipated themselves from the habit of looking for illustrations of Greek poetry, and nothing but illustrations of Greek poetry, in the numerous vases that have come down to us, and tries to show by a specimen in the Würzburg collection that the legend of Phineus was a popular, not merely a literary, myth, and that the Würzburg representation of it goes back to a period prior to the literary form of the story of the Argonauts. Heidelberg is a delightful *Musensitz* (which is not nearly so affected an expression as "abode of the Muses" would be in English), and those who have kind memories of the place will be glad to see this indication of its new and vigorous philological life.

—The word *stipulatio* (contract by question and answer) is a good example of the superiority of comparative etymology and comparative archæology over the study either of the language or the customs of any nation by itself. The Romans, who were necessarily confined to the latter method, were divided on the derivation. Varro and Festus connect it with *stips*, a piece of money, though money played no part in the act of stipulation, and was not necessarily used in the result. In fact, this suggestion belongs to that style of etymology in which any word can be deduced from any other word provided they contain several letters in common. Justinian, in the Institutes, and Julius Paulus trace it to an adjective *stipulus*, which they assert the ancients used for firm. As there is no other record of this adjective, it is not unlikely that it was invented for the occasion ; and the possible connection with *stipo*, to cram, to compress, far from confirming its existence, seems rather to cast doubt upon it because it may have suggested the invention. Isidorus, however, gives what we believe to have been the true explanation. The early Romans, he says, when they made a solemn promise, broke a *stipula*, straw, cornstalk, and joining the parts together acknowledged the agreement. Now, if there were no nation known but the Romans, this bit of antiquarianism might be supposed to rest on no better basis than Varro's philology, so that judgment would have to be entered "neither party." As late as 1879 we find Professors Lewis and Short's edition of Andrews's Freund giving the preference to the derivation from the apocryphal *stipulus*. But the case is entirely altered if the inquiry is broadened a little. The strong tendency among primitive races to accompany every formal communication with a visible act is a commonplace of sociological archæology: witness the *confarreatio* among the Romans themselves. A sanction of gifts, sales, and pledging exactly similar to the rite recorded by Isidorus is found preserved among the Franks, Bavarians, and Alemanni in the phrases "mit mund und halm," "mit mund, hand, und halm." Where *halm* corresponds to the breaking of the *stipula*, *hand* points to a Frankish "There's my hand upon it," and *mund* corresponds to the *interrogatio et responsio*, "Spondesne? Spondeo," which was all that in Justinian's time was left of the early ceremony of contract. This, which one may find in Grimm's 'Wörterbuch,' is almost conclusive; but the question is put beyond the reach of doubt by the discovery of Dr. Warren, of Dort, that there are traces of a similar custom in India.

—The modern interest in the history of religion has led to the study of the worship paid to natural objects, animate and inanimate. Of this class of works only a quarter of a century ago Bœttticher's 'Baumkultus der Helenen' was almost a solitary example ; but lately Italy has given us De Gubernatis's 'Zoölogical Mythology' and his 'Mythologie des Plantes'; England, Brown's 'Unicorn'; and France, Rolland's 'Faune populaire de la France,' just completed. Somewhat similarly, the increased attention paid to dialects has led to recording popular names of animals and plants, mostly in scattered articles in periodicals. William Turner's curious 'Names of Herbes,' first published in 1548, and reprinted this year by Trübner, is a proof of the interest in this matter; John Smith's 'Dictionary of Popular Names of Plants,' though undertaken with a different purpose, will assist investigations; and Mr. Satchell is engaged on a glossary of fish-names for the Dialect Society. In France, we see, the National Horticultural Society have offered two gold and two silver medals for the best work on the names of plants in the French patois.

—"If I were threatened with seeing all my works burned except one score, I should decide in favor of the 'Messe des Morts,'" wrote Berlioz to a friend in 1867, two years before his death. In a letter dated 1837 he describes the effect of his "Requiem" on a Paris audience. One person wept for a quarter of an hour after the performance, and another, a chorister, was seized with a nervous attack. "Vraiment c'était d'une horrible grandeur." Congratulatory letters were sent to him by Victor Hugo, Rubini, Legouvé, and many artists, sculptors, musicians, and authors. In his autobiography he says: "How often, at the performance of my 'Requiem,' has there not stood by the side of a trembling listener, convulsed to the very depths of his soul, another who opened his ears wide without hearing anything. That man resembled the inquisitive people who go up into the statue of St. Charles Borromeo at Como, and who are greatly surprised on being told that the *room* in which they have just sat down is inside the *head* of the saint." These citations reveal, better than anything else could, the leading aim and characteristic of Berlioz's compositions, which is the vast, colossal, overwhelming, terrible, architectural, in music. No artist probably ever had such an unbounded ambition and imagination as he, and had the source of his ideas been as inexhaustible as his skill in inventing striking devices for expressing himself, he would have been one of the greatest artists of all times. Here, however, was his weak point, and one cannot help wishing he had adopted the method so common among literary men of taking a collaborator who might have supplied him with material to be elaborated and embellished with his rich and varied orchestral combinations. As he failed to do so, we cannot help admitting the correctness of Wagner's remark, that Berlioz is the true saviour of the world of absolute music, because "he has made it possible for a musician to take the most inartistic and inane tone-material and make it wonderfully effective by the unprecedented use of the most varied but purely mechanical expedients."

—Many of the movements of Berlioz's "Messe des Morts," which was produced Thursday evening by the Oratorio Society at the Academy of Music, bear witness to the truth of this criticism. There is very little besides beautiful instrumentation in the "Requiem," "Quid sum Miser," "Lacrymosa," "Offertorium," "Hostias," and "Agnus Dei"—in six numbers out of ten. The other four are interesting in different ways. The "Sanctus" begins with a lovely melody for tenor, taken up subsequently by the female chorus, and is musically by far the most significant number. The solo was admirably sung by Signor Ravelli, except that he was occasionally obliged to force a high note unpleasantly. The "Quærens Me" is an unaccompanied vocal sextet of great beauty. In the "Hostias" the accompaniment consists of flutes and trombones alone—a peculiarly weird and hollow combination. But the most remarkable number is the "Dies Iræ," in which Berlioz employs, besides the chorus and regular orchestra, four additional bands, comprising sixteen trumpets, sixteen trombones, four tubas, twelve horns, sixteen kettle-drums of different pitch, and other instruments of percussion. Dr. Damrosch arranged his additional forces in four proscenium-boxes, and the result was a musical cyclone the like of which has never been heard at the Academy. We can imagine that, as given in Paris, this number has that awful effect which Berlioz calculated, but here the trombones made such a blasting or "blasted" noise that the audience were probably reminded of a Bowery museum more than anything else. It is unjust to Berlioz to reproduce his ideas in such a coarse, jarring manner, which recalls the passage in his memoirs where he says he "almost had a fit while listening to the overture to 'King Lear' in Prague, conducted, nevertheless, by a Kapellmeister of undoubted talent." If good trombones were not to be had in sufficient numbers, the "Requiem" should not have been given. This is indeed the principal criticism to be applied to Dr. Damrosch. He should not attempt such colossal works with his new and inexperienced orchestra. On Thursday it played with a certain correctness, but without more than hinting at the kaleidoscopic beauties of the score. The same thing was noticed in the "Parsifal" prelude which preceded the Mass, and which cannot be adequately reproduced with such a small body of strings. The brass was unsatisfactory here, too. One blunder was so grave that it must be pointed out. When the Grail motive is first taken up by the trumpets and trombones it is marked piano, with a

crescendo to the third bar, which is forte. At Bayreuth this brief passage produced a profound impression, whereas here it passed unnoticed because the brass began mezzo-forte and ended mezzo-forte. The chorus numbered about three hundred voices, and sang remarkably well throughout most of the numbers, except that the manner in which the tenors and sopranos occasionally got off the pitch suggested the necessity of some sifting. The sextet was acceptably sung by Mrs. Ames, Miss Dossert, Signor Ravelli, and Messrs. Woram, Coletti, and Heinrich.

THE FRIENDSHIPS OF MARY RUSSELL MITFORD.

The Friendships of Mary Russell Mitford, as Recorded in Letters from her Literary Correspondents. Edited by the Rev. A. G. L'Estrange. Harper & Bros.

THERE is not much that is in itself very important in this collection of letters. The book will be chiefly interesting to those who, remembering the people and places, are carried back as they read to bygone times. Bygone the times of Miss Mitford and her circle already are; for in the last half-century, and even in the last quarter of a century, a vast change has come over English life. "Our Village" is comparatively unaltered: the rustic and his cow still gaze at the passing train with nearly the same expression of face, and the existence of both remains pretty much what it was, though their common lord and master the squire is now less resident on his estate, more addicted to spending his time in pleasure cities at home or abroad, more civilized, less feudal and paternal. Not so with "Belford Regis." The country town of Miss Mitford's time, with its "little homely coteries," its "sandwich parties," and its whist-tables, is a thing of the past. The members of those coteries were people who spent all their days in the same place, seldom going even to the sea side, knew each other well, were known to the whole town, met evening after evening for their rubbers and negus at each other's houses, and lived at once an extremely quiet and an extremely social life. Each of them was a character, and some of them were highly quaint. Now Belford Regis stands at the confluence of four or five railways. It has trebled in size, and the general tide of bustle, excitement, and progress has overflowed its streets. Fast trains have, in fact, made it almost a suburb of the metropolis. The hand of improvement has been everywhere; even the churches have all been restored by Ritualism; and the man of fifty, revisiting the old place, can hardly recognize the scenes of his boyhood. Most of the people of the wealthier class are immigrants, and many of them are mere sojourners; often they are tradesmen who, in the vast development of commerce, have made fortunes in middle life, and do not know what to do with the remainder of their days, but settle first in one place, then in another, seeking happiness by change of residence, and finding it not, till they die. Characters are all cast in the same metropolitan mould. As in London, a man hardly knows his next-door neighbor, and sociability as well as idiosyncrasy is gone. On the other hand, there are railway-trains without number, telegraphs, telephones, and, instead of one, a dozen post deliveries in the day. Repose and social enjoyment will perhaps come back hereafter in another form.

However, the reader, entering the circle of Miss Mitford's friends, will find himself in intellectual company high, if not the highest. Here are Cobbett, Lord Holland, J. P. Smith of the "Rejected Addresses" (here treated to his second initial), Joanna Baillie, Milman, Talfourd, Mrs. Trollope, Mrs. Hemans, Mrs. Opie, Miss Strickland, Captain Hall, N. P. Willis, W. Howitt and his wife, Miss Martineau, George Ticknor, Mrs. Jameson, "Barry Cornwall," Crabbe Robinson, Douglas Jerrold, Eliot Warburton, Bayard Taylor, Mrs. Barrett Browning, and Ruskin, besides Miss Mitford herself. Living in retirement, but being extremely sociable and sympathetic by nature, Miss Mitford seems to have indemnified herself for her solitude by cultivating correspondence; and her literary position—especially her editorship of a popular annual—brought her into connection with a number of literary men and women. Mr. L'Estrange tells us that she even carried on an affectionate correspondence with many persons whom she had never seen. A better-hearted woman never lived, though she had her weaknesses and her aberrations. That she "brightened the paths" of her friends, and "refreshed their lives of toil," is truly said; and to do this was her delight.

Perhaps the most characteristic things in the volume are the letters of Cobbett:

"My wife is much better, but is not well. . . . Give me some news about dogs. D—n politics! Is Snip with pup yet? a matter of far more importance than whether the Prince of Asturias be hanged or not; or whether his silly father be in a mad-house; or what grenadier is the gallant of his old punk of a mother. We are well set to work, truly, to pester our brains about these rogues! It matters not a straw to us whether Napoleon hang them all or send them a-begging. And as to our fellows at Whitehall and Westminster, we shall be sure to do right if we hate them all. Lefevre, indeed, as far as the spaniels go, is of some importance; and though he has played you foul, I hope he will live till we have got that more valuable part of the creation out of his hands."

The last sentence will be pleasant reading for Lefevre's son, Lord Eversley. It is right to say that this passage, with the still more Cobbettian language which we may suppose to be represented by the asterisks, was addressed not to Miss Mitford, but to her father, Dr. Mitford, the minor Cobbett of a country town, and a loud-voiced political reformer, himself conspicuously in need of reform, though his warmth of nature preserved for him the love of his much-wronged daughter, whose filial affection is the glory of her life. Cobbett is described by Miss Mitford as "a tall, stout man, fair and sunburnt, with a bright smile and an air compounded of the soldier and the farmer, to which his habit of wearing an eternal red waistcoat contributed not a little." Demagogue as he was, it appears that he was also a game-preserver, though he justifies to himself his determination to keep a preserve close, on the ground that if it were thrown open the game would find its way to the "maw" of the "d—d Levite."

We have here a good deal from Mrs. Trollope of doubtful memory. She and Miss Mitford were great friends. Miss Mitford calls her "a lively, brilliant woman of the world, with a warm, blunt, cordial manner and many accomplishments." In her letters she appears bustling, pushing, rather vulgar but kind-hearted, and willing to take trouble in doing her friends a good turn. On want of refinement she ought not to have been severe. Writing from America, she speaks of the people as "so very queer, so very unlike any other thing in heaven above or earth below." In a more sternly critical mood she calls them "savages," though she adds, "yet is the country beautiful and wonderful in its rapid progress toward the wealth and the wisdom, the finery and the folly of the Old World." Her slapdash and superficial descriptions call forth some quiet and sensible, though not unimpeachably grammatical comments from Miss Sedgwick, who writes to Miss Mitford:

"There is undoubtedly a crude state of things among us. Mrs. Trollope (by the way, I am exceedingly obliged to you for your very fine account of her, which has very much raised her in our good opinion) has not much misstated, though she has grossly caricatured us. You may imagine in a country where everybody travels, and where there are no acknowledged distinctions of classes, no barriers obvious to the senses, that in such places as steamboats, canal-boats, and stage-coaches the respect with which any individual is treated must greatly depend upon circumstances. It is not very easy for a person educated in a different condition of society to adapt themselves [*sic*] to the peculiarities of a new aspect of society; but from my own experience, I am sure your father is right in saying that a lady may travel from Georgia to Maine without meeting any impertinence."

We catch sight by the way of "an untoward speculation at Cincinnati," which was not likely to lend a roseate tint to the medium through which Mrs. Trollope viewed men and manners in America.

Perhaps the best letters in the volume, as compositions, are those of Sir William Elford, of whom Miss Mitford says with truth that "there is something of Horace Walpole's mixture of humor and courtliness about his style," and to marry whom she says, when playfully twitted with such a tendency, would be killing the goose that lays the golden eggs. Sir William, though a man of taste and cultivation, hardly entered the literary arena except as an occasional pamphleteer: it was for that very reason, no doubt, that he excelled as a letter-writer. He gave to his letters his freshest mental energies and his best thoughts, the choice wine of his intellect; whereas people who are writing books can only give their letters the lees. Letters may be interesting merely from their authorship, or from the facts which they contain; but as literary compositions, they require effort like literary compositions of other kinds. Who can doubt that those letters of Madame de Sévigné and Horace Walpole, which read as easily as the writings of Rousseau, were written with as much care? Sir William Elford had the advantage not only of leisure, but of eccentricity. Among all these Liberals he is described as a Tory, and he evidently had the root of all Toryism in him in the highest perfection. Apparently he is quite in earnest when he complacently sets down war, plague, and famine as the necessary means, "according to the course and construction of the animal world," of keeping down population, and war as the least unpleasant of the three; so that to deprecate war is to fly in the face of nature.

Miss Mitford's own letters are hardly an exception to the rule just laid down. They always bear the traces of a genial, enthusiastic nature; but otherwise they are for the most part such as pass every day through the mails. Her criticisms are of little value. She hates Thackeray, and is most struck by the "vulgarity" of Bulwer and the "cant" of Dickens. Of Carlyle, she says that his fashion is waning rapidly, and that the idol will soon be knocked down by its worshippers. Over Guizot and De Tocqueville she can only yawn. Of her opinions on men and things, the most notable, perhaps, is the worship which she, Liberal as she is, in common with Mrs. Barrett Browning, a still stronger Liberal, pays to Louis Napoleon. That adventurer had done nothing except commit a gigantic felony: but his success was dazzling, and he was a one-man power. Advocates of female suffrage may take a note of the fact. Miss Mitford is always at her best when she is painting rural scenes and figures, because she does it with all her heart. This passage on Silchester is an example:

"The poem on Silchester first made Mr. Kenyon and me friends, and that friendship was the remote cause of one to me still more precious—

there is one reason for loving Silchester. But the scene is itself so beautiful! Fancy a hundred acres of the highest land in the south of England, the crown of a ridge of hills, mostly covered with the richest woodland, enclosed by a wall some twenty feet high and nearly twenty feet thick, surmounted by huge pollards, high timber-trees, hedgerow shrubs (such, for instance, as fine old thorns, maple-bushes, etc.), with enormous masses of ivy and wild service-trees, and long, pendant shoots of the briar-rose hanging down the old, gray, cliff-like walls. Everywhere the ground at the foot of these walls sinks down into a narrow fosse at the depth of some hundred feet, rising again on the opposite side—some part of this outer ditch being rich meadow land, other portions in the most beautiful coppice—joining again to the other copses—on the most beautiful ascents and declivities. Nothing was ever so exquisitely mantled about. Just at one of the gates of the old city, a huge crag, crowned with ivy and clothed with magnificent timber-trees, stands the pretty country church; adjoining to that, an old, rustic farm-house; and, at a little distance, in a magnificent grove of oak-trees, the amphitheatre, with its five rows of seats still to be traced—huge elms growing on the top and sides, and the large oval space at the bottom perfectly clear, a fine, level arena of smooth and verdant turf. On one side of the amphitheatre is a piece of water, dark as a mirror; another deep pool reflects the hoary walls and some noble oak-trees; and, on the opposite side of the city, the parsonage, a beautiful house, very large for a pastoral mansion, with its pretty grounds, sweeps away into the woodland scenery of the south side of the walls. A short avenue leads to the fine, open, breezy common, golden with furze and broom, and from that commodious upland you look down upon the hundreds—aye, thousands—of acres of the most wild and exquisite sylvan scenery: Pamber Forest is spread beneath your feet; on one side the dark fir plantations of Mortimer Common rise over a clear little lake, with its decoy and its millions of wildfowl: on the other, High Clere; the Beacon Hills stretch away over the wild district of North Hampshire, where Mr. Chute's curious old place, The Vine (*vide* Horace Walpole), and the still more remarkable moated grange of Bear, carry back the eye and the fancy to the days of Clarissa, and of manners and scenery more primitive still. Oh, how I should love to stand with you upon Silchester Common! Its floral beauty I have endeavored to describe to you in my scrawl of last night; but the purity of the air, the fragrance of the budding woods, the enormous fir plantations, the wide expanse of richly-scented, blossomed gorse, the acres of wild hyacinth and of lilies of the valley, defy all description: it must be felt. Oh, that we were there together! I so love Silchester—always loved it!"

This is the language of a genuine delight, which excuses over-measurements and some general exaggeration. It is, perhaps, characteristic that the writer should think so much of the natural beauties and so little of the antiquarian associations, treating the Roman remains chiefly as features in the landscape. Silchester is the British Pompeii, and though its interest is far indeed below that of the Italian Pompeii, it is worth seeing in its minor way. It is easily seen, too, for it is not more than three miles from the Mortimer Station of the branch of the Great Western Railway between Reading and Basingstoke. The walls of the Roman city are almost entire, and excavation has now laid open the complete ground-plan of the streets, houses, and public buildings, with many vestiges of ancient life. On the spot where Miss Mitford stood drinking in the influence of what is undoubtedly a very lovely and thoroughly English view, once, perhaps, stood some gay Roman officer, with no soul for the beauties of nature, and pining in his provincial exile for the pleasures of the capital; then turned away, with an exclamation of disgust, from the dull expanse of unbroken forest stretched out beneath gray skies, to order his Celtic slave to put more fuel into the hypocaust under the triclinium, to console himself for the absence of Roman banquets with a dozen of the Richborough oysters the shells of which still strew the ground, or to try what that little provincial amphitheatre could do as a substitute for the gladiatorial shows of the Colosseum.

RECENT NOVELS.

On the Borderland. By Harriette A. Keyser. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Doctor Ben. Round Robin Series. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

Sylvie's Bethrothed. A Russian Story. By Henry Gréville. Translated by Mary Neal Sherwood. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.

Faustine. By Rita. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Allerton Towers. By Annie Thomas. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Under Green Apple Boughs. By Helen Campbell. [Our Continent Library.] Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Those Children and Their Teachers. By Byron A. Brooks. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Weighed and Wanting. By George Macdonald. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Nobody. By the author of 'The Wide, Wide World.' Robert Carter & Bros.

The Knights of the Horseshoe. A Traditionary Tale of the Cocked Hat Gentry of the Old Dominion. By Dr. William A. Carruthers. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Captain Mansana, etc. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Translated from the Norse by Rasmus B. Anderson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Robin. By Mrs. Parr. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Kept in the Dark. By Anthony Trollope. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Giant Raft. Part 2. The Cryptogram. Jules Verne. Translated by W. J. Gordon. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

'On the Borderland' between sanity and insanity is delicate ground on which to place the scenes of a novel. The author has three theories to set forth and illustrate: one about hereditary tendencies to insanity, another of "villany as moral insanity," and a third—more suitable, it would seem, for a novel—concerning the curative powers of music. This last affords her a proper field for a heroine, who in due time marries the man whose inherited tendency has been duly overcome by the physician who is the good genius of the plot. The author has selected the less repulsive side of the subject, and her attempt to enforce the humane and enlightened view of the treatment of the insane is throughout creditable, but to carry real weight such a book must embody the results of a far larger experience, or the discoveries of that keen imaginative insight into human motives and passion which only genius possesses.

The same may be said of 'Doctor Ben,' the plot of which has, however, one or two curious novelties. We are all well used to the stories of perfectly sane people wickedly shut up in asylums to endure heaven only knows what; but here Ben Hollins, on the eve of his wedding day, receives a terrible blow, from which he presently recovers physically, but with his mental faculties so benumbed that he is no more than a child. Most patiently he is tended by his parents and by her who would have been his wife, till Tom Macrae, an old lover of the lady, through mingled love and jealousy, aided by such opportunities as are only found in novels, carries him off and safely immures him in a private insane asylum. Safely, but in a far different sense from Macrae's understanding of the word, for it is a place where they cure people, and Ben recovers in time to disappoint Macrae of his (Ben's) father's fortune, though Betty Hartley has been always true to him. Stirring as the incidents are, the story drags, for the author loses and finds Ben so many times that it seems like a cat playing with a mouse. But then that fills out the book, and so do the one hundred and fifty pages of description of the life in the asylum. Like 'On the Borderland,' it is meant for the encouragement of the sufferers and their friends, but that does not make a good novel or a vivid picture. French realism has covered, once and for all, the possibilities of the insane asylum, pathetic, grotesque, demoniac, so far as they can serve the purposes of a novelist.

'Sylvie's Betrothed' is not the first book in which Henry Gréville has introduced all the elements of exciting passion that make a book bad, and then just saved it from that category in the eyes of superficial observers by making all come right in the end. Nobody finally *does* any wrong, but such a conclusion cannot redeem the scenes with which the book is filled. Repelling as is the idea that a man of twenty-five should adore a married woman more than ten years his senior, it is not impossible; but if our estimates of the power of right living mean anything, it is beyond probability that fifteen years of ideal happiness in married life should lead only to such an episode as is sketched in this story. Moreover, the return from this pleasant dallying with temptation is no such easy thing as it is made out here. The path of rectitude is not a path from which one can stray to right or left at pleasure, but a straight and narrow way, which, once left, is found again only through pain and grief. The translation is of Mrs. Sherwood's best, but there is nothing of any kind or sort that is Russian in the story.

'Faustine' is of the Ouida type of story, but distinctly without the badness. It is even remarkable for the reserve with which the material is handled. A scheming priest, a beautiful actress, an ardent youth have many times figured in doubtful fiction, but in this book their adventures are wrought into a tale which may safely be commended to the lovers of thrilling incident.

'Allerton Towers' is much more than half a fine book, and the reader is vexed at its failure. Many scenes are prettily and cleverly done, but the lack of a sense of proportion makes the scheming mother a figure quite out of place in the gentle, faintly-colored life of a cathedral town. Mothers may plan and plot even there, but a woman who deliberately sells her daughter for so much cash down, wherewith to pay her own debts, could be found only in a very different world. Moreover, to marry a hero twice over in one novel is at best a delicate task, but to give up one's betrothed, to marry and bury a wife, and return to the first love within twenty pages and within as many months, requires a greater variety of sympathy than most readers have at command.

In 'Under Green Apple Boughs' there lay a rare opportunity if the author had but known it. To paint a faithful picture of the life in one of those old Long Island villages, the survivals of the last century, would be well worth the doing. We get some glimpses of it: "a fossil community with the interest attaching to fossils," where modern influences "make as much real progress as waves against a Holland dyke. The village held its own, looking straight over the heads of these audacious foreigners with their nineteenth-century madness." Hither came a brilliant and erratic professor of chemistry and his keen, clear-headed sister, modern of moderns. Here was enough of that contrast and of that marked individuality which American life is condemned for lacking, to make a fresh and original story, but Mrs. Campbell has preferred to heap up melodramatic incident to a climax the pure deviltry of which outdoes the work of most of the

professional sensationalists. It is the greater pity, because she has a keenness of observation and a grace of style which, bestowed upon a rational plot, would make a novel far above mediocrity.

'Those Children' is a rambling tirade against schools of all sorts, public and private, concluding with a Utopian vision of a school from which fractions "are left out," and the boys are to stay so long as they are "congenial and moral." The incidents seem intended for identification, and it ought to be somebody's business to look after the school trustee who puts in a teacher with a brogue such that the children cannot understand her, and another who was yesterday but a cook, and could scarcely read or write.

It is the lover who is 'Weighed and Wanting' in George Macdonald's book. He is not a worthy person, judged by any standard, but the reader must find him somewhat justified for his dissatisfaction with the heroine. She is the very perversity of goodness. She performs miracles of healing alike with her singing and her ready hands, but what she does is as nothing to what she hopes to be. "She would be more than ever the sister and helper of her own—cling faster than ever to the Lord's garment, that the virtue going out of him might flow through her to them. She would be like Christ, a gulf into which wrong should flow and vanish—a sun radiating an uncompromising love." There is a great deal of such extravagant and irreverent nonsense in the platitudes with which the book is filled, but there is really nothing left of the qualities which made the success of Mr. Macdonald's first books.

'Nobody' is in Miss Warner's usual style both as to plot and execution. It is mentioned here only to notice the singular mistake to which her devotion to one idea, or one form of one idea, has led her. "Nobody" is the simple country girl whom the hero, upon her first visit to the gay city world, falls in love with. He has every grace of mind and manner except what Miss Warner is accustomed to call "the Christian." They part in the spring and meet again the following autumn. "Days and weeks go by," till at Christmas time he offers himself to her, and is met by a positive refusal, because, "You know, O you know, you are not a Christian!" Upon this he tells her that during the summer he has thought and studied—and "then made open profession of his belief." So the way is smooth and that is the end of it. But it is amazing that Miss Warner does not see how she has stultified herself by her representation that this change is a matter of such vital consequence that the girl will break her heart rather than marry the man without it, and yet it is so little a thing that in all the weeks since his return she has never suspected anything of it. Her surprise at his announcement is proof of that. The answer to such a criticism would be, that she *would* have felt the difference, and that therein is Miss Warner's mistake. Either way, it is an instance of the unreality which makes most of the "religious novels" positively dangerous. One kind of mind they disaffect, another they mislead, while it is not easy for a critic to deal with them, from the difficulty of separating their false views of the truth from the truth itself, so that the condemnation of the one shall not seem irreverence to the other.

'The Knights of the Horseshoe' belongs to the "Southern Life and Character" series of the Harpers. Its historical basis is found in the so-called "Tramontane Expedition" under Governor Spotswood, in 1714, to explore the country beyond the Blue Ridge. It needs a well-authenticated tradition to make it credible that, but a few days out, all the horses went dead lame *for want of shoes*, no one having bethought himself of the effect of the rocky gorges upon the feet of horses only accustomed to the soft soil of the bottom lands. But the gentlemen were equal to the emergency: the wagons were deserted, the tires of the wheels taken off, and the shoes made and put on with their own hands. After the return from their successful journey, they formed themselves into an order which held solemn and splendid meetings in the Hall of the House of Burgesses. Their badge was a golden horseshoe with the motto, "Sic juvat transcendere montes." This is but an episode at the close of a long and somewhat heavy story, for which Cooper evidently furnished the model. The book is dedicated to the Hon. John Tyler (with others), and a foot-note adds, "The above was written before Mr. Tyler was even thought of for the Vice-Presidency." The date is, Savannah, June, 1845, and it is an odd proof how far we have left the first half of the century behind us, that, to most people who see the book, the 1714 will hardly seem less familiar than the 1847.

'Captain Mansana' is a vigorous, spirited sketch of an Italian *bersagliere*, the stuff of which revolutionary leaders, if not patriots, are made. A prefatory note explains that it is meant for biography, not romance. "The most novel of its incidents are historic, some of them even to the most minute details." But we are at loss how to interpret the further explanation: "The singular destiny ascribed to him is historically his in all that has a determining influence on his psychological development." Nor is it clear what is meant by the comparison with Lassalle: "The character-phenomenon is the same." The facts, if Mansana's story be fact, are widely different.

'Robin' is so far above all the books which precede it on our list as to belong to quite another world. It is a beautiful story of resistance to temptation, and of the purification and elevation of character in both man and woman by such a struggle for self-conquest. It is essentially dramatic in the sense of action and reaction of the personages of the story upon each other. Robin's second marriage is the only possible conclusion. Christopher's work and Christopher's hope would seem incomplete without it, but we had rather it had not been while the old man lived.

The plot of 'Kept in the Dark' is very simple. The story turns on the concealment, by a woman engaged to be married, from her future husband, of the fact that she has been already engaged to another man. The husband, of course, learns it in the end from the man himself, and is made furious by the discovery, imagines in his jealous rage all sorts of additions to the story, refuses to live with his wife, leaves her, and after an interval of separation is again completely reconciled to her. There is a naturalness about the tale which makes it pleasant reading, though no one can help feeling that the wife is punished rather too severely for a concealment which is owing not to any desire to deceive, but to a combination of perfectly innocent motives. The husband's misinterpretation of the facts when they actually come to his knowledge, is what might have been expected. Whether there is intended to be a moral, to the effect that a woman who has been once engaged must always communicate the fact to the man she subsequently marries, we do not know; but as it is a safe and commonplace moral, we can do Mr. Trollope no great injustice if we assume that this is the lesson taught by his latest contribution to fiction.

The second part of the 'Giant Raft' is more entertaining than the first. There is less geography and natural history, and, besides this, there is the discovery of the cipher-key by which the hero's life is saved, and the highly exciting diving excursion of Benito in search of the corpse of Torres, in the course of which he has an encounter with an electric eel. The cryptogram gives Mr. Verne an opportunity of going once more over ground familiar to readers of Poe and Gaboriau, and he very modestly attempts nothing new. His cipher is a simple number-key, which, once lost, is lost forever, unless, as in this case, it is discovered by a pure accident. There are, we believe, differences of opinion as to the limits of analysis in deciphering cryptograms. That so elaborately described by Gaboriau of a pair of corresponding volumes is really not a cipher, but a purely arbitrary system which must defy discovery unless the book is discovered. It seems, too, as if any alphabetical system in which the actual letter is replaced by a letter which is variable must be undecipherable without the key. This is Jules Verne's French cryptogram. There are in the first nine words of the sentence to be transcribed seven *es*. Assuming Poe's rule, that *e* is the letter in most common use, to be true of French as well as English, we ought to find (if the rule is to help us at all) that wherever an *e* occurs in the sentence a sign of some sort, always the same, should occur in the cipher. But, on the contrary, the first *e* is represented by an *h*, the second by a *j*, the third by an *f*, the fourth by a *g*, the fifth again by an *h*, the sixth by a *j*, and the last by an *i*. How such a cipher can be made out by analysis we cannot conceive. Certainly for practical purposes it would be safe enough; but for ordinary life—for telegraphic communications, for instance—it would be more cumbrous and elaborate than convenience permits.

Geological Sketches at Home and Abroad. By Archibald Geikie. Macmillan & Co. 1882.

UNTIL within a few years popular scientific essays and books were produced almost exclusively by men of small attainments and no reputation. They were dull without being either lucid or trustworthy; their usefulness to the general reader was doubtful; and they were the scorn of specialists. Faraday may be said to have set a new fashion which will not pass until a worse era has begun. No scientific man now feels it beneath his dignity to write for a public larger than that of the specialists in his own department, and the general reader has some of the very best of modern thought presented to him in its simplest form. Popular explanations of their own investigations, written by original thinkers, have a peculiar charm, for every writer is at his best when handling a theme well within the scope of his powers, and when expressing himself under the influence of a fresh inspiration. Mr. Archibald Geikie, Director of the Geological Survey of Great Britain, has contributed a number of papers to *Macmillan's Magazine*, which, with a few generally intelligible addresses on various occasions, are now gathered into a volume. Although of various degrees of general interest, they are well worth preservation in this more permanent form. No reader of ordinary intelligence can fail to be attracted by many of these papers, and yet geologists alone will fully appreciate their suggestiveness.

"My First Geological Excursion" is not only interesting as a sketch of a bright lad beginning his career, but will serve to explain to many who do not comprehend it, how it is that the votaries of science find their work so fascinating. Mere facts taken singly are so uninteresting that it seems to not a few either foolish or heroic to spend a lifetime in ascertaining them. Those who think thus are not aware that a bit of geological history has as much of a plot as an old family story; that a few shells, bones, a ripple-mark and possibly a foot-print in the rock of a quarry enable the observer who combines knowledge with imagination to reconstruct the essen-

tial features of that very spot, untold ages since, much as a past phase of society might be inferred from an old trunk full of silk doublets, periwigs, and other significant trumpery. A cabinet specimen has an artificial or a recondite interest, but a fossil in the place where it was hidden from sight in the distant past, before the soft mud began to harden into rock, is enough to arouse the attention and excite the imagination of the rudest workman.

One of the great merits of geology is that it has opened the eyes of the world to the existence of an immense prehistoric past; but the cases are few in which the lapse of time occupied by geological phenomena can be measured with any approach to accuracy, and any addition to knowledge in this direction is extremely welcome. Mr. Geikie hit upon the excellent idea of studying the weathering of rocks on tombstones exposed to the open air, in those cases where the date remained legible or could in any way be ascertained, the character of the surface and of the incised inscriptions indicating the influence of the atmospheric agencies on the rock. He succeeded in making valuable observations on the amount of weathering, and on the causes leading to it. He showed conclusively, among other things, that marble is not a durable building material, particularly in cities, where it is seriously affected by the sulphuric acid contained in coal-smoke. It must be counted among Mr. Geikie's triumphs that he has thus forced monumental inscriptions to tell the truth.

One of these papers is on the extinct volcanoes of the Auvergne, which have long been classical in the history of geology. Though there is no historical record of volcanic activity in France, the craters and lava-streams of Auvergne are perfectly preserved. It was to this region that Von Buch, Villefosse, and many more were obliged to go to become convinced of the error of Werner's strange doctrine of the sedimentary origin of basalt, and it was there that Scrope studied eruptive phenomena. Looking back to the early years of the century, one wonders how geologists can have been so deaf to evidence and argument as to maintain that basalt was deposited from water; but it is little less difficult to carry conviction against a preconceived opinion now, by descriptions however vivid, by arguments however sound, than it was when the "Plutonists" and the "Neptunists" were at war over the great "Basalt Question."

Baron von Richthofen was the first to offer overwhelming evidence to prove that besides the eruption of streams of lava from central vents, with which the active volcanoes of the present day and the extinct volcanoes of the Auvergne and other regions have made us acquainted, floods of lava have at times issued from fissures, fairly submerging large tracts under lakes or seas of molten rock. No geologist who has visited the extreme west of the United States has failed to become convinced of this, but until lately no British geologist has visited that region. Scrope and his school have greeted the evidence with sneers, and were as little susceptible to arguments, or to the evidence presented in the reports of the numerous geological expeditions sent out by the United States Government, as were the Wernerians to the proofs of the eruptive character of basalt. The most important papers of Mr. Geikie's volume deal with this subject. He visited Wyoming, believing, as he had been taught, that the volcano was the only type of eruptive activity. One afternoon he came upon the Snake River lava-bed, and saw that Richthofen was right. Becoming convinced, however, he did not hesitate to purge himself of error. He confesses that the labors of American geologists have not received due acknowledgment, and announces his opinion that fissure eruptions furnish the true key to the nature of the basaltic plateaux of Ireland and Scotland, and probably also to those of Abyssinia and India.

Mr. Geikie pays a well-merited tribute to "the Scottish school of geology"—that is, to Hutton, Hall, and Playfair, in whose hands the science took essentially the outline it still retains, while the admirable detailed work of Werner has been fitted into his opponents' scheme of general causes. He also supplies a very suggestive essay on the geological influences which have affected the course of British history, in which it is shown how large an influence these have had on the survival and the distribution of the various races which make up the population.

While the presswork of this book seems excellent, the stereotyping has not been successful, and the number of imperfect letters is a serious blemish.

A Grammar of the Modern Spanish Language, as now Written and Spoken in the Capital of Spain. By W. I. Knapp, Professor in Yale College. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1882.

THE title of this book tells very well the story of its contents: it is a manual of contemporary Spanish, designed chiefly for students who have completed courses in French and German, or in the ancient languages, and who, therefore, do not need to be assailed at every step with definitions of elementary matters. It is a welcome answer to an inquiry lately addressed to us for a really good Spanish grammar. The author describes it in his preface as a systematic presentation of the laws that govern the official Castilian language at the present stage of its development; and it is, indeed, impossible to read far in the book without feeling that here at least is varied contact with a living language; here are evidences of genuine familiarity with Spanish as it is spoken in the streets and social circles of Madrid. Odd as it may seem, this sensation of perfect freshness is very delightful to people accustomed to read so-called "grammars" compiled laboriously out of the works of others, products of the library-corner, or of a thirst for notoriety. We have experienced it more than once in examining Professor Knapp's work, and it has inspired us with confidence as we examined. The section on Castilian "vocalization" is particularly good, and there is a capital table of vulgarisms in pronunciation which must eventually prove a great help toward mastering, or at least understanding, the mysteries of peninsular table-talk. That *crux* of Castilian phonology, *v* versus *b*, is carefully treated in numerous examples, as also the theory and practice of the ligatured consonants (*ll*, *ñ*). Is Professor Knapp aware of the controversy in the London *Academy*, on the subject of the origin of the patronymic *ez*? Dr. Burnell and Prince L. L. Bonaparte would perhaps object to the summary manner in which he disposes of this tormenting little affix (p. 16). Is it beyond doubt, for example, that Fernánd*ez*, Cervánt*es*, etc., are from Latin ablatives in -is: e Ferdinand*is*, e Servand*is*, etc.? Moreover, we must protest against the chapter of complications entitled "Stems and Changes of Verbs," though we cannot see what else can be done with the protean difficulties of the subject. Noticeably good features in the book are the clear statement of the differences between *ser* and *estar*, the remarks on the reflexive verbs, and the treatment of the prepositions. It is a terminology somewhat unusual in current grammars to call spurious, acting, or composite prepositions "complex," though doubtless Professor Knapp has his reasons. Among the "Essentials of Syntax" we would emphasize the treatment of the subjunctive mode as excellent, and we know of no manual that carries one so successfully through the perilous intricacies of Castilian diminutives and augmentatives. At the back of the book there is a very complete set of practical exercises, accompanied by the requisite vocabularies.

We do not know from what sources Professor Knapp has drawn the substructure of his very useful book—we could wish indeed that he had mentioned them more specifically; but that his grammar is a conscientious production as a whole, and well adapted to its purpose, there can be no doubt. Perhaps in a future edition a select bibliography, particularly of the labors of the German school, will be added; and will not somebody meanwhile discover some limbo whither people who neglect their indexes can be temporarily banished?

An Introduction to the Study of English Literature and Literary Criticism. Designed for the Use of Schools, Seminaries, Colleges, and Universities. By Prof. James Baldwin. Vol. I. Poetry. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co. 1882.

PROF. BALDWIN has divided English poetry into classes, according to its form or subject-matter: lyrical, historical, etc., ending necessarily with "miscellaneous." Under each head he gives some account of the principal works, a detailed abstract of the most important, and supplements this information with quotations from the leading critics. The plan we cannot think a good one. Not only is the division governed by conflicting principles, so that the classes overlap, but the mode of study proposed is neither the easiest nor the best for the scholar. It is clear from Prof. Baldwin's introduction and his directions for collateral reading, that he feels the importance of a knowledge of English history as the basis for real appreciation of much of English literature; but it is equally plain that under his scheme of literary study no parallel study of history is possible, for the mutual support that each gives the other cannot be fully felt until the two courses are ended: the last lesson in literature will involve in its subject the first lesson in history. The historic groups in English literature are well marked, and easily studied; to neglect them is to lose the sense of continuity, the impression of literature as a growth and as a civilizing agency. Prof. Baldwin's scheme is also open to the objection that it destroys the singleness of impression conveyed by a writer's whole work, and the personal interest in him as an individual. To study Pope successively as a satirical, descriptive, pastoral, and didactic writer, dropping him and taking him up again, is not a direct way of coming at Pope's value.

But if the plan of the volume be accepted, the work will not be found lacking in fidelity and thoroughness (though we notice the careless ascription of some lines of Chaucer to the "House of Fame" instead of "The Knightes Tale"); and if the author is inclined to rely too much on the facile superficiality of Hazlitt, to yield to the picturesqueness of Taine's falsehoods, and, in the case of modern poets, to admit what devotees of the same school say of them, in general his illustrative criticisms are well selected. It is a greater fault that he frequently quotes without naming the original writer, because criticisms meant to be read by those unfamiliar with the works treated of must derive their weight from authority. The volume contains an excellent index, which makes its scattered contents easily accessible.

La Censure sous le Premier Empire, avec documents inédits. Par Henri Welschinger. Paris: Charavay Frères; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo, pp 400.

MR. WHIPPLE has recently recorded for us

Emerson's quaintly humorous criticism of the Rev. Mr. Abbott's 'Life of Napoleon,' to the effect that it seemed "to teach that the great object of Napoleon in all his wars was to establish in benighted Europe our New England system of Sunday-schools." If any further evidence were now needed to show how little sympathy Napoleon had with any New England ideas, it can be found abundantly in this volume of M. Welschinger's. The author of the 'Théâtre de la Révolution' has again gone to the national archives, and many of the documents cited by him or printed in full are now brought to light for the first time. For the most part, indeed, his narrative is but a fitting together of bits of documentary evidence; and there is no denying that it is at times a little dry. In five chapters he considers the general work of the censorship, characterizes the individual censors, and shows the machine in operation against the newspapers, against literature, and against the theatre. In France after '93 there was no freedom of speech, no free press, no free stage. Before Napoleon's advent the outspoken orator or journalist paid for his freedom with his life. After Napoleon came no one was allowed to speak out. A policy of rigid repression was adopted that concerned itself with the minutest details. At first Napoleon hated the word censorship, and beat about the bush; in the end he accepted it and kept Fouché and the police strictly to the mark. How petty the great man could be, can scarcely be imagined by one who has not read the story of the trivial persecutions and little tyrannies now told by M. Welschinger. Strangely enough, Napoleon awoke to the futility of his efforts at repression. During the Hundred Days the press of France was freer than it has been since, except under the Republics of 1848 and 1870; and the Emperor left on record an assertion that his "son would need to govern with a complete liberty of the press—that is now a necessity" (p. 8).

It is a great pity that Napoleon did not come to this conclusion while he was autocrat, and save the historian from recording that his censors even interfered with the marionettes (p. 246), that they cut out many lines from the "Athalie" of Racine (p. 232–4), and that they actually refused to authorize a French translation of the Psalms of David for fear that a personal application might be made of the poet's cry for deliverance. As it is, we read with pain and pity the story of the vindictive effort to crush Chateaubriand and Madame de Staël. There is something feminine in the jealousy with which Napoleon persecuted the latter, as may now be read here at length and for the first time. M. Welschinger reprints in a special appendix sixty-nine documents concerning Madame de Staël—orders, letters, police reports, etc. (pp. 325–374); and he reminds us that Madame de Genlis was one of Madame de Staël's paid accusers (pp. 67 and 167). Yet while Napoleon was thus doing all he could to crush out the independence which is the sap of strong and healthy literature, he was advertising for a great poet to illuminate his reign, and was ready to pay any price for a masterpiece. M. Welschinger quotes from the Emperor's correspondence a letter in which he expresses, with his usual energy, a succession of striking opinions on the quality and opportunities of modern tragedy. This letter was written in Poland just after a victory over the Russians—a fact which reminds us that it was a decree signed in Moscow which gave the Comédie-Française its present organization, or the basis of it.

It is amusing to observe that the Second Empire copied the First in little things better than in great. It was the Duc de Morny who authorized the performance of the "Dame aux Camélias" in 1852, in the hope that it might give the Parisians something to talk about besides politics. M. Welschinger shows us that similar tactics were adopted twice under the great Napoleon (pp. 125, 246).

Unexplored Baluchistan. A Survey, with Observations Astronomical, Geographical, Botanical, etc., of a Route through Mekran, Bashkurd, Persia, Kurdistan, and Turkey. By Ernest Ayscoghe Floyer. With 12 illustrations and a map. London: Griffith & Farran. 1882. Pp. xvii.-507.

THE country of Baluchistan, to a description of two journeys in which the greater part of this volume is devoted, apparently presents few attractions to the ordinary traveller. A stern and desolate region, one may travel through it for days without meeting a man or seeing an animal. It is parched with a well-nigh unendurable heat in summer, while in winter, at a short distance from the sea, life is made miserable by an icy-cold wind. The only redeeming natural feature seems to be the extraordinary color of the hills. One peak is "a rich blood-red," and in the rocks of the Fanoch pass "the main colors were bright red, soft crimson velvet, snowy white, purpled steel, and all shades of green from dark to emerald." There are no roads; but mere camel-tracks, which often are simply the beds of streams, impassable at high water, connect the most important towns. These are small and few in number, the houses having mud or clay walls with thatched roofs, and being surrounded by manure heaps. In most cases the villages have gardens in which are grown beans, wheat, rice, and barley, together with dates. The irrigation is artificial and sometimes "quite scientific." Of the Baluchis the author, who, as one of the Government Indo-European Telegraph Staff, had lived long among them, gives a very favorable impression. Though not so polished as their neighbors the Persians, they far surpass them in the more manly virtues. They are brave, hardy, strictly honest, faithful to their employers, and intensely proud of their race and nationality. Judging simply from Mr. Floyer's followers, they have also a keen sense of humor, which was continually showing itself even under the most adverse circumstances, making them capital travelling companions. The most interesting part of his book, indeed, is the relation of the adventures and characteristic acts and sayings of his attendants. The property of the people consists chiefly of camels, donkeys, sheep, and date trees. Of these the most important are the camels and the dates, for which Mr. Floyer tells us the Baluchi has a hundred different words to designate the different kinds. "There are more numerous and more widely different breeds of camels than of horses," while "at each village there are almost as many kinds of dates as there are trees, each with a separate name." His estimate of the endurance, the sagacity, and docility of the camel is very high, and the affection of their masters for their beasts is as marked as that of the Bedouin for his horse. The greatest care has to be taken in regard to their food, especially where the oleander grows. "This beautiful bush is fatal to all beasts except donkeys. Camels, goats, and sheep will not, as a rule, eat it of their own accord, but a single leaf getting into the fodder cut for them would kill those who ate it."

The first of Mr. Floyer's two expeditions was from the seacoast some two hundred miles into the interior, but it afforded little that was especially noteworthy or interesting. The second was through the western province, Bashakard (the spelling adopted in the text, though not on the title-page), a region which had never before been traversed by a European, across the Persian frontier, and from thence by way of Kirman and Ispahan to Bagdad. Though the author makes light of the difficulties of this route, they were evidently very great. A large part of the way was through deep snow, and at times the cold was terrible. The people, however, were hospitable, with a single exception, and at no time did he suffer detention or was there ever any attempt to rob him. The uniform courtesy with which he was received was in part owing to his familiarity with their language and customs, and in part to his kind and often successful treatment of their sick. On one occasion, when crossing a desert, he was attacked by a fever, and a man whom he had befriended rode twenty-eight miles for water to bathe his head.

His impressions of Persia are in some respects more favorable than those of recent travellers in that country. Of the caravanserais he says, they "are the one institution of which Persia can fairly boast. I have not yet visited any land where, even on little-frequented roads, you find at intervals of twenty miles warm stabling for any number up to 1,000 mules, and clean, water-tight little rooms for their owners." Some of the towns through which he passed bore evident marks of prosperity. Yezd, for instance, was "a thriving business place, and might, I think, be called the Manchester of Persia. Its chief industry is silk-weaving, and next, perhaps, in importance is opium growing." Ispahan, on the other hand, "left the impression of being a crumbling, rich old town." Kirman was the most interesting place which Mr. Floyer visited. Just before entering it he came across a miniature "greatest show on earth"—a strolling menagerie, "consisting of a newly-caught and very savage lion, and, without exception, the most hideous monkey I ever saw. The lion, a magnificent tawny beast, was held by eight men with ropes, all pulling in different directions." Here there are numerous kashmir-shawl and carpet looms, and a mint. The shawls are made in huts without doors or windows, light being—

"very sparingly admitted through small holes in the roof. . . . There were eighteen looms in the first 'workshop' I entered, and at each one stooped two or three miserable, sallow, half-naked children, their preternaturally thin, hard fingers going nervously, and their noses almost touching their work even while I engaged them in conversation. . . . Some of the children were working by memory, others were nearly perfect, but had to have small, grimy patterns tacked up on the loom in front of them which to my eye were most difficult to understand."

Mr. Floyer reports very unfavorably upon the future prospects of the carpet manufacture. He says:

"The two things that caused Persian carpets to be esteemed were the lasting quality of their dyes and the intricate and unique nature of their patterns. Now cheap European dyes are carried into the remotest villages of the country, and European patterns are being everywhere introduced—witness the coach and four at Kirman. The red and yellow colors of all Persian carpets should nowadays be tested by wetting the handkerchief and rubbing the color hard. The old-fashioned 'runashk' red, the 'zarili' yellow, and the duller yellow made from pomegranate skins, will never leave a trace on the handkerchief, while the European dyes, though more brilliant, come off freely."

The process of stamping the coins was very interesting.

"The anvil itself was a hard steel spike, bearing one face of the die. One man stood by with a pair of tongs, a second with a small hammer, bearing the second face of the die, and a third with a huge hammer. The first man seized a 'dab' of silver from the brazier, and with unerring certainty placed it on the centre of the narrow anvil. Almost at the same instant man number two placed his hammer exactly on it, and thump came number three with a blow which flattened it and imprinted the die on both sides. They struck thirty-three or thirty-eight per minute—I am not sure which, as the second figure has become blurred in my note-book."

Coins from this mint have been discovered at Jerusalem which were struck nearly a thousand years ago. At Ispahan Mr. Floyer went to see the two shaking minarets. "They are two tall brick towers. A man may ascend to the top of one, and on his rocking himself to and fro both pillars rock to and fro with him." Occasionally, both in Baluchistan and in Persia, he saw the "badgir" or wind-tower. These are built of mud, and are square, all the sides of the upper twelve feet being open "so as to allow of the freest access to wind from any quarter. Thin mud-plastered walls are built across diagonally from corner to corner, and the wind, thus confined in a V, goes of necessity down into the room below. This is the most expensive kind of wind-tower. Others are made in the form of a hood, or the orifice of a snail-shell, with the open end facing whence the prevailing summer wind comes." Mr. Floyer writes very pleasantly, and gives many graphic pictures of the life of the strange people among whom he journeyed. He rarely touches upon politics, and reserves his purely scientific information for his appendices. At one village, among his visitors were the Akhoonds or learned men. "They were five intelligent, well-mannered old men, and gave me much information. The American nation will be interested to learn that the discovery of America was just at this time commencing to excite the attention of these worthies. They puzzled me at first by asking questions about some 'yeng-i-dunea,' and it was not until after some cross-questioning I found it to be a corruption of Yeni Dunea, or New World."

The After-School Series. Preparatory Greek Course in English. By William Cleaver Wilkinson. Phillips & Hunt. 1882. 8vo, pp. 294.

Of all the devices for introducing non-classical readers to a knowledge of the ancient classics, we are inclined to think that Mr. Wilkinson's (or Dr. Vincent's, for to him the compiler gives the credit of the idea) is the most effective. It is to proceed on the course the classical student himself follows: to make the reader acquainted first with the land, then with the people, then (but this is, perhaps, a mistake) to give a peep at the language, and follow it up with a few fables, a dialogue of Lucian, and enough of Xenophon and Homer to make him tolerably familiar with them. After an introduction like this—and it really gives one a higher respect for our preparatory course to see how effective it is—the reader will be able to take hold of Sophocles, Plato, and Demosthenes with a much better understanding. The author has his faults: he talks too much—not in the way of explanation, but in his introductions, etc. What sounds very well in the schoolroom is often rather flat when written down. Another defect—and we wonder it did not deter him from the work altogether—is his want of sympathy with the subject. A man who says (p. 18), "You will look in vain for the substance of valuable thought throughout the greater part of Plato's entrancing pages," and who has no more conception of civilization as a growth than to censure Homer for "the savage and savagely low moral standard of the poem" (p. 130), cannot be expected to convey to his readers much of the genuine spirit of antiquity. On the whole, however, he has succeeded in this better than might be expected, and the occasional notes and remarks are for the most part very good and appropriate, and especially to be commended for vivacity. We are surprised that in the 'Odyssey' he has given no extracts from the excellent prose translation by Butcher and Lang.

There are to be four volumes. The second is to do for Roman literature what this has done for Greek. The next two will be devoted, we suppose, to the college authors of the two literatures. We think we may safely predict that the four volumes will present a unique and very satisfactory view of ancient literature for non-classical readers. We hope that the translations will be taken from a very wide range, so as to include, for example, such choice bits as Matthew Arnold's translations from Sophocles and Theocritus in his 'Essays in Criticism.'

Graphic Algebra; or, Geometrical Interpretation of the Theory of Equations. By A. W. Phillips and W. Beebe, Assistant Professors of Mathematics in Yale College. Henry Holt & Co.

This is a work apart from the ordinary run of mathematical text-books. The plan of it is briefly this: a proposition in the theory of equations is laid down; no general demonstration is given, but a particular equation which will illustrate the general principle is selected, and "plotted" according to the Cartesian method of coördinates; the meaning and effect of the general principle are at once made manifest to the eye. We can hardly imagine any mathematical exercise at once so useful and so interesting. Nothing in the book demands more than a very moderate degree of mathematical knowledge, and the work required is often really entertaining even to those who have no special taste for mathematics. But the student should not assume that such work can take the place of those general demonstrations which are entirely independent of any special application of the theory.

The construction of the imaginary roots of equations is very fully treated. As one looks at these simple, easy, and yet complete constructions, he cannot help regretting that the word "imaginary" has become so firmly fixed as an epithet of these quantities. As an introduction to analytical geometry, which is often so repugnant to students, the importance of the work before us can hardly be overestimated. The book is finely printed, and the illustrations, a large portion of them occupying the full size of the page, are abundant and excellent. We notice that the equation of § 20 (p. 23) is misprinted; the 6 of the second term and the 5 of the third should change places with each other.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, L. Birthday Mottoes, Selected from the Writings of E. P. Roe. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Acland-Ransome. A Skeleton Outline of the History of England. T. Whittaker.
Asbjörnsen, P. C. Folk and Fairy Tales. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 75.
Ashton, J. Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Austin, A. Soliloquies in Song. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Austin, L. L., M.D. Water Analysis. A Handbook for Water-Drinkers. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Bartlett, T. H. Art-Life of William Rimmer. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $10.
Bascom, J. The Philosophy of Prohibition. National Temperance Publication House.
Benjamin, S. G. W. A Group of Etchers. With Text. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Bent, S. A. Short Sayings of Great Men, with Historical and Explanatory Notes. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Bloomfield, R. The Horkey: A Ballad. Illustrated by Cruikshank. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Bo-Peep: a Treasury for the Little Ones. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. $1 25.
Boys and Girls. Phillips & Hunt. 75 cents.
Brine, Mrs. Mary D. Papa's Little Daughters. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Brinton, D. G. American Hero-Myths. Philadelphia: H. C. Watts & Co. $1 75.
Brown, J. Spare Hours. Third series. Lock and Sydenham, and Other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Brownson, H. F. The Works of Orestes A. Brownson. Vol. i. Containing the First Part of his Philosophical Writings. Detroit: Thorndike Nourse. $3.
Campbell-Garnett. The Life of James Clerk-Maxwell, with Selections from his Correspondence and Writings. Macmillan & Co. $6.
Cary, Rev. H. F. Dante's Inferno. Illustrated by Gustave Doré. New edition. With Notes, Life of Dante, and Chronology. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Children's Kettledrum. New edition. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Church, Rev. A. J. Stories from the Greek Tragedians. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Clay, C. M. The Modern Hagar: a Drama. In 2 vols. Geo. W. Harlan & Co. $2.
Clemmer, Mary. Poems of Life and Nature. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Condit, I. M. English and Chinese Dictionary. American Tract Society.
Condit, I. M. English and Chinese Reader. American Tract Society.
Courtney, W. L. Studies in Philosophy, Ancient and Modern. T. Whittaker.
Darwin, Charles. Memorial Notices, Reprinted from *Nature*. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Davies, J. Hindu Philosophy. The Bhagavad Gita; or, Sacred Lay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 50.
Dawson, S. E. A Study, with Critical and Explanatory Notes, of Tennyson's 'The Princess.' Montreal: Dawson Brothers.
Dickens, C. Boots at the "Holly-Tree Inn." Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Dobson, A. Eighteenth Century Essays. D. Appleton & Co.
Eckstein, E. Quintus Claudius: a Romance of Imperial Rome. In 2 vols. Wm. S. Gottsberger. $1 75.
Factors of Civilization, Real and Assumed. Vol. ii. Atlanta, Ga.: J. P. Harrison & Co.
Foster, J. Ellen. Prohibitory Constitutional Amendment Manual. National Temperance Publication House.
Ferguson, R. M. Electricity. Revised and Extended by James Blyth. London: W. & R. Chambers.
Fromentin, E. The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Gayarré, C. Aubert Dubayet; or, Two Sister Republics. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $2.
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Janes, Margaret P. The Artist's Year: Original and Selected Poems of the Months. White & Stokes. $4 50.
Jarrel, W. A. Old Testament Ethics Vindicated. Greenville, Texas: Published by the Author. $1 50.
Jewish and Christian History. Vols. i. and ii. Bible Narrative and Jewish History. Vol. iii. The Gospel Story and Christian History. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $4 50.
Johnson, R. A History of the French War, ending in the Conquest of Canada. Dodd, Mead & Co.
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Kennedy, W. S. John Greenleaf Whittier: His Life, Genius, and Writings. Boston: S. E. Cassino. $1 50.
Koehler, S. R. The United States Art Directory and Year-Book. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
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Loring, Laurie. Snow-Flakes from Santa's Land. Thos. Y. Crowell & Co. $1 25.
McCarthy, C. Detailed Minutiæ of Soldier Life in the Army of Northern Virginia, 1861-65. Richmond: Carlton McCarthy & Co.
McLean, Sally Pratt. Towhead: the Story of a Girl. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Martineau, Rev. J. Study of Spinoza. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Mathews, Joanna H. Fred. Bradford's Debt. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Matthews, J. B. Poems of American Patriotism. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Mortimer-Granville, J. Youth: its Care and Culture. M. L. Holbrook & Co. $1.
Molesworth, Mrs. Rosy. Macmillan & Co. $1 25.
Myers, F. W. H. The Renewal of Youth, and Other Poems. Macmillan & Co. $2 25.
Oliver, Grace A. A Study of Maria Edgeworth, with Notices of her Father and Friends. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Palmer, Henrietta Lee. Home-Life in the Bible. 220 illustrations Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3 50.
Patch, Olive. Happy Little People. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Pollard, Josephine. Gellivor: a Christmas Legend of the North Land. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 40 cents.
Prize for Boys and Girls. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 75 cents.
Rawlinson, G. The Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy, or New Persian Empire. In 2 volumes. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Richardson, B. W. Results of Researches on Alcohol. National Temperance Publication House.
Sangster, Margaret E. Poems of the Household. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Schaff, P. A Religious Encyclopædia; or, Dictionary of Biblical, Historical, Doctrinal, and Practical Theology. Vol. i. Alpha—Future State. Funk & Wagnalls. $6.
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Thompson, A. C. Moravian Missions. Twelve Lectures. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 30, 1882.

The Week.

THE removal from office of Marshal Henry, Postmaster Ainger, Mr. Helm, of the Government Printing Office, and George E. Spencer, Government Director of the Union Pacific Railroad, for misbehavior in connection with the Star-route cases, is a late-coming but powerful blow at the culprits. Persons living at a distance can scarcely understand how great an influence the Administration for the time being has upon public opinion in Washington city, or how ready the population is to take its impressions from the local officers of the Government—the Marshal, the Postmaster, the District Attorney, etc. The Marshal and the Postmaster, while the Star-route trials were in progress, took the boldest means to make it known that, in their opinion, "the Government had no case"—*i. e.*, that the defendants, Brady, Dorsey, and others, were persecuted innocents—the inference to be drawn from their sayings being that the Administration, while compelled, for appearance sake, to prosecute the case, had no heart in it, and was performing a merely perfunctory duty. These removals ought to have been made in each case instantly. The punishment should have followed the offence without giving a moment's breathing-time to the offender. The effect of such promptness would have been most wholesome upon the community, and would have saved the Administration from much unfavorable comment. But better late than never. There will no longer be any doubt now that the President and his Cabinet are really in earnest in these prosecutions. The outcry of the defence is sufficient evidence of this. They take the astonishing position that, although the Government is the party defrauded by the Star-routers, and is the prosecutor in its own behalf, it ought to be absolutely neutral, and that the removal of the Marshal and Postmaster is an act of gross interference with the due course of law. This is part and parcel of the audacity they have all along exhibited.

Mr. Wayne MacVeagh has held his peace for a long time, and suffered much obloquy for his peremptory retirement from President Arthur's Cabinet while the Star-route trials were pending. The removal of the Star-route sympathizers has unsealed his lips. He now shows that the reason why he left the Cabinet then instead of waiting for the trial of the Star-routers, was that the people among whom and before whom the trial must take place would be very likely to assume that these prosecutions were a relic of the Garfield Administration, with which the Arthur Administration had no sympathy, the more especially as Brady's newspaper, the leading Republican daily in Washington, was all the time heaping abuse upon the prosecution, and in the same columns bestowing its warm praises upon the new President. The effect of this upon any jury likely to be drawn in the District of Columbia, Mr. MacVeagh believed, would be to render nugatory any efforts which he or others acting under him might make to secure a conviction of the culprits. He believed that this effect might be counteracted by the new Administration assuming the entire responsibility of the cases, but not otherwise; and he so informed the President in writing. Mr. MacVeagh appears to be justified in the course which he took.

We must warn Colonel Robert Ingersoll that his conduct of the defence in the Star-route cases is not helping him as an apostle of Agnosticism. In other words, his practice is hurting his preaching. People will judge creeds by the behavior of those who profess them, because they generally agree, with Matthew Arnold, that conduct is three-fourths of life. A creed, therefore, which not only permits its leading missionary to be an ardent admirer of the life and works of Mr. James G. Blaine, and the passionate and even vituperative defender of the Star-route thieves, but allows him to denounce the recent dismissals of their confederates from public office by the President as "one of the most outrageous official acts he ever knew an Administration to be guilty of," cannot enjoy considerable success in our time. If the Colonel wishes utterly to destroy Christianity, he will, in short, have to mend his own ways. If his theology has no department of political morality in it, it will certainly fail, no matter how amusing his sermons may be. We would advise him, therefore, to look into Dorsey's and Brady's cases more carefully, and see whether they cannot get along with cold professional advocacy simply.

It is reported that Mr. Robeson's canvass, including nomination and campaign, cost $70,000, and the canvass of Mr. Lyman, the civil-service reform candidate in Massachusetts, less than $150. Mr. Robeson was defeated and Mr Lyman elected. Mr. Robeson's defeat was largely owing to the popular belief that, while in office, he had made money enough to be able to spend $70,000 on a reëlection, Mr. Lyman owed his election to the belief that he would endeavor to bring about such a reform of things that an honest man can be elected to office, although he have not a dollar to spend in the canvass. It is an encouraging thing to see proof of the fact that, when the people take things into their own hands, money not only does not count in an election, but is rather apt to defeat the man who employs it.

The extraordinary scenes on the Stock Exchange on the 22d inst., and the unexampled magnitude of the transactions recorded (amounting to nearly one million shares), reflect the existence not so much of opposing interests among speculators as of contrary opinions in the country at large regarding the conditions of trade and industry. There is a large class of persons who believe that business is bad, and is going to be worse, if, indeed, we are not actually approaching a commercial crisis. There is an equally large class who believe that prices have touched bottom, and that there are no conditions visible which warrant the expectation of an early crisis. These two sets of opinions came into violent collision on the 22d instant, although why the conflict should have been more exciting and tumultuous then than on any other day is a mystery akin to those of sun-spots and meteoric showers. The result showed a preponderance of the latter class. It was proved that at any prices essentially lower than those prevailing during the past five or six weeks buyers can be found for almost any stock on the list, and in any quantity offered. The market at first declined rapidly, and then advanced still more rapidly, with enormous transactions, the total being the largest ever recorded in a single day, and the latest quotations were above the closing ones of the previous day. The aggregate of business done is too great to be ascribed to the influence of individuals or cliques, and the suddenness with which it was done proves that it could not have been the result of any preconcert among large operators. The conditions of trade, although in some respects unsatisfactory, are not gloomy. The products of the soil, which underlie and support and vivify all business, and without which it could not exist, are abundant. Some readjustments of industry must take place—notably in the iron trade—and farmers may for a time hold back their crops for higher prices, but the conditions necessary to a fair degree of general prosperity are not wanting.

The death, after a short illness, of Newton Francis Whiting, for many years the financial editor of the *Evening Post*, and for a long time a contributor to the *Nation*, is an occasion of profound sorrow to a great number of business associates and personal friends. Mr. Whiting's position in journalism—one of much delicacy and difficulty—was filled with almost ideal success. To the qualities of quick intelligence and sound judgment, and a habit of scrupulous accuracy, was added a large experience, and integrity which was not only absolute, but was never, even in the least degree, questioned. Dealing daily and often hurriedly with events and subjects affecting various and conflicting interests, in which many men were concerned, sometimes in an intense and passionate way, he convinced everybody of his impartiality and fairness, while at the same time he did his duty exactly to the journal he so faithfully and industriously served, and, which is the same thing, to the public. With this uncommon fitness for his special work, he had a remarkable pride in its successful performance. Mr. Whiting also made valuable contributions to the general discussion of important economic questions. In these relations his loss will be continuously felt and long lamented.

It has at last dawned upon the official-ecclesiastical mind of Cincinnati that perhaps the reputation of the Roman Catholic Church may be in some way affected by the financial eccentricities of Archbishop Purcell. Throughout the discussion of the question of his debts no doubt of his integrity has been anywhere suggested. Had his system of bookkeeping been as perfect as his honesty, and had his ability in the investment and general management of trust funds equalled the purity of his intentions, there probably would have been no trouble. If it be true as a matter of law that the Archbishop is solely and personally responsible for the money which he received on deposit as an individual savings bank and failed to return to the depositors, it is also true as a matter of fact that he never would have been accepted as a depositary by his creditors but for his eminent ecclesiastical position. The Church having given him opportunity and standing as a trustee, the Church may be held morally accountable for the performance of his trust. At all events, the *Catholic Telegraph*, the organ of the Cincinnati Diocese, says that "the honor of the Church is at stake," and can be saved only by a settlement of the claims. Among the plans it suggests for raising the money is a great lottery scheme. There are people, however, who will discover some confusion of moral notions in the proposal to discharge a moral obligation by encouraging on an enormous scale a practice which the Church and the world have long discouraged as decidedly immoral.

It is an excellent sign to find the Society of American Artists passing the following resolution, as they did on the 7th of November:

"Resolved, That the attention of the present Tariff Commission and of Congress should be called to the fact that whereas the United States of America is the only leading nation in the world that has not inherited the works of art of any great epoch of the past, it is at the same time the only nation that puts a penalty, by means of a tariff, upon the importation of works of art, both ancient and modern; and that in the opinion of this Society all works of art should be excepted from the payment of duties, both in the interest of art in general, and of American art in particular."

For many years there was among American artists a strong feeling of hostility to the importation of foreign works of art, at all events modern, and some disliked the importation of all works of art, ancient or modern, on the general ground that it would interfere with the sale of native works of art, and thus discourage native painters and sculptors. If we remember rightly, about fifteen years ago a petition asking for higher duties on foreign pictures received numerous signatures and was presented to Congress. Combined with this feeling was a strong dislike of the picture dealers, who used to be accused freely of combining to prevent the sale of American pictures and promote that of foreign ones; the basis of the charge being that there was, really, a better demand here among picture buyers for the former than the latter. It was, of course, absurd, because men do not engage in the picture-dealing business for the purpose of pushing the claims of any particular school on public encouragement, but for the purpose of making money. If, therefore, they show a greater disposition to purchase foreign than American pictures, it is because they find a readier sale for them. In other words, it is in every country those who buy pictures to keep for their own pleasure who make the market for them, and not those who buy them to sell again. A horse-dealer who picks up all the short-backed horses he can find, is not supposed to be doing so because he himself prefers the short-backed variety, but because he finds that that is what his patrons desire.

This American-artist view of the matter was what may be called the mechanical one. It assumed that Art was a branch of industry, like spinning, weaving, iron-making, or plough-making, in all of which high excellence had been attained by natives under the fostering influence of protection from foreign competition, and that if foreign pictures were only kept out long enough, we should soon have painters equal to the modern ones of France, Germany, or Italy, and far superior to the old masters of any country. It wholly ignored the value of art traditions, and the influence of familiarity with works of art as a means of training, to say nothing of the need of such a thing as an art atmosphere or of a national impulse in the direction of art. In fact, it made the artist an inventor simply. It fell in, too, completely with the humor and knowledge of the bulk of Congressmen of that period, and fully accounted for the commission of the statue of Lincoln to Miss Vinnie Ream. To most Congressmen art was simple imitation of natural objects, and, therefore, any Congressman with a good pair of eyes was as good a judge of a picture or statue as anybody else. We believe the best defence of this theory ever made was made in the Senate by Mr Timothy Howe against Charles Sumner, who held the effete view that to judge a picture you must have seen and studied a great many good pictures, and, more than this, must have an adequate conception of what the painters of the best pictures had in mind in painting them.

The story of Morgan, the secret-revealing Mason, is told again by the *Sun* in the interesting and minutely circumstantial manner of the late Thurlow Weed. It is not substantially different from what was told long ago. Mr. Weed, however, put this statement in the form of an affidavit, of which the jurat is dated as late as the 28th of last September. It is more specific as to persons. The names of the men concerned in the abduction and homicide are given. One of these, John Whitney, fifty-one years ago made a confession of his share in the proceeding to Mr. Weed, in the presence of other persons. Whitney died more than twenty years ago, after requesting Mr. Weed to prepare for him a statement of facts to be published after his death, but Mr. Weed was prevented from doing this. The most remarkable fact about the case is that Whitney should have chosen so violent an Anti-Mason as Mr. Thurlow Weed as the repository of his confidence.

The investigation into the operations of "corners" in produce on Monday, by the Committee of the Legislature, was a very curious affair. Dr. Howard Crosby was called to give evidence as to the moral effect of corners on the community, but had to confess that he knew nothing about corners except what he saw in the newspapers, and was evidently under the impression that the term included all sales for future delivery, of which the great bulk of the commission business in produce is composed. How he could tell, under these conditions, what the moral effect of corners on the community was, did not clearly appear. His theory of legitimate business, as explained by him, would, in fact, largely shut out sagacity, and foresight, and energy from all influence on trade. He likened trade to an attempt to sail across the Atlantic by the aid of the winds and currents, and the speculator in corners to a person who can manipulate the winds and waves for his own interest. But the owner of a steamer does this very thing as against the owner of a sailing vessel, and a good navigator sailing a clipper does it as against a bad navigator sailing an old tub. A number of produce dealers were also examined, who all testified against legislative interference, but the Committee seemed hardly to know enough of the subject to be able to follow their evidence.

Professor Tharpe, of the Somerville (Tenn.) Female College, a quiet, gentlemanly man, we are told, heard last week that his brother-in-law, Captain Burton, was going about the town denouncing and threatening to kill him. Burton's character was such as to leave no doubt on the minds of those who heard his threats that he would attempt to execute them. Professor Tharpe heard of them, and all the family heard of them. No one, however, appears to have thought of having the Captain arrested and prosecuted, or bound over to keep the peace. The Professor accordingly provided for his personal safety by arming himself with a double-barrelled shotgun, and then waited on the Captain at a billiard-saloon, where he was playing a quiet game, and blew the top of his head off, so that he died in a few minutes. We are glad to know from the Memphis *Public Ledger* that "until this unfortunate affair the Professor was never engaged in any difficulty of any kind," and also that "this terrible affair is greatly deplored, and has cast a gloom over the entire community." The Memphis *Avalanche*, however, explains that the community on the whole approves of the Professor's act, because the occasion was one "where the law seems powerless to protect the slayer. It certainly could not protect him unless strictly enforced as well by the officers of the law as by an omnipotent public opinion, and both these conditions were lacking." This is, in fact, the whole case in a nutshell. Southern communities will not enforce their own laws for the protection of human life, and, when murders occur, try to make up for it by "deploring" and "regretting" and feeling "gloomy" over them. The murderers, however, do not seem to care a cent for the lowness of spirits caused by their operations. They murder just the same. We need hardly say that Burton had committed other murders before he threatened

to murder his brother-in-law. In 1867 he killed Frank Erickson, formerly Coroner of Shelby County, and was arrested and tried, but discharged. A few months ago he had a dispute with Mr. R. S. Taylor, "in which he cut that gentleman," we are told, "very severely." It must not be supposed, however, that he "cut" him, in the Northern or English fashion, by refusing to recognize him in the street: he cut him, butcher fashion, with a knife, and for this he was actually tried, found guilty, and subjected to the indignity of a fine. This, says the Memphis *Appeal*, "humiliated him greatly, and he threatened to kill several newspaper men, and also attempted to intimidate the Court on account of it," which served the Court right; for, as appears, it let him off with a fine "out of respect to his family." For poor Mr. Taylor's family the Court apparently had no respect, though they had to nurse him through the Burton "cuts."

The close of the *Appeal's* remarks is a delicious little bit of what we may call homicidal literature:

> "It may be recorded, *en passant*, that Colonel Burton's brother Lewis killed another brother in 1878, and that the whole family conducted a *vendetta* against the Reeves family, which resulted in their extermination. There is, we believe, but one of the Burton family left, a nephew of the man who was yesterday murdered by his brother-in law."

There is nothing racier in humorous writing than this little phrase, "en passant." We are very sorry the Reeveses are all gone, because they could now furnish the newspapers with some thrilling gossip about the Burtons. It is hardly to be supposed that the affair will end here. Burton leaves a wife and four children. If there are boys among them, they will undoubtedly, in the present condition of education in that part of the country, grow up with the feeling that they ought to kill their uncle, the Professor; so that lively times, as well as much "gloom," are still in store for Somerville.

The British Colonial Office is having a dismal experience in Jamaica of the work of governing a "Crown colony" from Downing Street. It wants to make the Jamaicans pay half the damages of a wrongful seizure of a vessel by the local custom-house, and it enforces its order by packing the Governor's Council with a majority of official members. The whole island is, therefore, in a state bordering on revolt. What increases the difficulty is that there does not seem to be any remedy within reach. Local self-government, with representative institutions, has been tried and failed miserably, so that after the so-called negro insurrection in 1865, in which Governor Eyre figured so prominently, it was all swept away, and the despotic authority of the Crown substituted, apparently to everybody's relief. The whites were glad, it seemed, and so were the blacks, as they could not live peaceably together, and the Parliament was a wretched affair, and the island was running down in every way. Now the island is prosperous, but about $20,000 is about to be levied unjustly by the Home Government, and the spirit of Hampden, and Sam Adams, and Benjamin Franklin has begun, it is said, to glow in the breasts of the whole people, white and colored, male and female.

Mr. Trevelyan finds his troubles in Ireland are by no means over, but they have probably been got into more manageable shape. The Land Act has greatly diminished the outrages in the country districts, and it has been helped by the transfer of the trials for capital offences to Dublin, where convictions are readily obtained. The number of outrages occurring during the past month is lower, Mr. Trevelyan says, than it has been for twenty-eight months. The removal of the trials to Dublin is proving so effective as a means of obtaining convictions that the secret-society men have evidently determined to counteract it by intimidating the juries there also. This is the probable meaning of the attack on one of the jurors in the Hynes case, and of the murder of the detective, and other disturbances. There is much reason to fear that it may prove effective, because no protection a government can give to a man engaged in the ordinary business of life will ease his mind, if he believes that he is for any reason exposed to the attacks of assassins as determined as these Dublin conspirators seem to be. The signs from the country districts are, however, very good. The murderers of the Joyce family will, apparently, get their deserts with the hearty approval of their neighbors, and news comes from Tipperary that a party of "moonlighters" were not only successfully resisted by the occupants of a house which they attacked, but pursued and captured.

The difficulties the Tories are having with Gladstone are very amusing. Since Tel-el-Kebir so completely set him on his legs again they do not well know how to get at him. The charge of general wickedness in which they most indulge makes no impression on the public mind, and in truth makes the Liberals laugh. The Irish outrages, too, are falling off in number, so that it is not possible to make him responsible for a sad increase in Irish crime. Then the opposition to the closure rules has completely broken down, owing to the failure of the Irish members to take an active part in it. Under these circumstances, there is nothing to be done but revive the old story of the "Treaty of Kilmainham," which was done by Mr. Yorke on Friday, Mr. Gladstone meeting it all with a flat denial, the end being that Mr. Yorke's motion was negatived without a division. At the bottom of it all is the old English superstition that the Irish are such bad men that it would be disgraceful to negotiate with them, even when they are in jail without indictment or trial; the fact being that negotiation with the Irish to get their votes is as proper as to get those of the Scotch or the Whigs. The Tory Opposition has gone utterly to pieces by the departure of Sir Stafford Northcote for the Mediterranean. His lieutenants have no policy except to cut off Gladstone's head, and no hope except in his death. But he continues amazingly vigorous.

M. Valbert gives, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, an entertaining French version of the quarrel between Stanley and Brazza, the two African explorers, who have come to loggerheads, and are now both in France stating their grievances against each other. Stanley, of course, everybody knows. He has lately given up the business of exploring and taken to that of "exploiting," as the French say, or "developing resources," as we have it. He has become the agent of a great commercial company, mainly Belgian, formed to develop the vast basin of the Congo River, and has lately been constructing a road round the falls which make the lower part of it unnavigable, and has been launching boats higher up. The basin of the Congo is certainly worth struggling for, because it contains, as nearly as can be estimated, 80,000,000 of inhabitants, occupying a territory of extraordinary fertility and vast extent, many of them very peaceable and industrious, and having made considerable progress in the arts. When Stanley first explored the region in 1877, he seems, according to his own account, to have made his way in many places by violence rather than diplomacy, and was victorious in several bloody combats, in which the breech-loader did wonders, as General de Failly said, among the natives. The memories this left behind have proved a great misfortune for him, for, while he was pushing further into the interior, or at home organizing his company, Brazza, an enterprising Italian, but a naturalized Frenchman, and an officer of the French Navy, slipped into the region as a French explorer and exploiter on peace principles, fraternized with the chiefs, got them to bury the hatchet, he putting a bundle of cartridges into the same grave, hoisted the tricolor, which the natives regard as a fetish of great power, probably abused Stanley, and in fact annexed an indeterminate amount of territory to the French Republic, and made a treaty with Makoko, a local king of great respectability and influence.

Consequently, when Stanley returned in 1880, he found Brazza had established a town up the country called Brazzaville, had covered the adjacent region with the French flag, and put the whole in charge of a sergeant and one or two men. The result is, that Stanley has gone back to France and Belgium in considerable chagrin to state his grievances, and Brazza has followed him, and they had an amusing rencontre the other day in Paris, at a dinner given to Stanley. The French, as might be expected, are hugely delighted that they should for once have got the better of an Englishman, or an American, in the colony business. It is the more grateful because, as M. Valbert points out, the Congo is now the only great African river which has not been appropriated by some European Power. The English have got hold of the Nile, and they are trying to wrest the Zambesi from the Portuguese, and are exerting a growing influence in the valley of the Lower Niger. Moreover, the banks of the Congo produce coffee, cocoa, sugar, cotton, palm oil, resin, dye woods, *ad libitum*. Decidedly, they say, Brazza is a great man, though, unhappily, like so many great Frenchmen, he is an Italian. In fact, what or where would France be without Italians?

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, November 22, to TUESDAY, November 28, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Saturday afternoon much excitement was caused in Washington by the announcement that the President, after consultation with the Cabinet, had ordered the removal from office of C. E. Henry, Marshal of the District of Columbia; D. B. Ainger, and M. M. Parker, Postmaster and Assistant-Postmaster, respectively, of the District of Columbia; M. D. Helm, foreman in the Government Printing Office, and in charge of the *Congressional Record;* and ex-Senator Spencer, Government Director of the Union Pacific Railroad, for obstructing in various ways the course of justice in the Star-route trials. Mr. George Bliss addressed on November 11 a letter to the President, detailing the charges against the abovementioned officers, which was referred to the Attorney-General, who recommended the removal of all of them. The correspondence was read at the Cabinet meeting on Saturday, and the Attorney-General's opinion was unanimously approved. Ainger and Parker have written a letter to the President stating the allegations against them to be "false in every particular," and asking him to suspend action until the "matter can be thoroughly investigated by a commission, or any other fair method your wisdom may suggest."

On Monday, President Arthur appointed Colgate Hoyt, of New York, a Government Director of the Union Pacific Railroad, in place of George E. Spencer, dismissed.

A letter from Mr. Wayne McVeagh to President Arthur, dated November 8, 1881, just before his retirement from the Cabinet, was published on Tuesday. The letter was written in reply to one from the President on the subject of the Star-route frauds, and in it Mr. McVeagh explains his reasons for not remaining in the Cabinet to prosecute the Star-route trials. He says that a newspaper published and circulated in the District of Columbia among the residents from among whom the jurors in the trial must be selected, has been constantly filled with abuse of every one connected with the Star-route investigation during General Garfield's term, and that the influence of such a constant outpour upon a community of jurors was sure to be very great. "While these newspapers," he adds, "have been abusing me, they have been as steadily praising you, and to such an extent that they are sometimes foolishly mistaken for and called your organs. Then, too, you will have observed that both before and since I left Washington all kinds of falsehoods concerning our relations have been published, purporting to be semi-official, and if not denied, at least not discouraged." These and other considerations, together with the fact of the relations which exist between Mr. Gorham and some of President Arthur's most influential friends, Mr. MacVeagh goes on to say, are well calculated to produce the impression in the District that his remaining in office to prosecute the offenders would be a notice that President Arthur was not in sympathy with the prosecutions, and that President Garfield's Administration and not his own should be responsible for them; and such a construction of the state of affairs by the residents of the District would have a powerful if not a fatal influence upon the result of the prosecutions. For these reasons the Attorney-General deems it expedient that he should resign his place in the Cabinet, though he should be most willing to do anything in his power as a private citizen and a lawyer to aid the Administration to a successful prosecution.

The Garfield Monument Fair, in the rotunda of the Capitol, was formally opened by President Arthur on Saturday afternoon. The General of the Army, the members of the Cabinet, and Judges of the Supreme Court were present, and every inch of space was densely crowded. The President expressed his regret that the managers of an enterprise so worthy of support had been unable to secure a place in which more appropriately to open the exhibition. Their inability to do so had deprived them of the opportunity of listening to an oration by Judge Matthews. The President said he would confine himself to doing little more than formally declare the exhibition open to the support of a generous public. It was entirely worthy of support, and the object for which it was arranged was admirable, as there was no spot in which a monument to Garfield could better be erected than in the city in which he had spent so much of his life.

A report coming from Washington, said to be founded on excellent authority, in regard to the recommendations to be made in the President's Message on the subject of tax reduction, says that he will express his firm opposition to the abolition of the entire internal-revenue system, but that he will recommend the repeal of all internal-revenue taxes except those on tobacco, distilled spirits, fermented liquors, and on manufacturers of, and dealers in, such articles, and that he will favor a reduction of the tax on tobacco and whiskey so as to bring down the annual product of internal taxes to about $100,000,000. It is further stated that he will urge upon Congress the importance of an immediate revision of the tariff.

On Saturday, Secretary Folger sent a telegram to Assistant Treasurer Acton, at New York, ordering him to accept unmatured bonds in all calls, including the one hundred and nineteenth, without rebate of interest, at the rate of $10,000,000 per week on any day of the week.

Mr. Loring, Commissioner of Agriculture, in his annual report, says that the Entomological Division has pursued investigations into the habits of many insects affecting the principal staples, and that much valuable information has been obtained thereby. Two and a half million packages of seeds have been distributed, and 260,000 copies of special reports printed. The Statistical Division estimates the crop yield for 1882 as follows: Corn, 1,635,000,000 bushels; wheat, 410,000,000; oats, 470,000,000; barley, 45,000,000; rye, 20,000,000; buckwheat, 12,000,000 bushels. The work of the Chemical Division has been largely devoted to the investigation of the sugar-producing qualities of sorghum and other plants.

The report of the General Superintendent of the Life-Saving Service shows that at the close of the fiscal year there were 190 stations—145 being on the Atlantic, 37 on the Lakes, 7 on the Pacific, and 1 at the Falls of the Ohio, Louisville, Ky. The number of disasters to documented vessels within the field of station operations during the year was 287. There were 2,268 persons on board these vessels, of whom 2,256 were saved, and only 12 lost. Excellent work has also been done in saving marine property. The condition of the service is better than ever before. An excellent selection of men has been placed at the command of the service, and this selection, says the Superintendent, has been made solely upon grounds of professional fitness, to the absolute exclusion of political or other considerations.

The Chief of the Revenue Marine Division of the Treasury Department, in his report for the past fiscal year, strongly opposes the transfer of the bureau to the control of the Navy Department.

The official count of the vote of the State of New York at the recent election is as follows: Cleveland's plurality, 193,824; his majority, 155,264; for Lieutenant-Governor: Hill's plurality, 197,135; for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals: Ruger's plurality, 73,663; for Congressman-at-large: Slocum's plurality, 107,656.

A caucus of the Democratic members of the Alabama Legislature was held on Monday night to nominate a candidate for the United States Senate to succeed Senator Morgan. A letter from ex-Governor Watts, withdrawing from the contest, was read. Senator Morgan was then nominated for reëlection by acclamation.

The investigation of the fraudulent voting at the late municipal election in New Orleans has so far covered ten of the seventeen wards of the city, and discloses the startling fact that less than 50 per cent. of the 21,473 registered voters participated in the election, and that 9,000 votes cast for the Democratic ticket were fraudulent. Only about 8 of the 50 polls so far examined are exempt from irregularities. A fund is being raised in the city to prosecute all the Commissioners who signed the returns of the stuffed boxes. All of the candidates on the Independent ticket have filed notices of contest.

The platform of the Trades Union Congress, which closed its session at Cleveland, Ohio, on Friday, calls for the enforcement of compulsory education laws; for the passage of laws forbidding the employment of children under fourteen years of age in any capacity; the adoption of uniform apprentice laws; the enactment and enforcement of a national eight-hour law; the abolition of the contract convict-labor system; the abolition of what is known as the "order" or "truck" system of payment; the passage of laws securing to workingmen a first lien upon property the product of their labor; the erasure of all acts known as conspiracy laws from the statute books; the establishment of a national bureau of labor statistics; and the passage by Congress of an act to prevent the importation of foreign labor under contract.

The Cincinnati *Catholic Telegraph* of Thursday contained an editorial urging upon the Catholic Church the pressing importance of disposing of the debts of Archbishop Purcell. This is the first outspoken utterance on the subject that has come from this organ of the Church.

A mass-meeting was held in the Academy of Music, New York, on Tuesday, to take steps to raise $250,000 for a pedestal for the Bartholdi statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," which it is proposed to erect on Bedloe's Island in New York harbor. Mr. W. M. Evarts presided, and at the end of the meeting announced that the committee would begin an active canvass for funds.

Mr. Thurlow Weed, for many years a prominent journalist and politician in New York State, died in New York on Wednesday, at the age of eighty-five.

On Tuesday the New York *Sun* published a sworn affidavit of Mr. Thurlow Weed in regard to the disappearance and death of William Morgan, who was said to have been spirited away by the Free Masons half a century ago, and whose disappearance caused the greatest excitement in the State of New York, resulting in the formation of a national Anti-Masonic party. The affidavit gives a circumstantial account of the crime, which was committed by the Masonic societies, and was communicated by a participator therein to Mr. Weed, to be used by him as a weapon of defence when he was hard pressed in a court of law. The arbitrary ruling of the Judge rendered its use unnecessary, and gratitude to the friend who proffered it made the secret inviolate. The affidavit alleges that Morgan was kidnapped by the Masons, and thrown into the Niagara River, with a weight attached to his body, and drowned.

Frank James, the Missouri bandit, was brought into court at Kansas City on Monday and pleaded not guilty to indictments for murder and bank-robbery. A large crowd gathered at the station to see him arrive by the train. The case will be called for trial on January 22.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday, discussion of the ninth procedure resolution

was continued. Mr. Gladstone agreed to an amendment that collective suspension should only be applied in cases of wilful disregard of the authority of the Chair. The rule was then adopted by a vote of 161 to 19. On Friday the tenth rule was adopted. This rule provides that if the Speaker or chairman of a committee of the whole House shall be of the opinion that a motion for the adjournment of a debate, or for the adjournment of the House during any debate, or a motion that the chairman do report progress, or do leave the chair, is made for the purpose of obstruction, he may forthwith put the question thereupon from the chair. On Friday the eleventh and twelfth—the last two procedure rules—were carried.

On Thursday a lively debate on the Arrears of Rent Act took place. Mr. Parnell and the other Irish members attacked the act. Mr. Gladstone denied that it had proved a failure. He said that he desired it to be universally known that the Government did not intend to introduce a bill to extend the period for the payment of the rent of 1881. Mr. Trevelyan made a speech in which he said that the act was the greatest benefit Parliament had ever extended to an unfortunate class of people. In regard to the threatened famine, he said that the Government would not underestimate the distress along the west coast of Ireland, and he would not cease to watch for evidences of suffering until the next harvest was gathered. He had ordered the most minute reports from seven counties. The Government would not advance money for public works, as that would be a most extravagant method of relief and would afford no real alleviation of the distress. The Government, he said, now intended to conduct the system of relief with an efficiency that would give the most positive assurance to the people that they would not starve.

On Friday there was a very lively debate on the "Kilmainham treaty." Mr. Yorke moved the adjournment of the House in order to discuss the affair. He said he did not contend that there was any secret treaty, but that there were communications, understandings, negotiations, and givings and takings by both sides. These really constituted a treaty, although the Government, with a certain amount of verbal accuracy, had persistently denied that any treaty existed. He charged Mr. Gladstone with "putting on a screw" to prevent discussion of the motion, and warned him that no career, however distinguished, would prevent a Premier from incurring the just indignation of the country if he was so relaxed by an atmosphere of adulation as to think that he could depart from arrangements openly entered into before the House and the country. In reply, Mr. Gladstone said the undeserved praise of his friends was counteracted by the continual accusations of Lord Randolph Churchill and Mr. Yorke. He warmly contended that it was the duty of the Government to catch at any pacific indications on the part of the imprisoned members that would enable the Government to release them. He maintained, however, that no communication had passed from the Government to Mr. Parnell on the subject, nor had Mr. Parnell sought or obtained from the Government any information in regard to his coming release, or concerning any measure intended by the Government. In short, there was no negotiation, promise, or agreement. Lord Randolph Churchill said the House was not a whit wiser after Mr. Gladstone's speech. The transaction had been so disgraceful that Earl Cowper and Mr. Forster had resigned on account of it. There was something in regard to it that had never seen the light. Having challenged inquiry, the Government now used every artifice to conceal it. After some further discussion, the Conservatives insisting upon the necessity for an inquiry, Mr. Yorke offered to withdraw his motion, but the Government refused to accept a withdrawal, and the motion was negatived without a division.

On Saturday night a detective named Cox was shot and killed in the streets of Dublin. Another detective named Eastwood shot Cox's assailant, whose name is Dolan and his profession brass-fitting. Two other men were arrested for complicity in the crime. Dolan, it is stated, will recover. On Monday a mob attacked the hospital where Dolan is lying, with the intention, it is supposed, of removing him, but were driven off by the police. On the same day a man named Dennis Field, who was a juror in the case of Hynes, who was hanged for murder of a herdsman, was attacked in Dublin by two men, who stabbed him in six places with a sword. Also, a bailiff who was serving a writ in Dublin was attacked, and received a severe stab-wound in the head. At a meeting of the Dublin Corporation on Monday a resolution was passed, on motion of Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, recording the horror of the Corporation at the outrages.

A meeting of the Privy Council was held in Dublin on Tuesday, and it was resolved to proclaim the city under the operation of the curfew section of the Repression Act, which authorizes the police to arrest all suspicious persons found in the streets between an hour after sunset and an hour before sunrise.

In the House of Commons on Monday, Mr. Trevelyan, replying to Mr. Gibson, asked the House to remember that there is a difference between the general state of Ireland and the crimes and violence in Dublin. He said that a conflict between the Dublin police and organized lawlessness seemed to have begun, but the Government was determined to use all the resources at its disposal to put down these latest developments of disorder. Mr. Trevelyan stated that the number of agrarian crimes in Ireland during the month was under 100, which had not been the case in any month for twenty-eight months. In reply to another question, he said that a recent speech of Mr. Redmond's at Cork, in which he recommended boycotting and revolution, was under the consideration of the Government.

In the House of Commons, on Tuesday, Mr. Trevelyan said the Government was disappointed at the slow progress of the business of the Land Courts, and that it would be obliged to adopt means to grapple with the block of cases. Four lay Commissioners would be attached to each Court instead of two, in order that two could inspect the farms while two were engaged in the Court.

In an address before the Scottish Conservative Club at Edinburgh, on Thursday, the Marquis of Salisbury taunted the Liberal Government with having adopted its predecessor's Egyptian policy. He denounced the action of the Government in regard to Ireland, and condemned the Arrears of Rent Act. Among other things, he said that he did not often envy the United States, but that their institutions possessed one feature which appeared to him a subject for the greatest envy—namely, their magnificent institution of the Supreme Court—for the reason that if Congress passed a measure inconsistent with the Constitution of the country, there exists a Court which will negative it at once, thus giving stability to the institutions of the country, "which under the system of vague and mysterious promises here we look for in vain."

At a recent mass meeting of the inhabitants of the Isle of Skye, one of the speakers said that any tenant paying rent, unless a revaluation was granted, would be a marked man; and it was resolved at the meeting to take every lawful means to prevent any one from taking a farm from which the tenant had been evicted. The authorities of Aberdeenshire have agreed to send a detachment of police to the island to assist in the serving of processes.

Mr. Wilfrid Blunt has written to the London *Times*, appealing to the public for help to defray the cost of the defence of Arabi Pasha, as, he says, the trial has assumed the character of a great state inquiry, and his (Mr. Blunt's) financial back is not strong enough to bear the load.

A recent telegram from the Governor of Sudan announced that the rebels have been defeated with great loss, and unconfirmed reports from Kordofan state that the False Prophet has been defeated and captured.

The Italian Parliament was opened on Wednesday. The speech from the throne was very pacific in tone. It recommended the Chamber to devote itself chiefly to economic, social, and administrative questions. It said the relations of Italy with foreign Powers were friendly. Thirty Radical members absented themselves from the opening, so as to avoid taking the oath to the King and the Constitution.

A pontifical circular has been issued in regard to the recent decision of the Italian Court of Appeals declaring that the jurisdiction of Italian tribunals extends within the walls of the Vatican. The circular declares that the sentence of the Court is in violation of the extra-territorial character of the Vatican, and an insult to the Pope.

A dynamite cartridge, which had been placed at the entrance to the gambling saloons at Monte Carlo, exploded on Sunday evening, causing a great panic and wounding an officer. An Italian has been arrested in connection with the affair.

A despatch from St. Petersburg says that an official announcement, relative to the closing of the University there, states that the agitation had been noticed among the students at the beginning of October. On Tuesday, the 21st inst., the ringleaders went to the length of distributing circulars, summoning a mass-meeting of students, to express sympathy with the students of the Kazan University. The Curator thereupon applied for the assistance of the police, who arrested 100 students. Fourteen of them were suspended.

A despatch from Bucharest says that in the Chamber of Deputies on Friday the question of the succession to the throne was raised, and the President of the Council said that it had been settled, as Prince Leopold, of Hohenzollern, had renounced his rights to the crown in favor of his son, who would shortly take up his residence in Rumania.

Prince Bismarck has rejected the preliminary draft, prepared by the Minister of Finance, of a bill abolishing the four lowest grades of class tax, and has instructed the Minister to recast the preamble. The introduction of the bill will consequently be delayed. It is generally believed, however, that the bill has no chance of a final adoption.

There are tidings of more floods in Europe. The Neckar, Main, and Moselle Rivers are bringing down a great body of water, and at Frankfort, Mayence, Coblentz, and Cologne the cellars in the streets along the water front have been submerged. The Elbe Valley is also flooded.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday a bill was adopted prolonging the powers of the Commission appointed to settle the compensation to French and American citizens during the civil war in America, and the Franco-Prussian war, respectively.

A popular vote recently taken in Switzerland, in regard to the cantonal schools, has annulled a decision of the Federal Assembly requiring cantons to provide compulsory and adequate primary education, which, as far as the public schools were concerned, was to be under the exclusive control of the State. Orthodox Catholics, Protestants, and Conservatives disliked the proposed State control of the schools and the infringement of the cantonal sovereignty.

The Spanish Cabinet has resolved to reply, to the demands of the United States Government in regard to the losses suffered by Americans during the Cuban insurrection, that they will act in conformity with the principles of strict justice.

TEACHING IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

Dr. Howard Crosby made some observations on college education in America before the Phi Beta Kappa Association on Friday, which would have been more valuable if they had been less dogmatic and denunciatory, but contained nevertheless many useful hints and suggestions. Some of his criticisms of existing college methods, however, have an odd sound coming from a friend of accurate thinking and observation. He denounced written examination, which is now at least partially in use in most of our colleges, on the ground that "it is a foreign institution adopted from our preposterous regard for everything foreign"—an observation, it seems to us, worthier of John Roach than of the ex-Chancellor of a university. Colleges themselves are a foreign institution. They were not invented in America. Moreover, in the vocabulary of science there is no such word as "foreign." The sole question to be asked about any method, either of acquiring or communicating knowledge, is not, Where did it originate? but, Is it adapted to the wants of human nature? The human mind is the same in America as in Europe, and the modes of getting things into the human mind have to be essentially the same everywhere.

Another of Dr. Crosby's reasons for condemning examination papers is that the "vivâ-voce method helps to quick thinking, and teaches the student how to express his thoughts in speech." This is true, and the use of the vivâ-voce method in the minor examinations may for this reason be desirable; but an examination which is intended to reveal the full extent of a man's knowledge on a given subject ought not to be converted into a means of teaching him rhetoric or elocution. Moreover, the division of examinations between the oral and written methods which is now common is exactly adapted to the wants of human nature as at present known, and pretty well known. That some men are by nature better able to say what they have to say on any subject with the pen than with the tongue, is one of the familiar facts of every-day life. The converse is also true. Consequently, society contains many useful men who write well but cannot speak, and other very useful men who speak well but cannot write. The difference is notoriously not one of training simply, but of nervous structure. It would, therefore, be very absurd for colleges to ignore this distinction in their system of teaching. Dr. Crosby's plan would, in a large number of cases, give the highest marks to mere natural glibness. At the same time we do not deny that examinations wholly written may ignore what is a very high form of excellence in a student—the ability to draw promptly on his resources in a clear oral statement.

Dr. Crosby's objection to "the elective system"—or the system by which the student is allowed to choose his own curriculum—on the ground that "a youth of eighteen is not fit to select his studies," will, we think, commend itself to everybody who has observed its working in its extreme form. It does give great and often fatal facilities to the lazy to shirk subjects requiring hard work, and leads too often to the selection of a hodge-podge of unrelated studies, from the pursuit of which together no real mental discipline can be got. But when he tells us that "the well-rounded education is gone," if he means thereby the education which used to be got from driving all students through one curriculum without any regard to aims or natural capacity, he indulges in something very like extravagance. There never was any such "well-rounded education." The old college graduate, turned out by the old classical and mathematical mill, was not a "well-rounded man." He almost always was out of shape in some way, and if he is "gone," the world is well rid of him. Here, again, what the times seem to call for is a mixed system. There ought to be *some* liberty of election, but not complete liberty. The young men's tastes and aims ought to have some play, but it ought to be in the choice of groups of subjects, or courses prepared by the Faculty, and not of single subjects—that is, curricula ought to be provided for certain varieties of minds, and not for individual minds. The assistance of the college in choosing courses is also, perhaps, more necessary in this country than in Europe, because the number of students in our colleges whose fathers are not "college-bred," and are therefore unable to advise or direct their sons' studies, is probably much larger than in those of the Old World.

Dr. Crosby's criticism as to the way in which athletic sports are cultivated in our colleges will meet, we fancy, with pretty general approval from competent observers. The general public is, we believe, under the impression that too much time is given to these things by the bulk of our undergraduates in the great Eastern colleges. There never was a greater mistake. The fact is, there is far too little. The college base-ball, boating, and foot-ball which make so much talk in the newspapers are shared in really by about two or three dozen young men in each college, whose expenses are paid by their fellows. All the "athletic sport" that the great majority of the students get consists in the payment of money to the "college eight," or "college nine," as the case may be, though the introduction of bicycling and the establishment of gymnasiums have of late undoubtedly tended to cause a wider diffusion of physical culture. It is also true that, objectionable as some of the accompaniments of the boat clubs and base-ball clubs may be, their existence and their triumphs and éclat serve a valuable purpose in keeping alive the interest in physical condition without which the "well-rounded man" will, under any system of education, be an impossibility. They have done much to create and foster the admiration for health and vigor without which college men, in our time, cannot exert much influence in the world, no matter how great their culture may be. The days are gone by when mere learning made an idol of the possessor. Culture in our time needs to have a man in good "condition" behind it to command popular respect. The grandeur of the "college consumptives," as Dennis Kearney called them, is gone for ever.

THE APPROACHING TRANSIT OF VENUS.

The passage of the planet Venus across the face of the sun, which will occur on the 6th of December, will be the last phenomenon of this kind that can be observed for more than a century, the next taking place A. D. 2004. The transit of 1874 was well observed by the principal nations of the globe, and adequate preparations have been made by the same governments to obtain all possible data with regard to the coming transit. Whatever may be the final result of the observations, it is of the last importance that we should leave to our successors a complete account of all the phenomena, just as the astronomers of the eighteenth century left to us their records.

The main object of all the elaborate preparations is to obtain such observations as will enable the distance of the sun from the earth to be expressed in *miles*. It is to be remarked that this datum is of no special use to astronomers in their calculations, for the unit of these is not the mile, but the distance of the sun from the earth itself; and this is always employed by them as the fundamental unit and is called unity, irrespective of what its value in kilometres or miles or yards may be. All the dimensions of the solar system can be expressed in terms of this unit with great exactness; it is only when we come to give these same dimensions in popular language that the uncertainty comes in. The whole question of the determination of distances in the solar system is generally misunderstood, and the degree of precision of astronomical deductions is therefore not appreciated. To put the matter in a familiar way, we may say that it is entirely possible, from known astronomical facts, to construct a map of the solar system on any scale you may choose, which shall be entirely accurate. On this map one can lay down the orbits of the various planets and of their satellites with such precision that no error could be detected, even if the map was many yards in extent. In each orbit the planet that occupies it can be plotted in its proper relative size, and the sun can be placed in its proper position and with its appropriate dimensions.

The numbers which form the basis of such a map are those with which the astronomer works; for his purposes it makes no difference whether the distance of the sun is 93,000,000 or 92,000,000 miles. He can express all the dimensions of his map in terms of this distance (whatever it may be), and this can be done with a surprising degree of precision. The uncertainty comes in only when it is required to give the *scale* on which the map is constructed—to say how many inches on the map correspond to how many miles in space. If any one of the dimensions on the map can be so expressed in miles or yards, all become known, from the relative dimensions which are there expressed. It is of just as much use, therefore, to determine the distance of Mars from the sun as to determine the distance of the earth. In fact, one of the ways of determining this latter datum is to fix the distance of Mars, from which all the other distances (in miles) become known.

As long ago as 1716 it was suggested (by

Halley) that the transits of Venus would serve to determine the sun's distance, and the method has been tried three times—at the transits of 1761, 1769, and 1874. The transit of 1761 was observed by 176 observers at 117 stations, and that of 1769 was equally well observed. From the data furnished by these two transits Encke, in 1835, determined the sun's distance to be about 95,000,000 miles. This was acknowledged to be the best determination possible from the observations. But as time wore on, and as astronomers tried some of the other methods of obtaining the same quantity, it was found to be too large a distance to be reconciled with these latter determinations. The transit of Venus of 1874 was looked forward to as likely to settle all these doubts, many of which were supposed to have their origin in the defects of the telescopes used by the observers of the eighteenth century. The expeditions of 1874 were supplied with the best instruments possible, and, besides this, they had the great advantage of employing photography to register the positions of Venus on the sun's disc. The photographs were not affected by any of the uncertainties to which even the best observers are liable, and the measures of the photographs could be made at home and at leisure, and could be repeated as many times as might be desirable to insure accuracy. It may be said that the results of the eye observations of 1874 showed them to be affected by errors of the same sort and even of the same amount as those of the earlier transits.

The photographic processes employed by the European nations were certainly unsuccessful. Fortunately, the American photographs were taken by another method, and the results from the discussion of these gave a very satisfactory agreement. A conference of European astronomers was held at Paris in 1881 to decide on the methods which should be employed to observe the next transit. The results from the American photographs were not known to them, and they decided not to employ photographs at the coming transit. The American Transit of Venus Commission, however, do not share these views, and they are to employ the same photographic methods in 1882 as were used in 1874, and they confidently expect to obtain equally good results.

The parties of the various nations are now at their posts, which are scattered all along the southern parts and the eastern and western coasts of South America, all through the West Indies, in New Zealand, Madagascar, and the south of Africa. Every possible precaution suggested by the experience of the last transit has been taken, and if the weather is generally good, it is not to be doubted that the returns will be most creditable to the science of our generation, and that we shall not be ashamed to transmit our observations to our successors. Nearly the whole of the United States is favorably situated for observing this transit, and there are enough astronomers, professional and amateur, to insure a full observation, provided only that the winter sky is clear. "Instructions for Observing the Transit of Venus" will be sent to any one on his application to the Naval Observatory, Washington.

THE DEBATES ON PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE.

LONDON, November 11, 1882.

AFTER a discussion, begun in February, which has occupied the House of Commons for nineteen days, a final and decisive division has at last been taken on the first of Mr. Gladstone's Procedure Resolutions—that which provides for the closing of debates. Hitherto, as your readers are no doubt aware, there has been no limit to the duration of a debate, no means of bringing it to an end so long as any speaker desired to be heard. Practically, of course, when discussion had gone on for a long time, the impatience of the House and the pressure of the leaders on each side had compelled those who still desired to speak to submit to silence. But last year the systematic resistance of the Parnellite party to the Irish Coercion Bill was so obstinate and protracted, that the Speaker overcame it by assuming the right of putting the question in spite of their protests; and immediately afterward certain temporary rules were adopted giving him a species of dictatorship whenever the House should have affirmed that the state of public business was "urgent." After the experience of determined obstruction which that year supplied, it was generally felt that the creation of some new rules could be no longer delayed, and the result was the code of procedure which the Government proposed last February and which the House of Commons is now debating.

The first resolution enables the majority of the House to insist on having the main question put; but it does so under several important restrictions. In the first place, the Speaker must declare, of his own independent motion, that he conceives that the subject has been adequately debated, and that the "evident sense of the House" desires the main question to be put. Then a motion to that effect must be made. And finally this motion must be carried either (*a*) by the vote of at least two hundred members, or (*b*), in case that less than forty members oppose it, by a vote of at least one hundred members. It has, therefore, the appearance of being a much less drastic rule than the "previous question" in your House of Representatives, or than the *clôture* of the French Assembly, because our Speaker is understood to be, and has indeed always been, a perfectly impartial chairman, bound to regard the minority as much as the majority, and to keep himself entirely aloof from party feelings.

Opinion is divided as to the probable effect of this new rule. A large section of the Liberals think it will be almost inoperative, and certainly inadequate to grapple with the evil of obstruction. They conceive that the Speaker will only put it in force in the most extreme cases, and fear that it may even increase obstruction, because pugnacious or vexatious members will obstruct with the view of trying how far they can go, and provoking the Chair to wield this unpopular weapon. Mr. Gladstone has himself intimated that he thinks it will be resorted to rarely, and that its chief use will be as a warning. On the other hand, the whole Conservative Opposition, the Irish Parnellite Opposition, a certain small section of the moderate Liberals, and a still smaller section, numbering only five or six, of the Radicals, regard it with terror as well as anger. They declare it to be aimed at the right of free speech; they call it "the gag," "the deathknell of parliamentary institutions," the establishment of a "ministerial despotism." The strength of this aversion may be measured by the exceedingly tenacious resistance which has compelled a special autumnal sitting of the House, and has protracted the debate on a comparatively simple proposition for so long a period. It is worth while to inquire what are the sources of this feeling, and why so much is made of a change which others hold to be so slight as to have been scarcely worth making.

As regards the Conservative Opposition, most Liberal journals think their hostility a factitious and unreal one, due merely to the bitterness of party feeling, which is resolved to resist whatever the Government proposes. Party feeling, no doubt, counts for a great deal at present, especially among the Conservatives. They have not yet recovered from their anger and surprise at the defeat of 1880; and as they ascribe that defeat to the violent invectives of the Liberals, they conceive that similar tactics are their proper retaliation. No doubt they also hold that this question is a good one on which to give battle, because the cry of freedom of speech seems a popular one; because the constituencies have never expressed any opinion on the question of parliamentary procedure—a matter which they cannot be expected to understand; and because there is some disaffection in the Liberal ranks, some misgivings as to the effect of the proposed rule. These reasons have doubtless intensified their resistance by making them more sanguine of its issue. But it is a great mistake to think that they are insincere in their alarm. There is a note of real terror in their speeches, and an irritation beyond that which mere party spirit generates. Two grounds may be assigned for the irritation. One is the long delay in bringing the question to an issue. If the rule had been pressed vigorously through when first brought forward, they would have submitted with a better grace. But the repeated postponements and interruptions due to the state of Ireland inspired them with the hope that it might be dropped altogether, or largely modified; and the vexation at Mr. Gladstone's pertinacity in pushing it through is proportionately great. The other is that in May last Mr. Gladstone offered Sir Stafford Northcote to consent to the substitution of a two-thirds majority for a bare majority as the majority needed to enforce the closing power. He did this in the hope that the rules as a whole might in that case be quickly pushed through, and the session made available for other business. When the Phœnix Park murders and the consequent necessity of devoting what remained of the session to Irish affairs destroyed this hope, he considered his offer, which had never been accepted, to be *ipso facto* withdrawn, and reverted to his original intention of insisting on closure by a simple instead of a two-thirds majority, having even while making the offer intimated that his preference for the former was so strong that nothing but the urgency of the case induced him to waive it. This was a bitter disappointment to the Opposition, who have ever since repeated that the Government cannot really care about the point if they were once willing to forego it, and have even accused them of a breach of faith. (The *Times* newspaper has been specially earnest in this contention, but its influence would seem to have declined, for the Liberal party has become more zealous in support of the Government the longer the question has been before them.)

To explain the alarm of the Opposition is a more difficult matter. They are, to be sure, in a minority in the House of Commons, but their minority is a strong one: they have an overwhelming majority in the House of Lords, and they are extremely powerful in the country, the great majority of the richer classes being with them, as well as large sections of the middle and even of the working classes. Something must probably be ascribed to their fear of Mr. Gladstone. His strenuous will, his unprecedented popularity, and power make him the most formidable opponent they have had to confront during the last two centuries; and they believe that

with this new weapon he may storm those entrenchments of parliamentary obstruction on which they rely as a last line of defence. I do not mean to say that the Conservatives have ever as a party resorted to obstructive tactics: they have had too much good sense and good feeling for such a course; nor would Mr. Disraeli (who never used it himself) have permitted it had he lived, for he knew the ultimate dangers it would involve. But they have been accustomed to extort compromises and minimize sweeping measures by protracting debates and raising a host of objections. They see in the closing power a means of defeating such methods of resistance; they believe that the Liberal party, which is more united and loyal to its leaders than at any time within recent memory, will now be able to carry in its entirety whatever measure its leaders propose, sweeping away their defences by the exercise of the closing power, "rushing through" a bill before they have had time to dissect it in detail. And then, which is perhaps the gravest cause of fear, they apprehend from the Government a series of revolutionary measures, directed against the landed aristocracy and the rights of property in general. The impression made by the Irish Land Act was profound. It laid down principles new in English legislation, and though those principles were advocated only as applicable to Ireland, they expect to see them applied to England also. They feel, therefore, as if they were already engaged in a death struggle for their estates, and for the maintenance of that whole English social system which the upper classes prize. This, if not a complete, is at least the most plausible explanation of their attitude, for although they constantly insist that it is for the right of unlimited free discussion that they are concerned, they were unanimous in putting down Irish obstruction last session by the rules of urgency, and most of them would have been willing to accept closure by a two-thirds majority, since such a closure, while it could have been used to silence a small Irish or Radical minority, would have been powerless against that large minority which the Tories can always count upon having.

The sentiments of the few moderate Liberals who dislike the new rule require no special examination, for they are substantially those which I have been just describing. These moderate Liberals are for many purposes Conservatives, who mostly belong to the landed gentry, and are attached to the Liberal party rather by personal ties than by conviction. They were nearly all willing to accept closure by a two-thirds majority; and although they voted against the Government when such a majority was under discussion, they have almost all in this last and critical division either returned to their allegiance or abstained from voting. It takes a great deal to make an old Whig (the name by which this section likes to be known) vote against his party. As respects the few Radicals who resist the introduction of a closing power, it is enough to say, without speculating on the individual motives of each, that they seem to have been generally possessed by the fear that it would be used to check liberty of speech, and silence the voices of a small minority. Several of them avowed their sympathy with the Irish obstruction of last session, and when pressed with the argument that such obstruction would stop the wheels of Parliament altogether, replied that the true remedy is not summarily to put an end to a debate, but to proceed penally against individual obstructors.

There remains the Irish or Parnellite Opposition. Its attitude was intelligible and consistent. Relying on obstruction as a powerful engine for thwarting the Government, stopping measures distasteful to the Nationalists of Ireland, and extorting concessions to their demands, they objected to any closing power whatever. They therefore voted with the Government against the proposition to substitute a two-thirds for a simple majority, and against the Government on the main question of having any closure whatever. In both cases reproaches were made, first from the Conservative and then from the Liberal side, of an alliance between them and the two English parties; but in neither case with any reason. The interest of the Parnellite section was sufficiently plain to render negotiations unnecessary, and they acted openly upon it.

Although the debates have been tediously protracted and on the whole uninteresting—redeemed only by two brilliant efforts by Mr. Gladstone, who looks unusually well and eminently cheerful—efforts which were all the better for being short and even playful—and by a remarkable speech by Mr. Cowen, the member for Newcastle-on-Tyne—a speech which, though declamatory and in parts artificial, was the most striking as a piece of rhetoric that has been heard of late years from any private member, and the most notable for the effect it produced on the audience—the two principal divisions created a keen interest. It was known that there were some members whose votes were doubtful, so speculation was rife as to the numbers in each case. The result has been to show that the Government retains its full hold on the party. The Opposition are, however, rather irritated than disheartened. An enormous number of amendments have been set down to the remaining fifteen resolutions—amendments sufficient, if pressed by their proposers and argued at length, to occupy the House of Commons till its regular meeting in February. Probably many of them will be dropped, for the Tory squires dislike being kept in London at this time of year more than the Liberal members do, and therefore it may be hard for the most obstinate opponent of the Government to keep enough of his friends to secure respectable minorities. Meantime, the country looks on coolly, not much interested in these details of procedure, but believing that something must be done to prevent the painful scenes to which the habit of obstruction gave rise, and to economize the time of Parliament. Passions are hot at Westminster, but only there. Y.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.—II.

PARIS, November 28.

THE third volume of the 'Correspondence of Madame George Sand' shows her in the exuberance of her republican and socialistic ardor after the Revolution of 1848. We will take her now in 1850, when her hopes had been already disappointed, and her best friends had again become rebels against the existing order of things. Louis Blanc, whom she admired, was in England; she was sick of politics, refused to write any more for the newspapers, and was beginning her Memoirs. "I have never," she says, "understood how a poet could write verses at the tomb of his mother and his children. I could not make myself eloquent at my country's tomb. I feel unhappy when I touch a pen. Serenity, gayety in the bosom of one's family are easy, but sorrow enters my heart when I think of the public. This cold and cowardly public, which has allowed liberty to be strangled, and has soiled the Eternal City which had again become holy—this egoistic, blind, ungrateful public, which is not moved by the exploits of Hungary, and which is not alarmed at the efforts of Russia and of Austria—could it be roused by a newspaper, a writing of any sort?" She was nervous, and her fits of depression were as extraordinary as her fits of exaltation. She thought that taciturnity was sometimes the only form of sincerity, and that she was doing a better work in keeping silent than "this poor Lamartine, who always talks and makes phrases," and "prostitutes his eloquence." This was written to Mazzini. After the letter to the great Italian conspirator, we find one addressed to Alexandre Dumas, the son; she invites him to come to Nohant. The celebrated dramatist was then almost unknown—he was merely the son of his father. I confess to never having read 'Le Régent Mustel,' a book which he had sent to Madame Sand, and for which she thanks him, calling it a "joli livre." "It is charming to find, again, Charlotte and Paul and Virginia and all the creatures one has liked and for whom one has wept! . . . You have made Goethe speak without offending us. He was not better than you represent him, and you give him as much elevation and wit as he really had. I hear people complain of the audacity of your subject; but, so far, I find nothing which profanes, vulgarizes, or diminishes these admired types." I have already inquired of four booksellers for this 'Régent Mustel'; they are all as ignorant of it as I was myself. So books get lost in our own lifetime.

Armand Barbès, as well as Mazzini, received the confessions of Madame Sand. She hoped nothing more from men; her only real friends were in prison or in exile. Barbès was in the fortress of Doullens, and the correspondence of Madame Sand cannot have much enlivened his solitude, though she addressed him in this flattering style: "And you, always calm, always tender, always patient and sublime: you love us still, do you not? Your friendship is one of the consolations and the purest glory of my life." She had money difficulties, and, as she was married, she could not mortgage her own property; she was, therefore, obliged to make money with her pen. She prepared "François le Champi" for the theatre, as nothing pays better than a successful piece; but she would not give her work to any other director than her republican friend Bocage, and Bocage at that moment had no theatre. She wrote also "Claudie" at that time. Living as she did at Nohant, her mind became thoroughly pastoral; she lived much with the peasants, and she found a new vein in her dear Berry. Her Memoirs were progressing; she had sold them for a good sum of money, and worked honestly, so as to fulfil her engagements.

When she writes to her son Maurice, she is never gloomy. "To-night, we have made up a parcel of *airs berrichons* which we shall send to Bocage. Tell him that I have found a mine of music in Jean Chauvet, a mason making holes in my wall for the furnace. He used to sing without perceiving that I heard him. He sings well in the true *berrichon* style. I took him to the drawing-room and noted three airs, one of which is very pretty; then I gave him a good deal to eat and drink. He went back to his comrades and reported to them: 'I never worked so hard in my life; this lady and this gentleman [Muller, a musician who was then staying at Nohant] made me sit on a chair, and they began to talk and dispute every time I sang; and they said I made *bemol*, and *si*, and *sol*, and the devil knows what.' . . . Upon this, all the workmen began to sing in the passages, to make me understand that they could do as much." The letters to Maurice are very refreshing after the long and dismal phrases to Mazzini and Barbès. Madame Sand was a slave to Nohant. To keep up her establishment, she worked more than she ought to have done. She liked to write, to compose, to make a novel or a drama; but she was very unpractical, and she disliked the drudgery and the vulgarity of the rehearsals. Her friend

Bocage did as much as he could for her, but he could not altogether fill her place. She was essentially a dreamer: she disliked all the banalities and conventionalities of the world. She lived in a fantastic and ideal world, but it must be confessed that her ideal was not better than the reality.

"Claudie" was very successful; it made money—as much and more than "François le Champi"; it was what the French call a *succès de larmes*. Bocage played in it: "On se mouche comme au sermon," says Madame Sand. In one sense, she was the most modest and unselfish creature in the world—she did not like to be lionized; she stayed only ten days in Paris after the great triumph of "Claudie," and returned immediately to Nohant. She was almost ashamed of her great victory. She says, what every literary man must have felt, "Work in progress has attractions which are not understood, but which far surpass those of work finished and given to the public." Paris had, besides, become odious to her; she was only happy, or semi-happy, in the country. She had planned to make a little theatre in the house at Nohant—had demolished walls, made side-scenes and boxes. "Our little theatre is a jewel, and we will rehearse here the plays destined for Paris." "Claudie" made little money, though it was successful; it did not bring Madame Sand as much as 10,000 francs. It helped her, however, to pay small debts; but, the debts paid, she remained without a centime. She made a loan in order to begin the publication of her complete works, in numbers, at four sous the number; she was always robbing Peter to pay Paul.

In 1851 we find for the first time in her correspondence the name of Plauchut, who became one of her best friends in after-life. Plauchut had had a very adventurous life; he had lived some time in the Colonies; he had been at Manila; he was half-naturalist and half a commercial adventurer—just the sort of man in whom Madame Sand could take an interest: what the Italians call an *infelice*. She gave him advice upon the best way of keeping butterflies, and he gave her advice upon financial speculations, which, of course, were always unfortunate. After "Claudie," Madame Sand gave a "Molière," but it had no success; it was only played twelve times, notwithstanding all the efforts of her friend Bocage. It was a *succès d'estime*, and nothing more. The piece was played during the summer, in a very poor theatre, of which the manager was at his wit's end, and, in fact, he became a bankrupt almost immediately afterward. The piece was terribly long, in five acts; it had been curtailed to four acts, but it was nevertheless very heavy. It was very absurd, besides: there is a scene in which, after various personages have drunk to the health of the King, the Queen, and the Princes, *Molière* proposes the "health of the people," an anachronism which did not give satisfaction even to the public of the boulevards. Madame Sand complains of it: "This public of the boulevards, this public which pays ten sous for a seat, and which ought to be the *people*, to whom I have sacrificed the well-paying public of the French Theatre, has not been grateful to me. The people is still either ungrateful or ignorant. It prefers murders and poisonings to a literature which has style and heart. It is still the *boulevard de crime*, and it will be difficult to improve its taste and its morality." The piece was only admired to a certain extent by the hateful bourgeoisie.

The private theatricals of Nohant became the great consolation of Madame Sand. There she had no public, or could do without a public; she merely indulged her fancy. It was an expensive amusement, and she wrote novels in order to pay for her private representations. She had become so disgusted with the men in power and with the bourgeoisie, that the *Coup d'État* of Prince Napoleon found her very resigned and cool; she had lost her faith in the people, and she almost preferred one tyrant to a hundred tyrants. She was in Paris on the 2d of December, and she returned quietly to Nohant with her daughter Solange. She knew Prince Napoleon, the son of Jerome, and on the 3d of January, 1852, she writes to him, thanking him for a visit which he had made to her: "If my poor house and my sorrowful face do not alarm you, both will be consoled and vivified by your good friendship." Prince Napoleon had always courted the men of the Left, but he was quite reconciled with his cousin; he was receiving a large civil list, and had been made a General of Division. Madame Sand, as well as Renan, Sainte-Beuve, and a few others, always kept on good terms with him and with his amiable sister, the Princess Mathilde. They were not reconciled absolutely to the Empire, but they were not open enemies; they were, so to speak, in a state of expectancy. To do Madame Sand justice, she never used the influence of Prince Napoleon for herself, but only in favor of some unfortunate political offenders, who were more or less worthy of her sympathy. She did not hesitate even to write to Prince Louis Napoleon himself. The letter is dated June 27, 1852. "Sir," she says, "you told Prince Napoleon, who implored you on my behalf for the transported Republicans of the Indre, that you would do whatever I asked you to do. I place before your eyes the list of the reprieves which you have condescended to promise to me, and which I expect as a new proof of your kindness to me."

Such was the end of the great agitation of 1848; this is the postscript of the famous "Bulletins of the Republic"; this follows after the fiery letters to Mazzini and to Barbès—an humble letter to the man of the 2d of December, who had seized France by force, and who was to carry her from Sebastopol to Solferino, from Solferino to Mexico, from Mexico to Sedan. I can hardly imagine anything more melancholy than this total abdication of a generous and highly-gifted woman; nor can anything show better how little she was made for political strife. Imagination was her domain, and when she tried to play the part of a statesman she failed miserably. She did not even preserve her dignity; she placed herself on the low level of those Jacobins who sent Louis XVI. to the scaffold, and who concealed themselves afterward, in silence, in the court of Napoleon, behind the marshals and generals of the new Alexander. I do not advise the champions of woman's rights to place Madame Sand in the calendar of their saints; as a political woman she was a total failure.

Correspondence.

THE ORDERS TO THE *MONITOR*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has recently been drawn to a communication in the *Nation*, in relation to the fight between the *Monitor* and *Merrimac*, and, although I gave to the public in *Harper's Weekly* (dated January 25, 1879) an account of that event, yet I feel myself called upon, even at this late day, to send you a few remarks on the subject, especially as the article above alluded to is in some respects at fault.

In my communication to *Harper's Weekly*, when speaking of the period a short time before the *Merrimac* came down from Norfolk, I said:

"At this time I was in command at Hampton Roads. Some few days before the *Merrimac* came down from Norfolk, I received from the Navy Department several telegrams ordering me to 'send the *Monitor* to Washington immediately on her arrival.' On the night of the 8th of March—the day on which the *Merrimac* came down and sunk the *Cumberland*, and the *Congress* was burnt—at about 9 o'clock the *Monitor* arrived. Captain Worden immediately came on board the *Roanoke* and reported his arrival to me. I inquired into his condition, which was not a very favorable one: his men were all green, as they knew nothing about that peculiar armament then on board the *Monitor*. A few moments' reflection, however, determined me as to the course I should pursue. I informed Captain Worden that my orders were very positive to send the *Monitor* to Washington, but that I was going to disobey those orders, at the risk of my commission, and send him up to Newport News to look out for the *Merrimac*. In this Captain Worden cheerfully acquiesced, and on the following day the result was known to an astonished and an admiring world."

And yet, in the face of this, the writer in the *Nation* says that "Lieutenant Worden acted on his own responsibility in going up to attack the *Merrimac*, for it does not appear that he received any orders, either from Washington or from his superior at Hampton Roads."

Thus it appears that my orders from the Navy Department were to send the *Monitor* to Washington immediately on her arrival at Hampton Roads, and that I disobeyed those orders, and ordered her up to Newport News to look out for the *Merrimac*. It is true that the orders sending the *Monitor* to Newport News were *verbal* orders, but as far as myself or Captain Worden was concerned, they were as binding as if I had *written* a volume, and Captain Worden by obeying those orders showed that he looked on them as such.

The writer in the *Nation* has a very imperfect idea of the discipline of the Navy if he supposes that a junior, in the *presence of his superior*, and that officer his commanding officer, would leave the squadron in which he was serving without orders from that superior. It therefore follows, as a matter of course, that Captain Worden must have received his orders to proceed to Newport News *from me*.

Trusting that the foregoing will remove any impression made by the article in the *Nation* that the responsibility of attacking the *Merrimac* emanated from Captain Worden and not from myself, I submit it to you, with the request that you will give it an insertion in the *Nation*.

I cannot close this communication without awarding to Captain, now Admiral, Worden, the meed of praise for the great gallantry and good judgment which he displayed when repelling the attack of the *Merrimac*, and compelling her to take refuge at Norfolk.

I remain, very respectfully yours,
John Marston,
Rear Admiral, U. S. N.

No. 3447 Walnut Street,
Philadelphia, November 20, 1882.

THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice in the *Nation* of November 9 a short paragraph relative to certain changes made in the *personnel* at the Naval Observatory, Washington. One need not go far to find the reason for this change, which, briefly stated, is because there are no persons other than line officers in the Navy to take charge of the instruments.

Prof. Asaph Hall still has charge of the twenty-six-inch equatorial; Prof. J. R. Eastman will continue to use the large transit instrument. Besides these two gentlemen there are no others among the regular professors of mathematics to do the work at the Observatory. Prof. Simon

Newcomb is now in charge of the publication of the Nautical Almanac. Prof. Frisbee is a new man, with a good reputation as a mathematician, but with comparatively little experience as an observer. Prof. E. S. Holden resigned his position at the Observatory to find a broader field for his energy and talents. He is now at Madison, Wisconsin. Besides these, the other names which appear as professors of mathematics belong to persons who have never done any instrumental work at the Observatory. Prof. Wm. Harkness is there, to be sure, but no one seems to know why, or to be able to tell what he does. Four others of the professors are teachers at the Naval Academy at Annapolis—teaching, respectively, mathematics, English literature, French, and drawing. One other is not considered competent to teach anything.

If, therefore, the line officers in the Navy are detailed for prominent positions at the Observatory, are not the professors themselves responsible for the existing state of things? They have pursued a narrow, selfish policy in turning away young men from the Observatory after they had had the training which fitted them to remain and to succeed their instructors. But the older men could not bear to think of these their pupils stepping into a rank which would have made them their equals. So we find Todd leaving the Government service to go to Amherst; Pritchett is in St. Louis, Paul has gone to Japan, and Upton finds more congenial quarters with the Signal Service.

A few years ago an appointment was made to a professorship of mathematics which was notoriously unfit and unwise. A movement was then started which resulted in an act of Congress being passed in 1881 specifying that hereafter no one should be appointed as one of the twelve professors of this grade until he had passed an examination before a board of the existing professors, and been recommended by them for the appointment. There were then two vacancies to be filled. Secretary Hunt ordered a board of examiners, and a dozen or fifteen men presented themselves as candidates. The examination lasted for five days, and was so conducted as to "freeze out" all of the men who had had any training in the practical work of an observatory. The tests applied by the board were almost wholly in pure mathematics, and the two men who passed this ordeal were Messrs. George W. Hill and Wm. W. Johnson. The Observatory professors then came to the conclusion that they did not want these eminent mathematicians appointed to their own fraternity. The Board of Examiners either did not make any report to Secretary Hunt, or, if they did, they persuaded him not to do anything about it. Certainly, the names of Messrs. Hill and Johnson were never sent in for confirmation.

The two vacancies were still unfilled. On the last day of the session a bill was put through Congress authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to appoint two professors of mathematics, subject to an examination, wholly ignoring the fact that a board of examiners was already in existence. The Secretary issued an order that these two men *should not be examined in mathematics*, but in French and drawing. Consequently, the drawing-master at the Annapolis Academy and the French teacher there are now rated as professors of mathematics in the U. S. Navy.

If the Observatory professors don't like the influx of young naval officers into their sacred domain, they have only themselves to blame.

T. N.

[The question which has been raised is not, as "T. N." supposes, what the Observatory professors, or any other small class of men like or do not like; but it is, To what scientific uses are the instruments and the endowment of the National Observatory to be devoted? The country at large, as well as its scientific men in particular, has a lively interest in *this* question.

It is *à priori* reasonable to suppose that professional astronomers are alone capable of directing the astronomical activity of an observatory. The past history of this particular observatory is a striking proof of the truth of this supposition.

Whatever may be the shortcomings of the individual members of the present staff, to whom praise and blame are meted out so freely by "T. N.," we feel sure that the question will finally be settled on the grounds of public policy. The Naval Observatory is a public institution supported for the purpose of doing certain specific things. To do these things well requires a native aptitude, which must be educated by an arduous training. It is clear that in general this training is wanting to the young naval officer. Hence it follows that the work will finally be done by men who are fit to do it, and not by young men "detailed" to be practical astronomers. —Ed. Nation.]

IF GARFIELD HAD LIVED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for November 16 I notice a repetition of the suggestion that, had Garfield lived, the Republican party would not have met with its recent reverses. I should like to ask, through your columns, Mr. Bowker, or some other person of similar view, his reason for this opinion. To attribute the party's defeat solely or chiefly to the action of the Executive seems to me erroneous. The extra session, with its nauseating dose of Mahoneism tainted with repudiation; the utter failure of the Republican Congress to deal with important questions; the River and Harbor steal, and the Hubbell assessment business, were far more potent and widespread causes of defeat.

Now, the question I should like answered is, What was there in the career of General Garfield, especially subsequent to his nomination for the Presidency, from which the conclusion is authorized that he would have saved his party from these errors? Certainly, as between a Half-Breed and a Stalwart Machine—"Bill" Woodin and John F. Smyth, "Lo" Sessions and "Steve" French—the independent voters care nothing. It would only have been by a courageous reform policy that President Garfield could have saved the party from its blunders, or in spite of its blunders. The writer supported Garfield heartily for the Presidency. He has a full appreciation of his great services, especially in the struggle for honest finance. But this does not help him to an answer to his question. We were already, before the assassination, involved with Mahone, and neither in this nor in any of the other abuses above mentioned can the Garfield element of the party claim superiority to the Stalwarts. As to the course which General Garfield himself would have taken, is there anything to offset the distrust occasioned by the distinct bid for the support of the spoilsmen contained in his letter of acceptance; the constitution of his Cabinet, containing as it did only one conspicuously fit appointment, while at its head was a man who has probably in his own State pushed the assessment wrong as harshly as has ever been done anywhere, to say nothing of his more dubious transactions, with which Garfield *must have been familiar;* the nomination of Mr. Chandler to be Solicitor-General; of Mr. Mathews to be Justice of the Supreme Court; the removal of Merritt in the middle of his term to reward a factional, if not personal, service, and his letters concerning the Star-route and department contributions?

Because I ask this question, I am not therefore a Stalwart "ghoul." I was pledged to oppose Grant had he received the Chicago nomination. I would have scratched Mr. Arthur had it been possible. I have just bolted the Saratoga State ticket. I should have done the same thing had Mr. Cornell been the nominee, in which I should have been more consistent than most of my Half-Breed friends.

In conclusion, allow me heartily to endorse the principal suggestions at the close of Mr. Bowker's letter. I would only add one plank—the repeal of the Legal-Tender Act and the retirement of the greenbacks. I hope the Supreme Court will help in this. I should be especially glad to identify myself with a party pledged to immediate revenue reform and ultimate free trade. I am no less anxious as to civil-service reform, but doubt if that can ever be a party question, as no party will ever be found to openly oppose it.

Ernest Hitchcock.

Newark, N. Y., November 21.

MR. PENDLETON'S RESOLUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Washington correspondence reports that Mr. Pendleton will again introduce his resolution into the Senate for giving the Cabinet officers seats in both Houses of the Legislature. It will, however, fall just as flat as last year (although then a committee of eight Senators from both sides of the House reported unanimously in favor of it), and mainly for two reasons: first, because Mr. Pendleton confines himself to a somewhat perfunctory argument of its legality and propriety as shown from the experience of other countries, in place of a vigorous demonstration of its absolute necessity to prevent the Government from coming to a deadlock; and secondly, because the reasons which make the measure desirable for the country are precisely those which make it an object of horror to Congressmen. The political use of offices, river-and-harbor bills, Star-route jobs, the putting off of depreciated silver at par upon the Treasury—in short, all those things which result from giving to the Legislature, and through it to the lobby, complete control not only of its own but of the Executive branch of the Government, would receive a death-blow. If Mr. Pendleton, or somebody equal in position, but less affluent in circumstances or more aggressive in temper, would leave Congress, according to the very vulgar but expressive phrase which is now in vogue in England, "to stew in its own juice," and take the stump to inform the people where their necessities really lie, he would come nearer not only to this but to some other ends which it may be assumed he really desires.

One of the perennial illustrations of the situation appears in your recent article upon "The Democrats and the Finances." The whole country knows what a mess the Republicans have made, but though it will doubtless ere long also know how much worse a one the Democrats will make, it does not yet know at all that the difficulty is wholly outside of parties, and that the remedy is not to be found in alternating from one party to the other, or even in the formation of a new party. So long as the Dr. side of the national account is managed by one set of men, and the Cr. side by another set, both sets work-

ing separately and in secret, without any public responsibility, and without intervention on the part of the executive official who is nominally responsible; so long as these sets, being composed largely of new men every two years, give no attention to business except when Congress is in session, and thus spend in preparing plans the whole time which ought to be spent in public discussion of plans already matured, so that an immense budget is rushed through without discussion in a week or ten days—just so long the finances will go from bad to worse, no matter by what name you call the party in power. No other nation on earth attempts such a thing, or could attempt it without soon coming to grief, our salvation thus far consisting in an enormous income, with practically no drain for military expenditure.

The British national financial management is beyond comparison the first in the world, and it is so because the whole matter is placed in the hands of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Parliament only pronouncing, after full discussion, aye or no in gross—in other words, applying the veto. It is a notable illustration of how with us the veto power is placed at the wrong end of the line.

The threatening state of the French finances, almost worse than under the Second Empire, is owing to the encroachments of the Chambers on the Executive in the handling of the budget—a course which, if not checked in this as well as other directions, must almost certainly end in the reëstablishment of despotism.

The expression for us of the difference between these two systems, of the change from an evil to a sound method, is the admission of the Secretary of the Treasury to a seat in Congress, with the right of defending a policy of unity, system, publicity, and responsibility against secret intrigue, an irresponsible lobby, and chaos. This is the proposition which needs to be forced upon the attention and understanding of the people; and the sooner we give up building our hopes upon any change of parties or of men under the existing system, the sooner we shall get upon the road to some practical result. G. B.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., November 27, 1882.

COL. HENDERSON'S CHANGE OF HEART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An incident of the recent political campaign has come to my notice which, I think, may be of interest to reformers, and also to anti-reformers, though presumably from somewhat different reasons.

Col. D. B. Henderson, Secretary of the late Congressional Assessment Committee, was the Republican nominee for Congress in the Third District of Iowa. Shortly before election, Mr. Henderson addressed a circular letter, with stamp enclosed, to all the ministers in the district, requesting answers, and urging them to attend personally to getting out voters on election day, etc. One clergyman, of whom I have knowledge, replied immediately, stating his position very frankly. Mr. Henderson was assured that, personally, the clergyman would be happy to vote for him, but that on account of his connection with the notorious assessment business the vote would be withheld. The desire was also expressed that Mr. H. might be elected by a majority of two or three votes.

To this communication Mr. Henderson replied by a *telegram* of about two hundred words, thanking the writer for his "manly letter," and attempting to vindicate himself as best he could. Unfortunately, I am uninformed as to the line of defence adopted.

Comment upon the above is scarcely necessary. Whether Mr. Henderson, Secretary of the Hubbell Committee, wrote the above telegram from the standpoint of a sudden convert to reform, or from that of one seeking to shield himself from a coming storm, matters little. Elected to the next Congress by a majority much less than a popular Republican nominee might reasonably expect, he will have abundant opportunities for defining his position.

Yours, W. C.

DENVER, COL., Nov. 20, 1882.

[Mr. Henderson's telegram was doubtless paid for out of his portion of the assessment fund, so that, whatever may be thought of his conversion, one should not wonder at his prodigality.—ED. NATION.]

CUSTOM-HOUSE BROKERAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some days since, I received for my herbarium, in exchange, a lot of European plants from Prof. Toepffer, Brandenburg, Prussia, through the house of Davies & Co., 15 Broadway, New York. Accompanying was the following bill of charges:

Freight and charges to New York	$2 91
Duty on dried plants (*free*)	—
Custom-house fees	60
Cartages	50
Postage, etc.	15
Public storage	35
General-order storage	50
Custom-house brokerage	3 00
Expressage to Dayton from New York	90
Total	$8 91

You see, it cost me much more to have my small case handled by those commission merchants than to bring it from Brandenburg, Prussia, to Dayton, O. (no duties having to be paid). This seems to me an imposition, as I have heretofore received packages from my European correspondents through New York houses, but never paid such excessive bills. On notification from the above firm, I had written them that the package had no commercial value, but was of use to me only as a matter of scientific study, and that I could not state its worth in dollars; yet, after all the petty charges, they asked for $3 *Custom-house brokerage.*

Of course, in itself, it is but a little thing, but I consider it proper (if only to offset Mr. Herbert Spencer's opinion of Americans as being nongrumblers) to let my fellow-readers of the *Nation* know how I have been treated by the firm in question.—Very respectfully,

WILLIAM WERTHNER.

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, DAYTON, O., November 23, 1882.

CHANGES IN NORMAL-SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Those of your readers who have been interested in some recent communications to your columns concerning normal schools will be pleased to hear of an appointment just made by the State Board of Education of Michigan. This board has appointed Congressman Edwin Willits to the Principalship of the State Normal School in Ypsilanti, his duties to commence at the close of the present school year.

Mr. Willits, although known mainly by his political career, is by no means a novice in the field of education. He has had large experience as a teacher and as a member of the State Board of Education, on which he served for three successive terms of four years; in 1868 he was chairman of the Committee on Education of the Michigan Constitutional Convention. Having a university education (Mr. W. is a graduate of Michigan University) and a long general experience in educational affairs to start with, and eight or nine months before him during which to make himself acquainted more fully with the details of normal-school management, Mr. Willits is justly considered as unusually well qualified for the work he is going to undertake. He is considered so especially by those who, like some of your correspondents, feel convinced that teachers' training-schools should be managed in a somewhat more liberal spirit than most of them at present are; that normal schools are in need of men of broader views than the average teacher (whose field of labor and experience of life are necessarily limited) is likely to be.

Does not this appointment of Mr. Willits, so soon after that of Col. Parker to the Principalship of the Cook County Normal School in Illinois, seem to point toward a new departure in the management of normal schools? L.

MICHIGAN, Nov. 15, 1882.

Notes.

R. WORTHINGTON will publish at once 'Picturesque Journeys in America,' for youthful readers.

'Bible Myths, and their Parallels in Other Religions,' with numerous illustrations, will be published next week by J. W. Bouton.

The Colgrove Book Company, Chicago, have in press, for immediate publication, 'The Unending Genesis,' by H. M. Simmons, being an attempt to tell the story of creation, in a reverent spirit, by the light of science.

Mr. S. R. Koehler's 'United States Art Directory and Year-Book' (Cassell & Co.) is a very praiseworthy and successful beginning of, we hope, a long series of annuals. Its supplementary title is, "A Guide for Artists, Art Students, Travellers," etc. The larger half is occupied with a statistical and historical list, alphabetical by towns, of national and local academies, art schools, collections, exhibitions, decorative-art societies, art clubs, etc., which parents will find extremely useful in determining the advantages of many a college and university, and art students indispensable. While no attempt, of course, is made to catalogue all the pictures, statues, or antiquities of the various institutions or societies enumerated, useful hints are given of their chief attractions. One may see, also, as in the case of Faneuil Hall, Boston, how much the custodians of public collections neglect to label and identify the works of art intrusted to them. The Artists' Directory is derived from the names of members and exhibitors of twenty-five societies in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago; and similarly an Art Teachers' Directory has been made up. Then comes a Necrology, taken up at the point where it was dropped by the *American Art Review;* a table of exhibitions held from January, 1881, to October, 1882; a list of coming exhibitions; a list of books on art and of art periodicals; and finally, the law of copyright. All this seems done with as great accuracy and thoroughness as was possible under the circumstances.

The library of the late Dr. E. B. O'Callaghan is to be sold at auction by Bangs & Co. on December 4 and succeeding days. It comprises nearly 2,500 numbers, of remarkable average excellence, with not a few rarities. It is essentially a collection of Americana, and is rich in Jesuit Relations and other works pertaining to the early settlement of this continent.

"Birthday books" increase in number, as witness the 'Roe Birthday Book' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The same firm also send us their reprint of Canon Rawlinson's 'Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy' (Persia), in two volumes. This now completes the series of seven handsome volumes. Like the others, it is freely illustrated, and has a

map of the Sassanian Empire, and a chromolithographic plate of the Palace of Chosroes I. at Ctesiphon.

Geo. Routledge & Sons publish Knight's 'Shakspere' in three volumes, at a moderate price. The illustrations are Sir John Gilbert's. A pretty shade of light green has been chosen for the cloth covers.

After the lapse of a quarter of a century from its first collected appearance, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. put out a new edition of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table' in a form worthy of it and of their reputation for fine workmanship. Dr. Holmes has wisely abstained from retouching the product of a period not only "before the war," but before the development of inventions by which our daily life has meantime been so strongly affected. He has, however, added a number of foot-notes, partly in explanation of obsolete terms or now obscure personal and other allusions, partly by way of further gossip; and these add much, as good foot-notes always do, to the charm of the large-letter discourse. One of these is worth remarking. In his merry verses on "Latter-Day Warnings," Dr. Holmes had allowed as one of the signs of the millennium—

> "When the first locomotive's wheel
> Rolls through the Hoosac tunnel's bore."

By so much, he now confesses, the preparation of ascension robes has been made urgent.

An unpretentious book of reminiscences, called 'New England Bygones,' appeared, two years ago, as if written by "E. H. Arr." This was soon discovered to be a pseudonym for the wife of Mr. E. H. Rollins, former Commissioner of Internal Revenue. Mrs. Rollins has since died, and the 'Bygones' has been republished with a care and costliness and ornamentation which have a distinct memorial significance (J. B. Lippincott & Co.). Gail Hamilton supplies an interesting and seemingly frank and intimate account of the author, whose portrait is given. The illustrations are of even grade and good quality; but they have not an unmistakable New England stamp, and apparently (except in a few cases) are pure efforts of artistic imagination.

The same publishers offer a new revised edition of 'The Poetical Works of T. Buchanan Read,' with heightened decoration. The voluminousness of this collection is as surprising as anything about it, in spite of the place which a few pieces have secured the author in our American anthologies.

The friends of the higher education of women, especially in this city, will welcome the aid of President Barnard's paper—"Should American Colleges be Open to Women as well as to Men?"—read in July at the annual convocation of the University of the City of New York, and now reprinted from the Proceedings. Dr. Barnard's closing sentence gives the key to his position: "The time is not far distant when it shall be as much among the curiosities of history that one sex should ever have been debarred from the educational privileges accorded to the other, as it will be that the curse of slavery should have continued to darken the escutcheon of our Republic for a century after its foundation."

The *Athenæum* announces that Mr. Leslie Stephen will withdraw from the editorial conduct of the *Cornhill Magazine* in order to edit a 'Dictionary of National Biography,' undertaken by Smith, Elder & Co.

No. 8 of the *Bibliographical Contributions* of the Library of Harvard University consists of the Calendar of the Arthur Lee Manuscripts in that library, which has been printed from time to time in the Harvard *Bulletin*.

Latine is the name of a monthly periodical, edited by Prof. E. S. Shumway, of the State Normal School, Potsdam, N. Y., devoted to aiding in teaching Latin by the conversational method. Whatever may be our opinion as to this method for beginners, there can be no question of its efficacy as an accompaniment to advanced instruction; and we should judge the contents of this little sheet well adapted to the end in view. It is, by the way, the organ of an association of Latin teachers, called *Catena Latina*, having "links" in all parts of the Union, members of which pay a fee of two dollars a year, and are entitled to receive this periodical.

Le Livre for November might almost, following a cisatlantic fashion, call itself a Voltaire number. M. Louis D. Petit, supplementing an interesting article by M. Eugène Muller in the October number, treats of Voltaire's correspondence with Neaulme, after the latter's unauthorized and very embarrassing publication at the Hague of the 'Abrégé de l'histoire universelle.' Like M. Muller, too, he prints some inedited letters of Voltaire's, and corrects others already published. Later on, extracted from *Figaro*, is a list of Voltaire's "pseudonymes de combat"—nigh one hundred and fifty, in which the scoffer masquerades as le docteur Akakia, le rabbin Akib, le curé Meslier, feu l'abbé Bazin, l'humble évêque d'Aletopolis, l'archevêque de Cantorbery, un bénédictin, plusieurs aumôniers, le corps des pasteurs du Gévaudan, ancien avocat, M. le Comte de Tournay, un académicien de Lyon, un chrétien, un quaker, une belle dame, le docteur Wellwisher good Natured (*sic*), etc., etc. Finally, among the reviews, great praise is awarded M. Georges Bengesco's Bibliography of the works of Voltaire, which, among other details, goes pretty fully into the iconography of them, so far as to enable editions to be recognized by their plates, vignettes, etc. We must also signalize M. Jules Adeline's paper on the hand-painting of the backs of books, which proposes a new industry (for France: A. Williams & Co., Boston, "anticipating the Christmas demand that has arisen for books having covers that can be decorated or painted upon, have prepared for the purpose a specially bound edition of 'Poems and Sonnets of Owen Innsly'"); and an advance chapter on Benvenuto Cellini as an author, from M. Eugène Plon's forthcoming biography of this artist.

'Contes Grotesques d'Edgar Poë, traduction Émile Hennequin' (Paul Ollendorf), and 'Mes Années d'Esclavage et de Liberté, par Frédéric Douglas, Marshal de Colombie' (Plon), are two recent Paris announcements.

Our explorations at Assos have proved how much yet remains for the archæological explorer in Asia Minor. M. Lenormant has shown the same thing in Italy. He has visited twenty-four towns and cities of the Basilicata and Calabria, in more than half of which no archæologist had preceded him. He has collected more than 200 Latin and thirty Greek inscriptions that have never been published. He has observed a remarkable resemblance between the geometric decorations of the Apulian and of the Cypriote pottery, and also has found relics of a primitive Italic black pottery once made all over the south of the peninsula.

A statue of Harriet Martineau has been made by Miss Anne Whitney out of a fund raised for that purpose, and promises to be a work of high merit. Subscriptions are still desired to meet the final expenses, and may be sent by the admirers of that remarkable woman, who loved and did much for our Western republic, to Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 4 Park Street, Boston.

Two mortuary masks of Romans have been found in France; one in 1874, at Trion, in the tomb of Claudia Victoria, who died at the age of ten years, one month, eleven days. This mask, which is of plaster, is supposed by a local antiquary to be hers, but the *Bulletin Critique* pronounces the features, as represented in the *Revue Épigraphique du Midi de la Gaule*, to be too mature for a child. There was no such doubt possible in the case of the mask found a few years ago in the Rue Nicole at Paris, for there the mortar used in sealing the tomb had flowed over the face of the buried child in such a way as to make an accidental mask whose truth to life could not be for a moment questioned.

—In *Harper's Christmas*, American wood-engraving surpasses all its previous efforts, not in fineness or delicacy or sureness of execution, but in scale. The full-page cuts of this sumptuous folio take the field against those which have hitherto distinguished the London illustrated weeklies. We are much mistaken if our British cousins do not cheerfully admit their equal excellence, while Mr. Vedder's "Samson," engraved by Cole, can hardly fail to be regarded as a *tour de force* which has no match on either side of the Atlantic. This remarkable woodcut is given a supplement to itself, as the size of the block alone is equal to that of the folio—say 18 x 15½ inches. The design is in Mr. Vedder's best vein—simply the head and neck of Samson, with his hair freely flowing to right and left, the mouth perhaps not strong enough for so mighty an owner, but the general expression that of a good-natured giant in the exuberance of sheer physical delight. The cartouche which frames it is masterly in its symbolic decorativeness—another quality which Mr. Vedder possesses in a high degree. The rendering of all this with the graver confirms Mr. Cole's preëminence for breadth of treatment, here most difficult on account of the large surface. The print deserves to be framed, and will be framed, and this thought consoles us for the transient character of the publication, in its paper covers, when at least boards should have protected it, and might yet do so in a special edition. Mr. Cole has one other example of his technique, smaller, but still of unusually large size, involving the interpretation of textures—namely, Mr. F. Dielman's "A Girl I Know," a charming subject. We cannot specify the meritorious work of other engravers in figure-pieces justifying their best efforts, but Mr. Juengling's treatment of pure landscape after Mr. Quartley's design—"In the hush of the autumn night, I hear the voice of the sea"—is poetic in its effectiveness. And yet we are sure that it suffers more than any other cut in the presswork.

—This new venture and its literary contents are introduced by Mr. Geo. William Curtis, who rightly treats *Harper's Christmas* as the flower of *Harper's Monthly* in the day of small things. The bare mention of some of the other contributors will show that there is abundance of first-rate entertainment in this holiday publication. Mr. Howells has an irresistible little farce, "The Sleeping-Car," in which he once more lets the inconsequential nature of the female sex betray itself in talk and action. Mr. Joel Chandler Harris proves in his "Mingo: a Sketch of Life in Middle Georgia," that he is equal to longer flights than his 'Uncle Remus.' Here the poor-white female character is as much of a study as that of the faithful freedman. The other humorists are Mark Twain and Mr. G. T. Lanigan, the author of the *World's* Fables, who now in rhyme satirizes "The Christmas Reformer." More serious verse is furnished by Mr. E. C. Stedman and Mr. T. B. Aldrich, and we should also mention the names of Thomas Hardy, Harriet Prescott Spofford, Rose Terry Cooke, and F. D. Millet, Mr. Millet being represented also by several Eastern designs.

—The *Century* for December opens with an illustrated article on the Supreme Court, by Mr. E. V. Smalley, who gives a good deal of infor-

mation about the working and present condition of that tribunal of a kind which laymen will find more novel than lawyers. The principal thing, in fact, which will be likely to strike the professional reader in looking it over is the profound popular ignorance as to the history of the Court which it implies and assumes; but the same reflection would occur to most specialists with regard to most magazine articles dealing with their own topics; and law, of all matters of human knowledge, is to the general reader most full of mystery. Professor T. R. Lounsbury contributes an article on spelling reform, which states in a very clear way the position of those who consider the present system of spelling radically bad. He admits that it seems hopeless to expect that any large body of grown-up men who have once learned a particular method of spelling, however wretched, will ever give it up and adopt a new one, however excellent, and that a reformed orthography can only be introduced through the schools. This, however, requires a change of opinion among adults, because the schools are managed by adults, and it is impossible to imagine a sceptical generation permitting the seed to be sown among the young without extensive conversions within its own limits. The absurdities of English spelling are so glaring and grotesque that it is easy to sympathize with Professor Lounsbury's scorn of the conservative attitude of mind with regard to it; at the same time the extraordinarily small headway the reformers in this field have made in the last hundred years enables the conservative, who can bring forward no better reason against a change than that he does not "like the look" of phonetic spelling, to feel a comfortable certainty that the deluge will not come till after his time.

—Mr. James's "Point of View" is a bit of international satire which recalls his "Bundle of Letters." It consists of a number of letters, written by different varieties of Americans, and by an English and a French "observer" travelling in the United States. As Mr. James does not appear in person, the picture of this country presented is chiefly of value as showing the "point of view" of the personages introduced. Of these, the best, on the whole, to our mind, is the English member of Parliament, whose careful discrimination of what he knows about the United States from what he does not know is beyond all praise. It would probably be somewhat difficult to explain to Mr. Antrobus himself in what the humor of his study of our institutions consists; but no American who has had the pleasure of meeting any of the Antrobuses will fail to enjoy his cautious suggestion, made on learning that ladies may travel all over the Union, without loss of social consideration, in a sleeping-car, that this is probably confined to ladies occupying a lower berth, and would not apply to ladies taking upper berths. This suggestion reveals one fundamental difficulty in a great deal of English observation of the United States—the absence of fixed social rules and regulations governing "social considerations." The Antrobi can understand easily enough a set of rules governing society, however different from or opposed to those to which they have been accustomed; but what they generally fail to reach a comprehension of is the wide range within which it never enters into the head of an American to apply rules of any kind. Volumes, for instance, have been written about the American girl, to show what she may and what she may not do without loss of "social consideration"; but the problem has never been solved, and probably never will be. It is all, as one of Mr. James's characters says, very "vague"; and we can certainly forgive foreigners if they can with difficulty understand how such things can be left in a vague state in a civilized country, and insist on assuming that there must be just as many hard and fast rules with regard to social consideration as in their own country, if they can only find them out. M. de Bacourt, for example, notes in one of his amusing letters the astounding fact that, on taking the air one morning in Washington, about six o'clock, in the warm season, he met on the street a society belle. "*Mœurs faciles!*"

—The *Atlantic* has as its chief literary attraction this month some "Outlines of an English Romance," by Hawthorne, the manuscript having been furnished, with some explanatory notes, by Mr. G. P. Lathrop. "The Ancestral Footstep" is the very characteristic title which Mr. Lathrop gives the fragment, and as a study in Hawthorne it possesses a good deal of interest. It is more ghostly and fragmentary even than the 'Dolliver Romance,' and reads less like the first sketch or outline of a story than the fossil remains of one, exhumed and reconstructed after the lapse of a geological period, for some literary museum. Part of its fascination to many lovers of Hawthorne will lie in the musty, antique flavor which it has, rather than in the "freshness and spontaneity" which Mr. Lathrop discovers in it. Mr. O. B. Frothingham writes on "Art and Wealth," and does not succeed in solving the problem whether the accumulation of wealth now going on in this country is likely to lead to a national development of art. This is a question which never has been solved, and never will be, except by time. All that can be shown is that some of the conditions under which art has sprung up in other countries exist in the United States; but, as no one knows what all the conditions are, and they have never been exactly the same in any two countries, any speculation about it is at best guesswork. Mr. Frothingham is very cautious and tentative, and perhaps it is unfair to say that he does not succeed in solving the problem, because he would not be willing to admit that the problem is exactly what we have stated it to be—a fact which saves him from error at the expense of definiteness.

—*Harper's* has several good illustrated articles, of which one called "Cameos of Colonial Carolina," by P. D. Hay, contains a good deal of out-of-the-way information as to some of the early Carolinian worthies, if such an un-Carolinian epithet may be applied to them. Mr. John Fiske has an article on New England in the Colonial period, which is valuable as making clear some minor historical points with reference to the persecution of the Quakers by the Puritans: for example, first, that only a small portion of the Puritans were religious refugees; second, that they had no idea of establishing liberty of conscience, but, on the contrary, a theocratic state, in which conformity was required of the individual in all matters affecting conduct; and, third, that the Quakers made themselves obnoxious to the Puritans, both doctrinally and otherwise. But we cannot say that he helps to dispel the unscholarly confusion of the persecution for state reasons—*i. e.*, on account of doctrine—with the penalties for indecent exposure and other occasional lunacies. Here chronology is of the first importance.

—Colonel Holabird, in the December *United Service*, completes his consideration of military desertion, taking up, rather diffusely, more points than we can here condense. One of his suggestions the War Department has adopted with unwonted alacrity, and has already made obligatory—viz., official investigation, and report upon the probable cause, of every desertion at the time of its occurrence. Heretofore, the deserter has been merely dropped from the muster-roll, and speculations upon his motives or the real reasons for his conduct have had no place in the record. There is urgent need of a philosophical and practical discussion of the Army organization on its lowest plane—that of the rank and file. Our officers who are educated can hold their own with honor: it is the men, especially as units, who require care and who should be better understood.

—Education within the Army is briefly treated by Colonel Vincent of the staff of General Augur, commanding the Department of Texas, in the latter's annual report. He advises for the soldiers' schools already authorized pecuniary support by Congress (now, their money comes from savings of the ration—the stomach feeds the head); compulsory attendance; suitable teachers; and the non-enlistment in white regiments of illiterate men. The first three seem self-evident necessities for a decent system. If men who can neither read nor write are enlisted, the intellectual tone must be, and the moral tone probably will be, very low. The Adjutant-General has adopted this suggestion of Colonel Vincent's, and in his report to the Secretary of War recommends reading and writing to be among the qualifications of recruits. Our Army is always handicapped in the matter of education by the amount of manual labor it must perform in addition to its strictly martial duty—which, as we have before noted, is no child's play, even in peace. A difficulty underlying the whole matter seems to be the spreading of a small force so thinly over a very large territory. If two men have three men's work on their hands, some details will suffer.

—Mr. Freeman was surprised at the resemblance between England and America, whereupon some of the English journals remarked that English ideas had been slowly spreading in the United States, at least in New England, and others said that, on the contrary, England was becoming Americanized—or, to use a synonymous term, going to the dogs. We have noticed one similarity of late that seems to favor the latter view. When, on the evening of the late State election in Massachusetts, large crowds were assembled in Boston in front of the screens on which the latest returns were cast by the lime-light lanterns, as each successive bulletin gave a larger majority for Butler, among the other cries, we are told, there were shouts of "Bad for Harvard!" Compare this with the comment of the *Spectator* on Lord Carnarvon's statement that "three-fourths of the literary power of the country and four-fifths of the intellectual ability" were on the Conservative side, and the answer by a writer in the *Times* giving a long list of eminent Liberals. The *Spectator* says, "Neither assertion nor rejoinder matters a straw. The transfer of power, under our modern system, is not left to professors, but to those whom they scarcely influence at all."

—"Northern Transcontinental Survey" is the large title of a small pamphlet report of Prof. Raphael Pumpelly to Mr. Henry Villard, President of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company, dated September, 1882. "The territory," it begins, "which is exclusively tributary to the lines of the Northern Pacific and associated roads, covers about one-fifth of the area of the United States. A large part of this region is almost unexplored, geographically, and is still less known as regards those resources which are to contribute to the business of this corporation." To dispel this ignorance, the Directory instituted the survey of which Professor Pumpelly is the competent head. His assistants are formed into a chemical department, a department of mineral resources, and divisions of climate and rivers, of

soils, of forests, of economic botany, of topography, the efficiency of which is assured by the names of Professors E. S. Holden, E. W. Hilgard, C. S. Sargent, and Mr. A. D. Wilson—to mention only the most familiar. To these must be added Dr. H. A. Hagen, the distinguished entomologist of Harvard. In fact, a Government survey could not be more strongly equipped, yet it is a simple business provision "to obtain the data necessary to guide the companies in regard to building feeders, in regard to matters of policy in encouraging the starting of proper industries, and in directing immigration to the proper points." Maps are to be constructed showing the topography by contour lines; the practicability of irrigation and under-drainage; the rainfall and temperature; the distribution of plants and the other available conditions for grazing; the mineral resources, etc. Already important tests of the soil and discoveries of coal and timber have been made. Professor Sargent reports the forests along Clark's Fork and its tributaries "the most important and valuable body of timber in all the interior of the continent," and recommends the region being withdrawn from sale for conservation by the Company, which will undoubtedly be done. Dr. Hagen discovered that the larvæ of a certain butterfly had "injured, more or less seriously, in immense numbers the yellow pine between Spokane and Colville," and the result is that steps will be taken to utilize these trees before they are rendered worthless. Such are some of the first fruits of a singularly far-sighted and liberal scheme to furnish a scientific basis for railroad development. In the nature of the case it is without a precedent, and it will be watched with increasing interest as it supplies from year to year the deficiencies in our national surveys.

—Not the least interesting feature in the literary history of the present age is the "survival" of the Index librorum prohibitorum and Index expurgatorius. One wonders how much is effected by the condemnation, and whether the faithful, before reading a book, carefully examine the lists published by the Congregation of the Index to see whether it is allowed. We remember, not long since, looking over the library of a Catholic priest which came to auction, and finding several works with the manuscript note "Opus prohibitum." Evidently the *fruit défendu* had been found to be too sweet to be given up. Of course, in the present prolific state of the press, the Congregation cannot pass judgment upon all the issues of the press, and its condemnation of any particular work affords a presumption that the work shows some ability. Among the books lately so honored are Renan's 'Ecclesiastes' and Marino's Italian version of Gregorovius's picturesque 'Athenaïs, Geschichte einer byzantinischen Kaiserin.' But not only has the Index librorum prohibitorum survived, as we began by saying: it has emigrated to this country. The Archbishop of Montreal has prohibited our neighbor the *Courrier des États-Unis*, and, when he found that it was still read in his diocese, ordered that a second prohibition should be read from all the pulpits.

—A recent number of the Παρνασσός gives, regarding the Samian aqueduct, details supplementary to those which we reprinted last week from the *Academy*. The water-channel of the great tunnel, which was found choked with silt, has already been in great part cleared out, that it may be put again to its ancient function of supplying the city with the water of the same copious spring mentioned by Herodotus—now known as the fountain of Hagiades. The tunnel is lighted and ventilated by shafts at a distance from each other of about twenty metres. About 300 metres below the fountain the tunnel divides into two branches. This explains, doubtless, Herodotus's description of it as ἀμφίστομον ὄρυγμα. The excavations have brought to light in the tunnel, beside a flight of four steps, a slab bearing the following inscription:

Διονυσόδωρος
ὁ θεοφόρος
μητρὶ Ἐπικρατείᾳ
ἀφ' ὧν ἐργάζεται.

—We have received the seventh number of Behm and Wagner's 'Die Bevölkerung der Erde' (Gotha: Justus Perthes, 1882). This valuable statistical publication was begun in 1872 as a universal year-book of areas and populations, supplementary to Petermann's *Geographische Mittheilungen*, but only seven numbers have been issued in ten years. The last, which appears after an interval of two years, is the largest published, containing 148 densely printed quarto pages, against the 123 of the sixth, and the 90 of the first. Among its varied information are the main results, as far as published, of the numerous official censuses taken in 1880 and 1881, including those of Denmark (February 1, 1880), the United States (June 1, 1880), Germany and Switzerland (December 1, 1880), Austria-Hungary and Belgium (December 31, 1880), Great Britain and her colonies (beginning of April, 1881), France (December, 1881), and Italy (December 31, 1881). Among the less important or less trustworthy enumerations lately carried out are those of Luxemburg, Cyprus, the Orange Free State, Venezuela, and Uruguay. Half-emancipated Bulgaria boasts already an official census, and the Grand Duchy of Finland has a new one, while most of the city populations of the bulk of the Russian Empire are known only from uncertain and partly antiquated estimates. Thus two different St. Petersburg statistical calendars for the years 1878 and 1882 give the following town populations respectively: Yelizavetgrad, 35,000, 63,000; Tiraspol, 16,700, 30,000; Alexandrovsk, 4,500, 14,000; Nizhni-Novgorod, 44,000, 12,400; Tzaritzyn, 11,800, 25,600; Dünaburg, 29,600, 52,000; Kherson, 46,000, 128,000. The late territorial or administrative changes in Asiatic Russia embrace the incorporation of the district of the Tekke Turcomans, a modification of the Russo-Persian boundary, the abolition of the Lieutenancy of the Caucasus and the Governor-Generalship of Orenburg, and a rearrangement of the Siberian divisions. The greatest recent territorial change in Europe is that arising from the cession by Turkey to Greece of parts of Thessaly and Epirus. The estimates of areas of various countries are changed in accordance with new measurements, of which the planimetric ones executed by General Strelbitzki, and published in his 'La Superficie de l'Europe' (St. Petersburg, 1882), are spoken of with great admiration. The total inhabited area of the globe is now estimated at 1,360,000 square myriametres, and the total number of mankind at 1,433,000,000. The corresponding estimates in the first number of this publication were 1,337,000 square myriametres, and 1,370,000,000 souls. It is hardly necessary to add that the great difference in the figures of population is owing mainly to a difference of views, and but secondarily to natural increase.

—London and New York had the privilege, on Saturday, of listening to Gilbert and Sullivan's latest operetta nominally at the same hour, although, owing to the difference in time, the performance in London was over two hours before it began at the Standard Theatre. The full title of the work is "Iolanthe; or, the Peer and the Peri, a new and original comic opera." It is a mistake to call this a comic opera. Properly speaking, a comic opera is a real comedy set to music ("Figaro," "Barber"), whereas "Iolanthe" is an operetta—that is, a farcical comedy, verging on burlesque, united to music of the simplest character, for which the adjective operettic is much more appropriate than operatic. Nor is it "new and original," in the full sense of those words. Some of the situations are new, as are the costumes and the scenery; but the music is not original and the dialogue and plot are not always new. With all this, "Iolanthe" is much above the average work of its kind, and although it will probably not equal its precursors in popularity, it bids fair to hold the stage for some time. Mr. Gilbert's natural proclivity is clearly toward the musical rather than the dramatic stage. Music is required to cover up the conspicuous absence of plot interest and complication, while the delineation of his characters and the fanciful nature of his subjects adapt them eminently for musical treatment. He and his collaborator understand each other so well that the result is almost as harmonious as if the libretto and the music had been written by the same person. In "Iolanthe" we are as usual confronted by some of his ingenious contradictions and paradoxes. *Iolanthe* is a fairy condemned to dwell at the bottom of a stream as punishment for having married a mortal. The offspring of their union, *Strephon*, is a fairy to the waist, but from the waist downward he is "a gibbering idiot." "My body," he says, "can creep through a key-hole, but what's the good of that when my legs are left kicking behind?" He loves and is loved by *Phyllis*, a ward in chancery, but the *Lord Chancellor* himself is a suitor for her hand, though the fact that he has to ask his own permission to marry her involves him in delicate perplexity. Meanwhile he forbids the "Arcadian shepherd," *Strephon*, to look upon her as his; but she informs him and his peers, who have marched in dignified procession on the stage, that she cannot accept their addresses. When they have left, *Strephon* has a meeting with his mother, whose assistance he implores. Being a fairy, *Iolanthe* is endowed with eternal youth; and *Strephon*, being seen with her, is therefore accused of infidelity. In vain he explains that this "maid of seventeen," as the peers call her, is his mother, and has been ever since his birth. *Phyllis* herself becomes jealous, and declares she will now marry one of the peers. *Strephon* calls upon the winged fairies to prove his ancestry. They trip upon the stage with their *Queen*, who is as massive as *Lady Jane* in "Patience," but talks about curling herself inside a buttercup, swinging upon a cobweb, and diving into a dewdrop. She has the misfortune to be taken for the proprietor of a young ladies' seminary, and in revenge predicts that *Strephon* shall sit in the next Parliament, that earldoms and peerages shall be sold for three a penny, and "a duke's exalted station be attainable by competitive examination." In the second act, which is placed in the Palace yard, with a gorgeous view of the Houses of Parliament in the background, *Phyllis* and *Strephon* get reconciled, but the *Lord Chancellor* still refuses his consent until *Iolanthe* interposes and explains that she is his wife and *Strephon* their son. She was to have suffered capital punishment for loving a mortal, but had been pardoned on condition of never revealing who her husband was. Now that she has done so to save her son, she is again condemned to die. But the fairies declare that in that case they all must die, for they have all fallen in love with the peers. The *Queen* relents because she "can't slaughter the whole company." The rule is changed into "every fairy shall die who *don't* marry a mortal," and the *Queen*, to save herself, proposes to *Private Willis*, the sentry, who consents, as he "don't think much of the British

soldier who wouldn't ill-convenience himself to save a female in distress."

—Of the music which Mr. Sullivan has added to this play it may be briefly said that it is well written and nicely instrumented, but lacks originality. Several of his numbers will always be encored, as they were on Saturday, but they will not add to his reputation as a writer of catching songs. A brass band is introduced on the stage in the first act, as in the "Merry War," but the march they play is commonplace compared with that played in Strauss's operetta, or in the works of Suppé. The scenery is superb, and the costumes likewise, displaying a noble disregard for expense, and a regard for correctness in material and style. The ensemble was smooth enough for a first night, and in a few days will be as satisfactory as usual at this theatre.

CORY'S GUIDE TO MODERN ENGLISH HISTORY.

A Guide to Modern English History. By William Cory. Part 1, 1815–1830. Part 2, 1830–1835. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

MR. CORY is a writer who thinks for himself. This statement may appear to be as high praise as a reviewer can bestow upon an author; but it is not so. A man may "think for himself," and be full of crotchets; he may think for himself, and be wanting in judgment; he may think for himself, and be deficient in knowledge of facts and in precision of thought; he may, in short, think for himself, and yet, from one cause or another, think wrong. Nay, to speak the truth, the independent thinker not only may display all the faults we have mentioned, but is specially liable to do so. The beaten track is as often as not the right track, and the man who makes his path for himself constantly blunders into quagmires which would have been avoided by the crowd who keep to the dull but safe high-road. Mr. Cory has, with many of the merits, all the faults of the man who thinks for himself. To judge him by his eccentricities or errors were absurdly unjust, but it is a dereliction of all critical duty to conceal or pass over the mistakes or conceits of an ingenious writer.

"Suppose there was a land in which paper reckonings of claims were unknown, in which all wealth was tangible, it would be possible for all households to lay up stores of clothing enough for many years, but not stores of food. In the most prudent community the sick and the old would, like the infants, partake of recently procured food, not of old garnered food. They would eat things brought to them by the strong and the lucky. Suppose, on the other hand, a country in which there are intangible properties, consisting of claims, expressed on paper. In such a country it seems impossible for any one to invest savings."

Whoever will reflect for a few minutes on the astounding doctrine contained in this paragraph will understand the feeling of the Frenchman who asserted, that the whole science of political economy had been hopelessly confused by the existence of *ce maudit argent*. Here is Mr. Cory, a man of a good deal more than ordinary knowledge and of considerable acuteness, who absolutely believes that the existence of bank notes is fatal to economy. Pay Hodges in kind, and Hodges, says Mr. Cory, may be a saving man; pay him in £5 notes, and it becomes impossible for Hodges to save or invest.

Any one, however, may grow confused on questions of currency, a topic on which it seems impossible to draw the line clearly between sanity and insanity. Let us hear Mr. Cory, then, upon a matter of hard definite law:

"It was not then, as it has been since, established by evidence, that he [George IV.] had, without the King's consent, married a Roman Catholic lady; that his public marriage with his cousin Caroline was a bigamous, therefore a void, transaction. Of course the Ministers thought the secret marriage a sham, and the Catholic lady only a concubine. In her time George was a Whig; both parties were entangled in his intrigues: an heir apparent to the Crown is as troublesome as a King to the men who rule England."

In this paragraph Mr. Cory either directly or by necessary implication asserts, that George IV. was, while Prince of Wales, legally married to a Roman Catholic lady—namely, Mrs. Fitzherbert; that his subsequent marriage with Caroline was a bigamous, and therefore a void, transaction, and that the King's daughter, the Princess Charlotte, was illegitimate and not entitled to succeed to the throne of which she was through life considered as the presumptive heiress. Now, each one of these assertions is demonstrably and notoriously untrue, though no doubt made by Mr. Cory in perfect good faith. It is really worth while in this case to state with precision the different errors which his perversion of law and history involves. They may be easily summed up: (1.) It is extremely doubtful whether the so-called marriage between the Prince of Wales and Mrs. Fitzherbert was believed by either of the parties to it to be a legally binding ceremony; the most that can be said for the lady is that she held it a marriage valid in the eye of the Roman Catholic Church, and therefore of heaven. (2.) It is absolutely certain that the marriage was, by the law of England, no marriage at all. This is the result of the Royal Marriage Act (12 Geo. III., cap. 11), and, if confirmation were needed, is conclusively settled by the Sussex Peerage case. (3.) Since George was never legally married, or, to put the thing plainly, was never married at all, to Mrs. Fitzherbert, his marriage with Caroline was not bigamous, and was not a void transaction; and hence (4) his child by Queen Caroline was legitimate, and was, as she has always been held to be, heiress to the Crown of England. What increases the oddity of Mr. Cory's mistakes is that he does not see the real danger in which the Prince was involved, not by marrying, but by attempting to marry, a Roman Catholic. There was a real risk lest he should invalidate his claim to the Crown under the Act of Settlement. The marriage might be void, but the penalty, as Lord John Russell puts it in his 'Life of Fox,' might be incurred.

What is the explanation of all this unconscionable amount of blundering on Mr. Cory's part? He was under no necessity to write a word about George's marriage. As he has written about it, it is almost an impertinence to suggest that he had never read the Royal Marriage Act, or glanced over the pages of Stanhope's 'Life of Pitt,' or Russell's 'Life of Fox'; yet had he done so it is all but impossible to imagine that he could have penned the passage on which we have commented. All that we can even hint at by way of explanation is, that men as able and as acute as Mr. Cory have fallen into quagmires as deep as that in which he flounders when they have mistaken the jack o'lantern of a paradox for the light of a newly discovered truth. Such men, however, are hardly safe guides through the paths of English history.

A dangerous guide may be a clever and instructive companion. This is exactly the case with Mr. Cory. Any one who knows something about the modern history of England may gain a great deal from his lively and paradoxical comments. If you want solid, systematic information, you had better go to the dull pages of Mr. Walpole; but if you wish to have old things put in a new and suggestive light, Mr. Cory is the man you want. His very errors are suggestive, and it would be most unfair to lead our readers to conclude that errors of any kind made up the mass of his work. His book might best be described as the comments of a sharp-witted, lively, and crotchety English gentleman on the history of the last sixty years. Even where you do not agree with him, it is often worth while thinking whether you ought not to agree with him, and what is the ground of your disagreement. Thus, he is of opinion that the fears of disturbance and revolution which haunted English ministers during the thirty years which followed the close of the great war were, in the main, groundless. He points to the weakness and inefficiency of the Radicals or Revolutionists, such as Hunt, Brandreth, Bamford, Watson, and the like, whose intrigues were supposed to menace the security of the country. He also calls attention to the fact that, even at the crisis of the Reform Bill, the amount of popular violence displayed was trifling. There is a good deal to be said in favor of Mr. Cory's view, and it must never be forgotten that statesmen who had witnessed or knew by immediate report the horrors of the French Revolution naturally felt an alarm at popular violence unknown both to their fathers and to their children. Still, when the whole evidence before us is carefully weighed, we are forced to the conclusion that, as regards the imminence of dangers to the State, the statesmen of the Regency were far nearer the truth than Mr. Cory. The danger lay not in the strength of conspirators like Brandreth, or of ruffians who planned the Cato Street plot, but in the kind of half sympathy felt with conspirators by men who did not themselves conspire. A sense of injustice and of misgovernment irritated the middle classes. The spread of pauperism, the growth of large manufacturing towns, all the pressure and misery which sudden social changes almost always involve, fostered discontent among the poor. A lucifer match is an innocent thing enough in itself, but few persons would care to see a lucifer match lighted in a powder magazine; and the simple truth is that between 1815 and 1845 there were in England materials for an explosion which might result from kindling a very small flame.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Cory does not see this, for his optimistic estimate of the condition of the country before 1832 somewhat detracts from the effect of his very excellent account of the movement of which the great Reform Bill was at once the sign and the cause. But, though Mr. Cory, under the influence of inveterate optimism and of a childlike faith in the political sagacity of "English gentlemen," may have a good deal underestimated the perils of the crisis through which England passed in 1832, we have hardly ever met with a writer who on the whole showed a keener insight into the characteristics of the period of reform. He is far more alive than are most historians to the influence exerted during Lord Grey's Ministry by the individual characters of the statesmen who made up the Whig Cabinet. He hits off with singular clearness the leading traits of Grey's own character; he shows that Lord Althorp, in spite of obvious deficiencies, possessed a good deal more ability than he is generally credited with at the present day.

Mr. Cory further suggests a partial explanation of the singular contrast between the administrative incapacity which, in the course of a very few years, ruined the prestige of the Whigs, and the statesmanlike largeness of several of their measures, and notably of their scheme for the amendment of the poor-laws. The fact seems to be that the appearance of incapacity arose in great part from mere want of official training, and in part also from the diffi-

culty of carrying out reforms through the agency of permanent officials appointed by Tories and brought up under all the traditions of Toryism. The statesmanlike grasp, on the other hand, and the bold initiative which mark certain portions of the policy of the Whig Cabinet, is due to the fact that its members were so earnest in their desire to improve the institutions of the country that they were willing to call in, by means of commissions and committees, theorists and experts such as Drummond, Sturges Bourne, and Senior. The philosophical radicals, and the thinkers whom Croker derided in the *Quarterly* as Benthamite coxcombs, supplied all that was soundest in the speculative statesmanship of the era of reform. Whoever wishes to see what this statesmanship was at its best should read and reread Mr. Cory's admirable account of the vices of the old poor-law, and of the mode in which they were corrected. Mr. Cory shows that the attempt to amend the distribution of relief to the poor involved something like the institution of parochial corporations. He also points out the characteristically English mode in which new bodies were created without actually destroying old offices and institutions that had practically become obsolete. To have shown with truth that this mode of gradual, bit by-bit reform, which aims at effecting essential changes without altering existing forms or names, is preëminently English, is, we rather suspect, in Mr. Cory's opinion the same thing as showing that this tortuous mode of procedure is inherently wise and good. There are not a few of his readers who may decline to admit that the system of looking one way and going another does not involve serious disadvantages. If the Whigs had avowedly turned parishes into corporations, it would now be far easier than it is for England to meet some of the most difficult problems of the day. However this may be, Mr. Cory is, when at his best, as suggestive by exciting disagreement as by convincing us that he is right. He is, as we have said, not the safest of guides; but he has with the defects the virtues of a man who will not repeat mere formulas, but who, even when he is in error, thinks for himself.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

One of the best boys' books of the season is 'Belt and Spur' (Scribner & Welford), a collection of stories of chivalry from the chroniclers of the Middle Ages. It begins with Wace's account of "how Duke William and his knights landed in England," and ends with "the act of arms between the Lord Scales and the Bastard of Burgundy" in 1467. The stories are seventeen in number, of great variety, both in character and in style of narration, being taken from a great number of chroniclers. Most of them are genuine history, the least historical being a most entertaining account of the exploits of the outlaw Fulk Fitzwarine, in the reign of King John. Of especial interest is the account of "the last deeds of Sir Harry Hotspur"—giving many details which the reader of Shakspere recognizes. Our only quarrel with the book is that the name of the compiler is concealed under the initials E. L. S., and that the authority for each story and illustration is not specifically given. Boys care nothing for this, to be sure, but then this book is as good for men as for boys. The illustrations (the book, by the way, is English, with an American title-page) "are mainly adapted from illuminated manuscripts in the British Museum."

Mr. Sidney Lanier's posthumous 'The Boy's Percy' (Scribner) will be likely to find its way beside his 'Boy's Froissart' and 'Boy's King Arthur.' It contains thirty-five of the best-known ballads in Bishop Percy's collection, with the spelling modernized, and with what is unclean left out—so that, for example, "The Nut-Brown Maid" becomes admissible. It would be easy to suggest favorites that one would like to see here, but books have their limits, and Mr. Lanier's poetic sense could be trusted to choose only what is intrinsically good, from a literary point of view. It is remarkable that his prose style could not accommodate itself to young minds; at least we cannot imagine how differently he would have composed his Introduction, had he been addressing adult readers. Still, his parting words to his boy audience are sound and wholesome, and he gives all that is needful of the strange history of the 'Reliques.'

H. W. Mabie's 'Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) are fascinating reading for young or old, though the style is not specially adapted for children. They tell of the making of the world, Odin's search for wisdom, the apples of Idun, Thor's wonderful journey, the twilight of the gods, the new earth, and many other Northern legends. The reader will be impressed by the weird and gloomy features of these Scandinavian myths, by which they are distinguished from the serene beauty of the Greek legends; and also by a peculiar vastness of conception, owing to their atmospheric or astronomical background. The gods are in constant conflict with the powers of darkness and with various zoölogical monsters—for example, a colossal snake, which grew until he coiled around the whole earth; the giant Thjasse, with eagle plumage, who carried off Loki and made him promise to steal the apples of Idun to which the gods owed their eternal youth and beauty; the giant Fenris wolf, whose hungry jaws stretched so far apart that they reached from heaven to earth, and who pursued the sun as he was sinking, and devoured it, whereupon awful darkness came over all—the darkness of the Fimbul winter. The chapter headed "The Twilight of the Gods," in which this Fimbul winter is described, would have been fit inspiration for Byron's lugubrious poem, "Darkness."

Mr. James Otis's sequel to his 'Toby Tyler, or Ten Weeks with a Circus,' published last year, bears the title of 'Mr. Stubbs's Brother,' and most of the old characters reappear in it. The new story has not quite the freshness of the old, but it is as amusing, as natural, and as wholesome. Mr. Stubbs, it may be remembered, was the intelligent and most mischievous monkey given to Toby while he was with the circus. Mr. Stubbs's brother is another monkey, of even more vicious propensities, given to Toby when the circus visits his old home. There is much knowledge of American boy-nature shown in the account of the efforts of Toby's young friends to make use of his acquaintance with a real circus in the getting up of an amateur circus. The cover of the present volume is a great improvement on the gaudier one of 'Toby Tyler,' and we must praise also the open page and large type, and the graphic illustrations of Mr. Rogers (Harper & Brothers).

'The Wonderful City of Tokio,' by Mr. Edward Greey (Boston: Lee & Shepard), is the trophy of the second of the three visits made by the author to Japan—the first with Commodore Perry's expedition in 1853, and the last two since 1880. Being a good artist as well as penman, Mr. Greey has designed for his book a wonderful cover of plum-blooms and gold, with the snow-clad Fuji Yama in the centre, and the jolly god Yebis turning the great earthquake-catfish into a Pegasus, and whipping him up the sky over Fuji, while Furu-roku-jin, the long-headed god, sits frightened on his tail. This picture of a night-*fish*—instead of a night-mare—is a sure proof that Japanese as well as our own youngsters overload their digestive organs with pastry and sweets at New Year's time. Inside the covers we find in Mr. Greey's lively book of wonders no less than 169 woodcuts, some of which are of the familiar Frenchy sort, though most of them are outline designs by native artists, engraved in Japan. Besides the odd phases of life in the big city when it was Yedo, the last new thing on the streets of the national capital and the Tokio of 1882 is hit off by these half-caricatures. The Jewett family not only go out to see the sights, but study the details of lacquer, porcelain, fan-making, ink and dry-goods, so that much really valuable information is conveyed to the reader in a pleasing way. The book opens a window into the mysteries of Japanese art-production, and to have read it is for the American boy or girl an introduction to a fascinating study. To each chapter is prefixed an appropriate stanza from a Japanese poet, which, though of a certain Walt-Whitmanish flavor, is more informing than a catalogue and pleasanter in style. The following is one of the best:

> "The potter moulds the clay upon the wheel, and behold a jar valued at a few sen (cents).
> "The artist takes his brush, and decorates the ware, and lo, the piece is worth the ransom of a great warrior."

Every page of the book betrays the author's thorough familiarity with the Japanese character, both human and typographic, and he gives us a picture of New Japan, showing how at every turn the old and the new civilization jostle each other. The old quaint and pleasing superstitions are being hustled away before the meaner superstitions of trade and Mammon. The book is both fascinating and instructive, despite the monotonous gestures and behavior of Sally and Fritz.

Gautier's 'My Household of Pets' (Roberts Bros.) is full of amusing characters and incidents, and embraces a great variety of pets, from cats to horses and lizards. But the translator should have felt at liberty to prune away the allusiveness of the original. How many children can understand, and how many parents explain, what "the elegy of Millevoye" is? Even in the opening sentence—"Caricatures are in existence which represent us clothed in Turkish fashion"—the journalistic *us* should have been changed to *me*, in order to be quickly intelligible.

A pleasant fancy, a good English style, and good taste characterize five fairy stories, called 'Little Folk in Green,' written by Henrietta Christian Wright, and published by White & Stokes. Miss Lydia Emmet furnishes a colored design for each story.

When we come to the illustrated books *par excellence*, where shall we begin if not with the old and tried? Such is Asbjörnsen's 'Folk and Fairy Tales,' translated by H. L. Brækstad (Armstrong), for it is the same book—identically, the clever Norwegian pictures and all—which we noticed last April under the title borne by the English edition, 'Around the Yule-Log'; and the source is one from which Sir G. W. Dasent helped himself, in his 'Tales from the North,' some thirty years ago, without excess of acknowledgment. We repeat that it is a capital book to have in the house. Then, there is Lucy Crane's fresh translation of a certain number of Grimm's 'Märchen'—'Household Stories,' she calls it. In this case Macmillan & Co. are the publishers, and Walter Crane furnishes graceful designs—head and tail-pieces, initial letters, and full-page drawings once in a while. The print and binding are in corresponding good taste, and the version delightfully idiomatic.

We may fitly follow these with Kate Greenaway's 'Almanack for 1883,' and Mr. R. Caldecott's newest picture-books (Routledge). The 'Almanack' is a dainty thing indeed, executed with that unerring felicity which Miss Greena-

way shows in her slightest work, and with characteristic refinement. Her active little people are sometimes mere dots of things, yet are as inimitable as Bewick's tail-pieces. Of the full-page figures, charming are those of the New Year and of the Spring. True to her sex, Miss Greenaway makes the Old and New Year women as well as the Seasons. As for Mr. Caldecott, in 'Hey, Diddle Diddle and Baby Bunting,' and 'The Milkmaid,' he shows again his perennial gift for extracting material for illustration from the most unpromising verse. Think of inventing five situations for "Nobody asked you, Sir! she said." With all his other admirable qualities, we find our greatest enjoyment in the largeness of this artist's perspectives.

Lieutenant-Colonel Seccombe has taken in hand 'The Good Old Story of Cinderella,' and retold it in rhyme, with some pictorial embellishments of his own invention, both in black and white and in color (A. C. Armstrong & Son). His drollery is kept well in hand—it is so easy to vulgarize—his verse is correctly measured off, and his illustrations rather clever, though not remarkable. The colored plates, after their kind, are not to be preferred to the woodcuts.

Dickens's 'Boots at the Holly Tree Inn' (Cassell) is not fit reading for children, and on that account it is just as well that Mr. J. C. Beard's designs for it are crude in color and drawing, and dreadfully common in sentiment.

There are pretty and refined studies of English child and nursery life in Ida Waugh's 'Wee Babies' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), though mothers must judge of the safety of presenting such examples to their babies as "The Battle" and "The Little Barber"—this last a scene of juvenile hair-cutting ruinous to front locks. The coloring is mostly in flat washes. Miss Blanchard's descriptive verse is of ordinary quality, and is throughout disfigured by the use of the ill-bred substitutes, "poppa" and "momma" (as they must be read), for papa' and mamma'.

Mr. Walter Satterlee's three-fish ornament is the best of his contributions to 'Elfinland' (George W. Harlan & Co.), and some few of his colored plates are happily conceived and executed. Miss Josephine Pollard, on her part, occasionally comes near to making a good Mother Goose melody, but the most of her rhymes are rather pointless. The joint product is accordingly of uneven and questionable merit.

There is a great diversity of talent among the five artists employed upon Mrs. Mary D. Brine's 'Christmas Rhymes and New Year's Chimes' (George W. Harlan & Co.). At the top stands Mrs. Jessie Curtis Shephard, whose graceful delineations of children have long been familiar to the magazine-reading public. She has here been too sparingly called upon, but every picture of hers tells amid the inferior draughtsmanship of her colleagues—women like herself, with one exception. "The Small Burglar" of the poem bearing that name is capitally studied, and has been very successfully interpreted on the wood by a woman's hand. Mrs. Brine's muse is liberal as to quantity.

Gertrude Clement's 'Pussy Willow and Other Child Songs' (White & Stokes) contains within illustrated covers thirty-two poems by Henriette Cushing, set to music by S. E. Farrar, each song being accompanied by an appropriate illustration. The music is of that simple kind, devoid of ideas, of which so much is found in our Sunday-school books. Why not take German or Italian folk-songs, which are as simple and as easy as these, but at the same time possess a great melodic or rhythmic charm? The illustrations are better in conception than in execution, and the color printing is rather blotchy.

A certain woodenness pervades 'Around the House' (R. Worthington). Mr. Edward Willett's rhymes are respectable, and so are Mr. Charles Kendrick's colored illustrations. A higher level they never reach.

The 'Landseer Series of Picture Books' (T. Nelson & Sons) will make their way at once, and deservedly. They are adorned, within and without, with colored copies of Landseer's most familiar animal pieces, with more or less faithful suggestions of the color of the originals. The text, by Mrs. Surr, is simple and easily intelligible, and is printed in bold type. The covers are of paper.

Robert Bloomfield's provincial ballad, 'The Horkey' (Macmillan), has been admirably fitted for childish enjoyment by Mr. George Cruikshank, whose colored decorations and illustrations do no discredit to his name. There is much art in the picture of the moonlight walk home through the damp air:

> "For, when we laugh'd, it laugh'd again,
> And to our own doors follow'd!
> 'Yo, ho!' we cried; 'Yo, ho!' so plain
> The misty meadow halloo'd."

And what Mr. F. C. Burnand, in his punning prefatory address, calls the "horkeytectural" part of these character-sketches—the interiors, the mantel-pieces, the old-fashioned chairs, the clocks, the set tables—is throughout delightful. Mr. Burnand makes obscurely plain that "the horkey" is the harvest-home festival in Suffolk, England. Mr. Bloomfield purposely weaves into his verses, descriptive of the "Suffolk fun," the "lingo of their own," italicizing it lest it may escape notice, as some of the words would in this country. Both pictorially and in a literary point of view this production has a quaintness and humor which are certain to amuse both young and old.

RECENT POETRY.

It is said to be the test of a gentleman that he should look well in a dress-coat, and an illustrated edition is the dress-coat of poetry. All the vast sum spent by Rogers in securing Turner to illustrate his 'Italy' and his 'Poems' only revealed the discrepancy between that smooth, shallow versification and Turner's work. It is Mr. Aldrich who has tempted this perilous test in one of the most beautiful books ever issued in America—'The Poems of Thomas Bailey Aldrich, Illustrated by the Paint and Clay Club' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The mechanical execution leaves nothing to be desired, and the landscape illustrations are sometimes of exquisite beauty. As is too common in American books, the representations of the human figure are far less good; the "Fisher's Daughter" (p. 111) seems like an uncouth wood-carving, and in the illustrations to "Baby Bell" there is an almost grotesque contrast between the extreme youthfulness of the theme and the decidedly mature personage depicted in the tail-piece. But, in truth, this inequality between the human interest and the natural scenery belongs well enough to the poetry itself: there are charming descriptions of nature, but the verse sounds no depth; there is finish, but it is the finish of Barry Cornwall, not of Tennyson. Sometimes there is a flavor of imitation so marked that it would seem almost intentional: the "Dolores" (p. 49) has caught precisely the jingle of Thackeray, and the "Lamia" (p. 106) is a rewriting of Keats's "La Belle Dame sans Merci." The *motif* is in this last case almost precisely the same with that of the earlier poem, and so is the measure. In Keats we read:

> "I met a lady in the meads,
> Full beautiful—a faery's child;
> Her hair was long, her foot was light,
> And her eyes were wild."

Mr. Aldrich gives us:

> "I met a woman in the glade:
> Her hair was soft and brown,
> And long, bent silken lashes weighed
> Her ivory eyelids down."

Had Bayard Taylor, or anybody with a knack at imitation, printed either of these poems by Mr. Aldrich to represent the style of Keats or of Thackeray, we should all have said, "Well done!" and it is this which makes the misfortune of the verses when they appear without any such explanation.

Mr. Aldrich deserves credit for his high standard of literary workmanship. His taste is fastidious and his ear nice; he never leaves anything in slovenly or wilfully neglected condition. This makes it the more inexplicable that he should sometimes be betrayed into incorrect or inadequate rhymes—as, "vain" and "again" (p. 22), "talons" and "balance" (p. 51), "pansies" and "fancies" (p. 59), "stood" and "mood" (p. 68). His poems cannot be ranked as classics, but they often have the form of classics; they present such graceful thoughts, clothed in words so delicate, that criticism is almost disarmed. In presence of anything so pretty as the verses about the white-rose lover, for instance (p. 73), we are compelled to admit that nothing of the kind could be better; it is in its way delicious, but, after all, it is the deliciousness of fresh confectionery after dinner. There is the same difference between Mr. Aldrich's verse and great poetry that there is between Edwin Booth's acting and great tragedy.

If this limitation attaches to the work of an experienced littérateur like Mr. Aldrich, what can be said of the younger men who are treading in his path, who are where he was twenty years ago, or at the period when the very juvenile portrait prefixed to his volume was painted? Mr. Aldrich has, at least, entire simplicity of purpose, and there is no evidence that he overrates himself. But Mr. Rennell Rodd comes before us severely handicapped by the fact that his poems are edited by his friend Mr. Oscar Wilde. They appear under the name of 'Rose-Leaf and Apple-Leaf' (Philadelphia: Stoddart & Co.), the little verses being daintily printed on tissue-paper of the appropriate shades, and decorated with preposterous little Japanese vignettes. There is no harm in the poems; they have none of the pruriency shown in those of Mr. Rodd's "heart's brother," as he calls him in the dedication; they are such as many sentimental youths write in college; but, after all, they suggest the advice of Voltaire to a young friend, that he should proclaim himself ruler of the vast empire of the inane: "Le néant est un grand empire; regnez-y!" The really remarkable thing is, that Mr. Wilde, long since crowned in that domain, should consent to bear a brother near his throne.

'The Praise and Blame of Love, with Other Verse' (Glasgow: Wilson & McCormick) bears such a look of the current affectation in its title, that one opens it expecting to find only the accustomed beverage of Rossetti-and-water. Is it because the author is a Scotchman that he gives us, nevertheless, poetry with some fibre in it, and cannot be namby-pamby even where, as in the "Patch of Loch," he comes dangerously near it? Such a sonnet as the following makes a positive addition to the literature of the sea, and ranks with some of the fine lines of Alexander Smith, or with one or two of Sydney Dobell's ballads—these being Edinboro' men, and the present poet from Glasgow:

"THE SEA.

> "In sunlight and in storm, the giant sea
> Breathes with the equal breath of yearlong sleep;
> From breath to breath it is a day, so deep,
> So utter deep his rest. The winds in glee
> May pass like faery dreams across his face
> Or winds in wrath may stir the spumy hair
> That hoary was ere toiling peoples were,
> Or flowers, or grass, or any pleasant place;
> But still he sleeps, with breath on equal breath,
> And still he sleeps, till now we scarcely fear;
> Yet once he rose and swept the green earth clear,
> And laughed alone the surging heavens beneath.
> Dream'st thou again to tumble thrones and creeds
> Deep down together 'mid the tangled weeds?"

(P. 135.)

We can see nothing of promise in Mr. Theodore Tilton's 'Swabian Stories' (New York: Worthington), because, though the research and the effort are meritorious, the verse is flat and tame, and the ballads long-winded. Mr. Boyesen's 'Idyls of Norway' (New York: Scribner) are far more pleasing, and indeed the author's poetry, like his prose, flows with only too great facility, and shows too little concentration. The few sonnets at the end of the book reveal more of thought and vigor than has been visible in most of the work done by this writer. 'Holiday Idlesse, and Other Poems,' by James H. West (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) is a reprint of an earlier volume, with many additions; and it is accompanied, for the convenience of reviewers—who are known to be a timid and self-distrustful race—by a list of passages deemed meritorious, with an occasional asterisk designating the very best. There are some extracts also given, so that an ordinary pair of scissors will soon construct the review. The drawback is that, to avoid monotony, even the most indolent reviewer must select something not thus prescribed, and we prefer to print the following, which we must respectfully decline to mark (*):

"Calm on the candent evening air
The Medford bells are ringing;
Mild is the musical chime they bear,
Gladly their sibilant song I share,
Peace to my sad heart bringing.

"Ah! of what matter browning fields!
What matter flowers that wither!
Brighter-far blossoms Wisdom yields,
Stronger-far sceptre Virtue wields;
Come! let us wander thither" (p. 65).

Lays simpler than this, and to our taste more pleasing, are to be found in 'Songs of Lake Geneva, and Other Poems,' by John Brayshaw Kaye (New York: Putnam). The best of these are, as usual, those which have the most of local coloring, and which contribute something toward that web of romance and tradition which will one day prove our lakes and hills to be as good classic ground as any other. In this respect we receive but what we give; were it not for the poetic nature of the Scottish people, the hills of their country would to-day be as bare to the imagination as to the eye. The true tradition is in the poet's mind; the guides in Scotland exhibit to you the scenes of imaginary battles in "The Lady of the Lake" with as much patriotic zeal as if they were pointing out Bannockburn.

'Sheaves,' by Harriet Converse (New York: Putnam), have here and there a glimpse of local coloring, as in "Regal October," but not very much of it. Mr. John McGovern's 'A Pastoral Poem, and Other Pieces' (Chicago: Union Publishing House), has something of it in "Irkoutsk to San Francisco," though the doggerel rhymes at the end of the volume rather disfigure the whole. The same local interest attaches to the scenes on the Chagrin or Shagreen River in Illinois, as described in 'The Hunter of the Shagreen: a Descriptive Poem' (Cleveland: Williams); although, apart from this, the work is not remarkable. On the other hand, we cannot find anything that is distinctively American, or much that is positively interesting, in long poems constructed out of the inner consciousness, like Mr. Leonard Wheeler's 'Erothanatos,' published nominally, and most appropriately, by the "Melancholy Club" (New York: Miller). 'Lethe, and Other Poems,' by David Morgan Jones (Philadelphia: Lippincott), has a most soporific title, but contains some good patriotic verse, on themes of the war, showing that the author did not go to sleep over his own poem, as did La Fontaine at the performance of his own opera. 'The Inevitable,' by Edward McIntyre (New York: Vaux & Roper), is also one of the rather abstruse effusions, but has a real purpose in dealing with the question of Socialism. More extraordinary than any of these larger poems is 'The Modern Job,' by Henry Peterson (Philadelphia: Lippincott), included in a second series of his verses. Job is a modern man, whose trials and temptations are of the period; the villain of the piece, or one of the villains, being a certain dwarf, who thus describes the hero:

"Ha! what's this?
By hokey-pokey, it's as good as a play:
First one, and then another—in one day, too.
I wonder if there is a comet about?
As sure as Thee and Thou, and Yea and Nay,
It is that Job. I know his measure, too—
One-fourth, say, Quaker, one-fourth Rationalist,
One-fourth good Orthodox, and one-fourth Fool.
Only one-fourth a fool! Why, he is a sample" (p. 125).

It is worth noticing that among the shorter and less eccentric poems of Mr. Peterson is one in defence of Helen of Troy, in which he takes the ground that she was not a culpable person, and was only beguiled by the goddess into mistaking Paris for her husband (p. 47). It seems that it is now Helen's turn for vindication, since Mr. A. Lang, previously well known as a translator, has written a much more elaborate plea for her ('Helen of Troy': New York: Scribner), in which he goes a step further and makes her not merely mistake her lover for Menelaus, but forget her lord and master altogether, under the influence of the goddess, so that she passes into a total oblivion of the past. It is a sort of legal plea of somnambulism, in fact. With this explanation, Mr. Lang completely disarms all criticism on the moral side, and bears us to a really delightful Greek world, where all is grace and poetry, and no one ever does anything wrong. There is just enough flavor of William Morris about it all to make it attractive, and the inferiority of the workmanship is not felt until we reach "The Death of Paris," and compare the treatment with the depth and emotional power of Morris's poem under that title, which is, we take it, his greatest work.

There is another poem on a classic theme by an American lady residing in Europe, Miss Virginia Vaughan. Her subject is 'Ulysses and the Sirens,' and she treats it with some originality of thought and feeling, and with smoothness of expression, but without marked poetic power. Her work is dedicated to James Russell Lowell. Poetry of more marked quality, also by an American woman, is to be found in 'Songs of a Semite: the Dance to Death; and Other Poems,' by Emma Lazarus (New York: Office of the *American Hebrew*). Miss Lazarus has long since proved her credentials as a poet by works both original and translated, and in each case of high excellence. She is true to her race, yet not enslaved to its traditions; and has more than feminine boldness and freedom of touch, yet without a trace of coarseness. Perhaps the most striking poem in this volume is where she ventures on a thought of Heine's and works it out; first translating his "Donna Clara," in which a high-born damsel finds herself unwittingly betrayed into an intrigue with what she most despises, a Jew; and then carrying out the story—perfectly in keeping with the original thought, and also with the probabilities of the period—into the birth of a son who is brought up ignorant of his parentage, hates the Jews, and at last, as abbot of a monastery, condemns his own father to death. This finale is so striking that one wishes the two parts added by Miss Lazarus could be rendered into German, to see how they would seem beside the original poem. Her talent as a translator also appears in this volume by some notable versions from the Spanish-Hebraic mediæval poets; and the leading tragedy, "The Dance to Death," is full of power, though shown in a very painful form, the plot turning on Jewish persecutions in the fourteenth century. The whole book is remarkable, and it is a pity that when so much commonplace verse comes to us in luxurious type and paper, this thin pamphlet should appear in almost the dinginess of a newspaper-extra issue.

Another poem deeply tinged with religious interest, though of a very modern and free-thinking description, is 'The Trinity: a Nineteenth-Century Passion-Play' (Cambridge, England: Johnson). The very title predicts that inevitable jarring upon the pious sensibilities which the word "passion-play" now describes; and, indeed, it makes little difference whether the attempt to reproduce the old form takes place in Cambridge or in San Francisco. The author boldly intensifies this natural shrinking on the reader's part by giving him plenty of details that are rather repellent, such as the delineation of Mary Magdalene in the light of an almost successful temptress, ere she becomes a penitent. Yet this is the portion of the performance which is best executed; the higher parts are not so successful, and the lower parts are flat; while there is, nevertheless, a certain freshness of spirit throughout the book, carrying promise with it, and making the poem something quite out of the ordinary, both as to form and theme.

It would seem almost inappropriate to pass without due interval from these minor poets to the announcement of a new volume by Browning, 'Agamemnon, La Saisiaz, and Dramatic Idyls' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), were it not that it is largely a reprint of older volumes, and therefore demands a consideration less ample at the present time. It contains his powerful and rather craggy translation of the 'Agamemnon' of Æschylus; a reprint of the English volume that held, among other pieces, "The Two Poets of Croisic" and "Iván Ivánovitch"; together with a second series of "Dramatic Lyrics." These last will come with the greatest novelty to his American readers, but every poem in the volume bears proof that Browning's extraordinary powers are as great now, when he writes in England, as when he once wrote from Italy, and that he still goes on working out his own poetic theories and creating the taste by which he is enjoyed. The volume of 'Studies from Browning,' by our countryman Mr. Holland, lately published in London, with an introduction by Mrs. Sutherland Orr, must soon aid in popularizing the fame of this the strongest of the modern English poets; and one might apply to Browning himself the poem in this volume which he possibly meant to apply to Carlyle—the fine poem of "Echetlos," founded on a Greek tale of the clown who won the chief laurels of the fight at Marathon, though wielding for a weapon only his own ploughshare:

"But one man kept no rank, and his sole arm plied no spear,
As a flashing came and went, and a form i' the van, the rear,
Brightened the battle up, for he blazed now there, now here.

"Nor helmed nor shielded he! but a goat-skin all his wear,
Like a tiller of the soil, with a clown's limbs broad and bare,
Went he ploughing on and on: he pushed with a ploughman's share."

Dictionary of Music and Musicians. By George Grove, D. C. L. Parts XV.-XVI. Schoberlechner to Sketches. Macmillan. 1882.

A YEAR has elapsed since the appearance of the last number of Grove's 'Dictionary,' but the new number atones for this delay by its size (271 pp.) and the quality of its contents. The best articles are that on Schubert by the editor, which we like better still than his Beethoven, and that on Schumann by Professor Spitta, the famous biographer of Bach. Dr. Grove has

long been known as one of the best authorities on Schubert, his theory of the existence of a tenth symphony having brought him prominently before the public. His whole article is pervaded by an enthusiasm which gives a peculiar zest to both the biographic and critical portions, leaving on the reader's mind an emotional impression similar to that which would be produced by the works under discussion—which is the highest praise that could be bestowed on criticism. He still adheres to his belief in regard to an additional symphony, written about two and a half years before the great one in C, No. 9; but the evidence is not advanced any further than it was a year ago, when he summed it up in the *Athenæum* of November 19.

Eleven pages are devoted to a carefully-prepared alphabetical list of Schubert's songs, and a catalogue of all his works in the order of their composition, as far as now ascertainable. There are no less than 1,131 compositions—not an insignificant number for a composer who died in his thirty-first year. But Schubert began very early, and he was of all musicians the most spontaneous and fluent. He seems to have generally written as fast as his pen could travel, and his productivity was only limited by the number of poems he could find, or, in his early days, by the amount of music-paper he could procure through the generosity of his friends. At an age when Beethoven had written but one symphony, he had written nine or ten. His famous "Erlking" was written when he was eighteen. His favorite poets seem to have been Goethe and Schiller, sixty-seven and fifty-four of whose poems, respectively, he availed himself of. About 100 poets in all were laid under contribution, and the total result was 605 songs. "His music," says Dr. Grove, "changes with the words as a landscape does when sun and cloud pass over it. And in this Schubert has anticipated Wagner, since the words to which he writes are as much the absolute basis of his songs as Wagner's librettos are of his operas." The originality and frequency of his modulations—"that great engine of emotion"—are another feature in which he resembles Wagner, although in character his modulations are quite different from Wagner's chromatic and enharmonic changes of key. Of his spontaneity Dr. Grove says: "With Beethoven, spontaneity was the result of labor, and the more he polished the more natural were his tunes. But Schubert read the poem, and the appropriate tune, married to immortal verse, rushed into his head and to the end of his pen." His passion for rhythm, his splendid basses, his characteristic and descriptive accompaniments, and his hesitation between major and minor (the present tendency being more and more to a decision in favor of minor) are also adequately described. Dr. Grove does not believe that Schubert's early death was the result of exhaustive mental labor:

"It was his privations, his absolute poverty, and the distress which he naturally felt at finding that no exertions could improve his circumstances or raise him in the scale of existence, that in the end dragged him down. His poverty is shocking to think of. Nearly the first distinct glimpse we catch of him is in the winter of 1812, supplicating his brother for a roll, some apples, or a few half-pence to keep off the hunger of the long fast in the freezing rooms of the *Convict*. Within a year of his death we catch sight of him again, putting up with coffee and biscuits because he has not 8½d. to buy his dinner with; selling his great trio for 17s. 6d, and his songs at 10d. each, and dying the possessor of effects which were valued at little more than £2. Beside this, the poverty of Mozart—the first of the two great musicians whom Vienna allowed to starve—was wealth."

For those who are unable to buy the whole of Dr. Grove's Dictionary it would be a great boon if the articles on Schubert, Schumann, Beethoven, and a few others were reprinted in pamphlet or book form. The Schubert is certainly the most interesting and complete treatise on the subject in existence.

"Scottish Music," "Score," "Sketches," and "Singing" are some of the other longer articles; and they are alike readable and instructive. In the article on singing the leading characteristics of prominent vocalists are briefly described. After mentioning Patti, Albani, Nilsson, Trebelli, and Lucca, the writer asks significantly, "Where is the decadence in the art of singing of which you complain?" The truth is, no period was ever so well provided with singers who appeal to the soul and not to the ears alone. Formerly most of the singers were of the lyric type, while at present we have, besides these, a class of vocalists—Materna, Reicher-Kindermann, Vogel, Schelper, Gura, Scaria—who, besides first-rate technical accomplishments, possess a dramatic power probably undreamed of half a century ago. Those who are in the habit of reproaching Beethoven, Wagner, and other modern composers with treating the voice as an instrument, will probably change their minds on looking over the examples given on p. 505 of vocal music of the period of "great singers," concerning which we read that "the passages in much of the music of that date, especially that of Porpora, are really instrumental passages, strongly resembling the vocalizzi of the period, and possessing but little interest beyond the surprise that their exact performance would create." The manner in which the music of each nation is dependent on and conditioned by its language is made clear, and (the test being the amount of agreement between the language as spoken and sung) the languages are ranked in their order of musical value as follows: Italian, Latin, German, French, and English, although in some respects French precedes German. On the English the writer is severe enough: "No nation in the civilized world speak its language so abominably as the English. The Scotch, Irish, and Welsh, in the matter of articulation, speak much better than we do. Familiar conversation is carried on in articulate smudges of sounds which are allowed to pass current for something, as worn-out shillings are accepted as representatives of twelve-pence, . . . and when English people begin to study singing they are astonished to find that they have never learned to speak." We do these things much better on this side of the Atlantic.

It would be pleasant to stop this notice here, after finding so much to praise; but Part XV. contains an article of no less than fifty-five pages which is a disgrace in every way to the 'Dictionary.' One wonders, indeed, how Dr. Grove could have been induced to accept such incoherent, irrelevant, and incorrect trash, unless, as we suspect, from personal considerations. The article is on "Schools of Composition," and goes over the whole ground of the 'Dictionary' again in a chaotic, aimless fashion, an attempt being made to class all music under thirty-five "schools." The very idea of such a thing is absurd, a "school" being merely a rhetorical device to facilitate literary work. If it was intended to give an account of the different phases of the history of music, it should have been done under that heading, because no one in consulting a dictionary would think of finding two columns on Raff's symphonies, or as much on Mendelssohn, under "Schools of Composition." Throughout the rest of the 'Dictionary' Dr. Grove has followed the excellent plan of assigning each composer to one who is in sympathy with and understands him. This notice, however, is little but a string of dogmatic views from a very narrow standpoint; and it need not be said that such a thing is foreign to the sphere of a dictionary. We are told, for example, that the "school" of Bach has languished for lack of disciples, whereas everybody knows that Schumann, Wagner, and other modern composers have been strongly influenced by Bach, whose polyphonic style is destined to flourish as much in the future as it ever has in the past. We are informed of a "decline in instrumental compositions of the highest order," in face of the symphonies of Rubinstein, Brahms, and Raff, the symphonic poems of Saint-Saëns and Liszt, and the symphonic dramas of Wagner. The reference to "the manifest inferiority of the German part-song to the English glee" may be pardonable in an English writer, although it is wide of the mark. German part-songs are sung all the world over, English glees only by the English. The most extraordinary statements, however, will be found in the columns devoted to Wagner. The assertion that he "will be lovingly remembered by *Senta's* ballad, 'Traft ihr das Schiff,' ages after his operas have ceased to be performed in their entirety," is destined to become an oft-quoted, unintentional *bon-mot*. The same writer said, in the article on "Opera," that Wagner had nothing to tell us that Gluck had not already said. Surely Dr. Grove was incautious in choosing a collaborator who does not know the difference between the theories of Gluck and Wagner. Gluck's theory was that the music should be to the libretto what color is to a drawing. Instead of being merely a peg on which a singer could hang his fancy work, he insisted that the melodies should closely follow and illustrate the text. He retained, however, the old operatic forms—the aria, recitative, finales, and dance movements. These Wagner abolished, substituting for them a continuous symphonic accompaniment by the orchestra, and melodious declamation by the singer. Nor did Gluck use Wagner's system of leading motives, by which a drama is made one organic whole, while the means of characterization and the definite expression of emotion are so widely extended and improved. Unless Dr. Grove can get some scholar to correct Mr. Rockstro's numerous blunders, his articles will remain a lasting blemish on his 'Dictionary.'

Travels in South Kensington, with Notes on Decorative Art and Architecture in England. By Moncure D. Conway. Harper & Bros. 1882.

THIS book consists of three essays: on "The South Kensington Museum and its Schools," on "Decorative Art and Architecture in England," and on "Bedford Park," respectively. A considerable part, if not all of it, has appeared before in *Harper's Magazine*. We cannot concur with Mr. Conway's unqualified praise of the decorative art now so common in England, and we differ from him especially as regards the character and usefulness of the South Kensington schools of art. These schools have always appeared to us both shortsighted and misleading in their principal aims and tendencies, owing, in great measure, to the misconception, in accordance with which they were established, of supposing that decorative art may be cultivated independently of the higher arts, and in the interest primarily of industrial or commercial ends. The decorative arts are not essentially distinct from other branches of fine art, and they may be rightly cultivated only in connection with that general training of the feelings and tastes out of which all good art springs. The effort to improve what is called art applied to industry, without a foundation of comprehensive culture of the perceptive and graphic faculties, is altogether futile. The limitation of aim upon which the Kensington schools are con-

ducted is a false one; and, with this limitation, it is natural that the principles of instruction should be inadequate, and the methods employed largely mechanical. It is impossible that the products of such a system should be otherwise than formal and lifeless.

Take, for instance, the illustrations given by Mr. Conway on page 109, an example of work done in the department of ornamental design derived from plant-forms. This consists of a drawing of "Nettle in its Natural State" and "Nettle in its Geometric Proportions." The first drawing is given to show the materials from which the so-called designs are made, the second being these designs. Now, these formal figures are no more designs than the drawing of the plant in its natural state is a design. They are only misrepresentations of the approximately geometric plans of certain parts of the plant. Work of this kind is as far removed from anything deserving the name of design as it is from truth to nature. It is simply blinding to the perceptions and deadening to the sense of what is beautiful. One of the very first principles of nature which a designer should be taught to feel is the inequality and changefulness which even the most formal natural things exhibit, and which give them a living character. In good art, of whatever kind and of whatever age or country, this living principle of nature is always expressed. In the floral and foliate ornamentation of Italian and French Gothic it is preëminently so, but it is also constant in the most formal and abstract work of the Greeks, who, in subordinate ornamentation, came as near to formality as good designers could. In the Kensington schools, as a rule, examples of the best things in design are not kept before the pupils as they ought to be, and their important characteristics illustrated. Instead of this, mechanical outlines—which grossly misrepresent good things—are used as models. It is true that a vast number of original designs and reproductions, of excellent and instructive character, are contained in the Museum; but they have, and can be expected to have, no practical effect on the students while the instruction in the schools not only does nothing to assist the proper understanding of them, but places obstacles in the way of such understanding by providing bad examples for practice, and encouraging original work like this illustration in Mr. Conway's book—respecting which he remarks, page 110, that it "will perhaps enable the reader to understand the kind of work by which this school has relieved England of its former dependence on Paris and Lyons."

Regarding the second and third essays we have not much to remark. We think that little of true worth is to be looked for in the costly vagaries which go to make up the embellishments of the rich men's houses described by Mr. Conway, or in the fanciful æsthetic affectations which, in our judgment, spoil what is good in Bedford Park. It is earnestly to be hoped that ere long both England and America may awake to a recognition of the fact that, in order to improve taste in any department of the fine arts, it is necessary to aim primarily at careful training of the perceptions and feelings, and of the eye and hand, without regard to immediate production of decorative or other art.

Parisian Art and Artists. By Henry Bacon. Illustrated. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

WITH good paper, clear, large print, and numerous illustrations, there is on the author's part a rather fragmentary disposition of his subject-matter. First we hear a little about Bastien-Lepage, then a little about Jacquet, but not quite enough about either, and in particular not enough to be able to estimate them. How high or low does each stand in relation to the whole body? what is his distinctive originality? what the group to which he belongs? Questions like these are not sufficiently answered. The author might have performed a greater service, in the same space, by districting the field and generalizing somewhat more, instead of dealing so exclusively with particulars. The reader is disposed to go in search of other treatises to complete what is here begun.

Mr. Bacon is himself an artist of no mean skill, and has been a student at the Paris schools. His information, such as it is, therefore, comes from the inside; but he writes rather for those who know a great deal about his personages already than for those who know nothing. He is patriotic toward Paris, and finds in it the inspiration of all the European schools, not excepting that of Munich, now its principal rival. The truth is, that with the universal dissemination of models and methods at present, there hardly exist any longer schools that can be geographically located. Examples of all the prevailing methods of workmanship are found everywhere. At Paris, however, these examples are most numerous and the activity is on the largest scale. It appears from Mr. Bacon's pages that an intense vigor of realization, and the "modernism" characteristic of these late years, are at least not on the decline. Realism of a harsh and brutal sort, allied to that of Zola in literature, is preferred in many quarters. The reproach of unidealism cannot, however, be applied to the best of the "modernists," such as De Nittis and Duez, who seek the grace and charm to be found in contemporary life. Mr. Bacon shows us some of their devices for catching the apparently elusive scenes of street and market-place, of which they are fond. Jean Beraud, for instance, uses a cab as a studio, and De Nittis an omnibus, specially contrived with a glass roof. Others (the American painter, Knight, among them) have studios made entirely of glass, like hothouses, for the purpose of completing their out-of-door studies in the diffused light natural to them. The Russian painter, Verschagin, adds to the glass studio the improvement of making it revolve with the sun, in order to keep the rays upon a model always in the same direction.

The illustrations in this volume are to a considerable extent "process" reproductions of slight sketches contributed by the artists treated of.

Joshua R. Giddings. A Sketch. By Walter Buell. Cleveland: W. W. Williams. 12mo, pp. 213.

WHETHER one whose political career was confined wholly to the House of Representatives is eligible to a place in the series of "American Statesmen," we do not know. If not, this unpretending but skilfully-composed and interesting volume may fitly be placed on the same shelf, and might well have been given a corresponding form. It has a special title to stand beside the life of John Quincy Adams, for between that statesman and Giddings a peculiarly warm feeling—of regard on the one hand, of veneration on the other—quickly arose when, in 1838, the younger champion of Northern manliness came to the support of the elder. It is this quality, indeed, which attracts one most strongly to Giddings—his erect bearing among bullies and doughfaces; his refusal to cringe or to be intimidated, or, above all, to be silent when both sections of the Union in Congress had conspired to suppress debate on the subject of slavery. One of his very earliest votes was against the passage of the Atherton gag resolutions, which nullified the right of petition. His latest political act was to withdraw from the Chicago Republican Convention of 1860 until it mustered courage to put an anti-slavery plank in its platform—his own plank at last.

Besides the collection of his speeches published in 1853, it appears that this modest and great-hearted man left scanty materials for his biographer. The originality of Mr. Buell's sketch consists in hitherto unpublished extracts from journals kept by Mr. Giddings in 1838–39, and again in 1848–49. Here likewise the available portions are rather meagre, though sufficiently indicative of the writer's character. It is curious that Mr. Buell does not mention Giddings's work on the Seminole war, called 'The Exiles of Florida,' and says (p. 208) of his 'History of the Rebellion' that it "was never published"—an entire mistake. The following extract from the diary for January, 1839, is perhaps best worth quoting. Mr. Adams had just made (on the 21st) a formal exposition of his views on the subject of slavery:

"His speech," wrote Mr. Giddings, "created a great sensation. . . . Mr. Slade, of Vermont, who is the greatest Abolitionist in the House, seemed to be very apprehensive that the speech would have a bad influence on the subject of abolition. . . . I am, however, fully of the opinion, from the language used by Mr. Adams, and the cautious manner in which he expressed himself, that his want of readiness to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia is not owing to any doubt as to the power of Congress to do so; nor to any other reason other than a question as to the policy of such action. The difficulty that has often presented itself to my mind is, that if Congress should pass a law to abolish slavery in the District, before it could take effect the slaves would all be taken out of the District, and the law would find none here to take effect upon. But if Congress should first pass a law prohibiting the taking of any slave out of the District, that would keep them here, and, when a law to abolish slavery should pass, it would have the effect to liberate from nine to ten thousand slaves. Of Mr. Adams's views beyond what he has publicly expressed, I know nothing" (p. 88).

A truthful, and therefore pleasing, portrait of Mr. Giddings, on steel, accompanies this little volume.

The Land of the Arabian Nights: Being Travels through Egypt, Arabia, and Persia to Bagdad. By Wm. Perry Fogg, A.M. With an Introduction by Bayard Taylor. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

THIS is a reprint, under a somewhat different name, of a book which has been before the reading public since 1875. 'Arabistan; or, The Land of the Arabian Nights,' was the title of the first (English) edition. The author says in the preface: "The revised edition now offered is in response to a demand which has hitherto been supplied from abroad. But very slight revision was necessary, for life in the East is the same now as a generation ago." In truth, almost the only revision made, so far as a quite careful comparison can detect, is what has just been noticed in the title-page.

The reappearance of the book, however, is opportune at a time when all eyes are turned toward the East; and many a reader, noticing that the first part of it—and, in fact, nearly half of its pages—are devoted to "Travels through Egypt," will be tempted to purchase it, to see if it contains anything that will throw light upon the "Egyptian question." Following Mr. Fogg in his travels through the country, we shall pick up here and there a bit of important information. We are told, for example, that Alexandria was a city of most heterogeneous population, largely made up of the offscourings of society from all the nations of the West and all the tribes of the East. This accounts in part for the terrible massacres antecedent and subsequent to the British bombardment. We notice that Mr.

Fogg found the soldiers apparently lazy, listless, and ill disciplined. From a train of cars at a station near Zagazig, he saw them *thrashed* by their officers, and says: "No one seems to take offence, and they run like a flock of sheep. To submit thus to blows shows a want of manliness and spirit characteristic of modern Egyptians" (p. 74). This helps us to understand the sudden collapse of Arabi's "National movement" as soon as it had to be upheld by a resort to arms. We gather also from pen-pictures of the people, and the frequent introduction of the cry of "backsheesh," that the Egyptians are a slavish, beggarly, ignorant, badly-abused, and degraded people, and therefore unfit for self-government.

But this is no news, and the rest of what Mr. Fogg gives us is the simple story of the tourist, told in an easy, chatty style, that makes it pleasant enough reading. We journey with the author at regular railway speed through Egypt and the Suez Canal; make a flying visit to Joppa and Jerusalem; then hurry down the Gulf of Suez, pass under the shadow of Mount Sinai, and through the sweltering heat of the Red Sea. We stop a day or so at Aden, the hottest place on earth, to get a foretaste of "the hereafter" and take a sup of "brandy and soda" with the English officers. Then we are off again, and make, in a few brief paragraphs, a journey of nearly two thousand miles to Muscat. But we cannot accompany Mr. Fogg through all his wanderings, nor notice all of the points at which he touched. He is evidently an experienced traveller, and keeps his eyes open. He sees, too, with a quick and appreciative glance whatever is in plain sight around him; but he sees only the surface of things. Even the chapters devoted to special subjects, as that upon the Suez Canal, and the one on the spread of Mohammedanism and the rule of the Caliphs, are cursory and superficial.

The printing and binding, illustrations and ornamentation of the book, are unexceptionable, and are in the usual style of the house from which it issues.

The Yâtrâs; or, The Popular Dramas of Bengal. By Nisikânta Chattopâdhyâya [*sic*]. London: Trübner & Co. 1882.

THIS pamphlet is of little value save as an indication of the zeal with which a native of Bengal has glanced at general literature. Its author dedicates his essay from Zürich; and, from his numerous references—many of which, by the by, seem to be rather pointless—he appears to be acquainted with German and French. That he is a Sanskritist there is no evidence; and his "Jâjnavalkya" and "Shara-darçanas," with perpetual like misspellings of Sanskrit words, are blemishes which he should have taken measures to avoid. As to his English, if it were not at once ambitious and occasionally ludicrous, he would be a very exceptional Bengali indeed. To "incense" an audience, instead of "propitiate" it, "repeating all *ensemble*," and "the entire *personale* of the actors and actresses," are specimens of his elegancies; and why he should have thought it necessary to explain the words "dialect" and "puns" by *Mundart* and *Wortspiele*, passes our divination. His professed subject it cannot be said that he has contrived to invest with the slightest possible interest. With the conditional promise of a second venture in print, he has confined himself to that dreary and vapid section of the Bengali drama which turns on the amours of Krishna—a thing simply repulsive to all but those who can draw spiritual nourishment from what is, next to Tantrism, one of the foulest among Hindu superstitions. The playwright to whose effusions he introduces us, and whom he describes as the "ecclesiastical guide of several respectable communities," hazily analogizes to "a deacon," and entitles "reverend," is unmistakably one of the sons of the feeble. In the opinion of the essayist, "we"—that is to say, Bengalis—"may yet hope to have our Calderon and Shakspere, Racine and Goethe." May their patriotic hopes be realized! If he should choose to offer us close translations of some half-dozen of the satirical farces of Lower Bengal, those faithful mirrors of the popular indigenous estimate of British rule and rulers in India, he would produce what could not fail of attracting attention. The information which he has incidentally brought forward regarding the recent scholars among his countrymen would have been more acceptable if it had been less meagre. But how is it that one finds nothing about Bâbû Râjendralâl Mitra? It is true that he has confounded the Decalogue with the Twelve Tables; but then, if we are to trust Professor Max Müller, he has displayed, in his speculations, "the spirit of Niebuhr," and "our Sanskrit scholars in Europe will have to pull hard, if . . . they are not to be distanced in the race of scholarship," while he wields an oar.

A Short History of French Literature. By Geo. Saintsbury. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1882.

MR. SAINTSBURY'S 'Primer of French Literature' is the best résumé of the subject that has appeared in either French, English, or German. He has now produced a much larger work—not a mere compilation from other literary histories, but an account based on an examination of the literature itself. The author lays some stress upon this in his preface, and the claim is justified by the character of the whole work. Mr. Saintsbury is evidently interested in his subject himself, but he does not succeed in interesting his readers in it. He is overwhelmed by the abundance of his materials. While there are in the 'Primer' pages of vivid and interesting description, nothing like this is to be found in the larger work, which is generally as dry and uninteresting as a catalogue. Instead of selecting only the salient points for illustration, and making a general history of French literature, he has made in many cases a mere catalogue of writers and books, good for purposes of reference, because so accurate, but too often wholly devoid of interest. Thus, in the chapters on the Middle Ages, he gives the impression of a very profuse literature, but no idea of its value or its influence, and still less of its peculiar beauty and charm.

The notices of contemporary writers are sometimes unsatisfactory, notably those of Balzac, George Sand, About, Taine. Cherbuliez and Alexandre Dumas *fils* are just mentioned; Henri Martin is not even named. Sometimes, however, Mr. Saintsbury has a very felicitous way of characterizing a writer, as when he speaks of Brunetière as "the chief of the advocates of a return to the Malherbe-Boileau dungeon." He has a good page on the Naturalists, Zola and his school, in which he says: "The ambition of the Naturalist . . . is to mention the unmentionable with as much fulness of detail as possible."

Upon the whole, it would be almost as hopeless to give an idea of the nature of this book as to give an idea of a dictionary. It would require minute criticism, and Mr. Saintsbury's work would in general endure this test. It is scarcely extended enough for a work of reference, but would make an excellent text-book in the hands of an instructor able to fill in the outlines with copious extracts and comments.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, Jane G. Nantucket Scraps. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Clay, Bertha M. A Struggle for a Ring: a Novel. G. W. Carleton & Co.
Caldecott, R. The Milkmaid. An Old Song Exhibited and Explained in Many Designs. George Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
Caldecott, R. Hey Diddle Diddle and Baby Bunting. George Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
Klingle, G. Getting to be Women. Thomas Whittaker. $1 50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 7, 1882.

The Week.

As some of the members of Congress listened to the reading of the President's message on Monday, there must have occurred to them the melancholy reflection that, if they had given heed to its views of the River and Harbor Bill when they were first advanced by its author, the present might not be their last session at Washington. The President is enabled to return to the subject now with the approval by an enormous popular majority of his effort to save the Treasury from this gigantic scheme of plunder. It would scarcely have been worth while for him to resume the discussion merely to show that he was wiser than some of the members of his party in Congress. He recalls the question in order to mention a new and serious objection to such legislation, and for the very practical purpose of preventing it during the present session. He gives official authority for the report, already informally published, that there is a very large unexpended balance ($17,734,944) of appropriations for internal improvements. There can, therefore, be no excuse for the re-introduction of the job now, even by the most reckless members of that school of statesmen who agree with Mr. Young, of Ohio, that the whole duty of a Representative to his constituents consists in apportioning patronage and securing the largest possible appropriation. It is probable, however, that in any event we should be safe on this score for a few months. With the President and his Treasury officers calling for a reduction of expenditures and taxes, and some of the oldest and most pachydermatous politicians suddenly betraying the liveliest anxiety for reform of all kinds, it would require a great deal of hardihood for Congress to repeat just now its raid upon the Treasury by way of the sandy creeks and mountain rivulets of the interior.

The views of the question of revenue reform taken by the President and the Secretary of the Treasury are independent, and in some respects conflicting. The most remarkable difference relates to internal taxation. Of taxes of this kind, the President recommends the repeal of all except those levied on distilled spirits. Last year he excepted also tobacco and fermented liquors. In supporting this change of opinion, he says that "the system of excise duties has never commended itself to the favor of the American people." This argument, so far as it has weight, applies with equal force to all excise duties. It is the ground upon which such Democrats as Mr. Randall and such Republicans as Mr. Kelley demand the total abrogation of the Internal Revenue establishment. If this repugnance of the American people exists in regard to ale and cigars, it exists also in regard to whiskey. So far as the President's change of opinion is founded upon views of the financial situation of the Government, these are not shared by the Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Folger, who favors the continuance of the taxes on spirits, fermented liquors, and tobacco, says that the retention of these "will still leave a large sum to be raised from other sources, so that there is not a pressing need of a reduction here." The Secretary evidently does not believe that the revenue requirements of the Government will permit of the exemption of ale and tobacco, if the modifications of the tariff which he and the President favor are to be effected. Both of them urge a reduction of duties on sugar and molasses, wool and woollen manufactures, iron and steel, and cotton and silk manufactures. Another point of difference between them is that the Secretary in a qualified way favors the continuance of the tax on bank circulation, as a franchise and a privilege.

The report of the Tariff Commission, so far as its contents have been disclosed, is a much more impressive document than was generally looked for. The Commission being composed for the most part of representatives of highly protected trades, it was commonly supposed that the report would recommend that the tariff remain substantially as it now is. If it be true that they have recommended a reduction equal to twenty or twenty-five per cent. all around, with greater reductions in particular cases, such as the duties on blankets and steel rails, we shall not withhold from them the approbation which so wholesome a reform merits. Such a reduction of duties, if enacted by Congress, will increase rather than lessen the revenues of the Government.

The most important part of Mr. Folger's report relates to means for insuring a more regular and certain disbursement of the Treasury surplus. The plan of depositing it in banks against a counter-deposit of Government bonds is already used to some extent. The Secretary does not favor an extension of the system, because the banks might fail, and thus cause embarrassment to the Treasury. This objection does not seem very forcible. These deposits are virtually call loans secured by Government bonds. If the loans are not paid on demand, the Treasury has the right to sell the securities. It is difficult to imagine a case in which the securities would not bring the money. And since it is only the surplus, the excess of receipts over ordinary disbursements, that is concerned, the danger of embarrassment to the Government would seem to be slight. We think that there is room here for the Secretary to revise his opinion. The subject is one of very great importance, and is likely to become more instead of less important as the debt-paying process goes on. Reduction of taxation is the remedy proposed by the Secretary for the inconvenient surplus, "so that no more will be taken from the people than enough to carry on the Government with economy, to meet all its obligations that must be met from year to year, to pay off with reasonable celerity the part of the debt which it may pay at pleasure, and to provide through the Sinking Fund for the payment of that which will become payable by and by." This is a very indefinite statement, but perhaps existing conditions do not permit a more definite one. To pay the debt "with reasonable celerity" may mean anything from $166,000,000 a year down to the legal requirement of the sinking fund—viz., one per cent. per annum of the principal. It all depends upon the view which the individual may take of "reasonable celerity." This is now one of the burning questions of the hour, and we shall not be surprised to find parties sharply divided upon it, one side holding that the debt ought to be paid off as speedily as possible, and the other that it ought to be paid as slowly as possible.

Among the curious signs of the times are some letters published by the Boston *Advertiser* on Monday from well-known Senators and Representatives, containing their views as to the proper policy for the Congress which has just met. There is evidently a growing conviction among Republicans that something ought to be done. Senator Harrison says that there should be a reduction in "internal and customs revenue," both of which "should be dealt with this winter." He regards the creation of the Tariff Commission as "a confession that the tariff needs revision"—although a great many other people have regarded it as a scheme to avoid or postpone revision. Mr. Harrison is in favor of sitting during the holidays, and in other ways overcoming "the threatened Democratic opposition" to the movement. He evidently suspects that the Democrats will try to defeat reform until the meeting of the next Congress, when they will get the whole credit for it—a dangerous course for them to pursue. Mr. Dawes is in favor of abolishing all internal-revenue taxes, except those on liquors, tobacco, and bank circulation, and further of a reduction of the tariff to the lowest possible point which will enable it, together with the internal revenue, to "furnish the requirements of the Sinking Fund and the strictest economy of current expenditure." He seems to think "the tariff could be reduced $100,000,000 by a proper adjustment between free raw material and dutiable manufactures, so that American industries would be stronger for the revision." Senator Frye says that internal taxes, except those on spirits and tobacco, should be repealed, and that "the necessity of tariff revision is imperative." Representative Kasson favors the enlargement of the reductions provided for by the pending Internal Revenue Bill—not, however, so as to include distilled spirits. Senator Sherman proposes the repeal of internal taxes, excepting those on spirits, tobacco, and beer. He says nothing specific about the tariff, although he is in favor of applying "reduction to such taxes, both internal and external, as are now felt to be most burdensome by the people." Representative W. D. Kelley heroically stands fast in the faith that the tariff will not be revised. Senator Hoar is "clearly of the opinion that it is

wise to proceed with the matter without delay," though he doubts "the disposition of the Democrats." It might be supposed from some of these letters that the Republicans all along have been eager for revenue reform, and that the Democrats have been as determinedly opposing it. Evidently light has spread widely and rapidly in a few months.

Mr. Beck, we are glad to see, has moved resolutions in the Senate looking to a full inquiry into Hubbell's operations and accounts as a collector of assessments on Government employees. As Hubbell is himself a member of Congress, and acted as the agent of a committee of Congressmen, his activity last summer constituted a scandal of the first magnitude, which neither Republicans nor Democrats can afford to pass over unnoticed, now that the constituencies have spoken so plainly about it. The objections to the collection of money from Government clerks for political purposes, under any circumstances, are obvious. Collecting it through intimidation, which the President in his message condemns, is still worse. Congress now owes it to itself to find out what Hubbell did with the money. This is not a mere party matter. It is one which touches the integrity of every member of Congress, and the purity of popular elections. If any portion of Hubbell's fund has been applied to enable Congressmen to retain their seats, or to assist their friends to get into public life, it is about the worst electioneering abuse ever brought to light.

A Mr. Lorin Blodgett, formerly in the employment of the Census Bureau during the late census, has turned on his chief, General Walker, and accused him of displaying his free-trade malignity toward Philadelphia by "falsifying the returns of the industries of Philadelphia for the purpose of discrediting and disranking the industries of the city." The charge is so very serious as to be quite comic, and General Walker has answered it by expressing his contempt for Mr. Blodgett, whom he in his turn accuses of having swelled the returns of the Philadelphia industries to the highest extent a prejudiced judgment would permit, the result being "a grossly inflated report," which he had to have corrected by Mr. Awott, a more competent person. Mr. Blodgett is also charged with bad faith by the Smithsonian Institution, in whose employ he once was, and in fact seems to be surrounded with troubles, but determined to find friends if he can among the Philadelphia manufacturers, and probably things more substantial than friendship. He ought, however, to have given his charge against General Walker more range and sweep. It would do the free-trade cause little good, even if General Walker were more of a free-trader than he is, to cut down the Philadelphia industries alone. Blodgett ought to have made him attack all American industries in his career of falsification—those of New York and Massachusetts, as well as of Pennsylvania. We are surprised there is no mention of British gold in Mr. Blodgett's charge, although he must be very sanguine or simple if he expects people to believe that General Walker would falsify in the free-trade interest without getting some gold from Great Britain.

The suit over the title to the Arlington estate of the late General Lee, now a vast Union burying-ground, has been decided by the Supreme Court in favor of the Lee heirs. The estate was sold by the Government during the war for non-payment of taxes. Although the amount of the tax was tendered, the Tax Commissioners took the ground that they would not receive the amount from any one but the owner in person; and as the owner was in command of the Rebel army, he could not or would not appear. The Court now holds that the Commissioners had no right to impose any such condition, that they were bound to accept payment of the taxes by whomsoever tendered, and that the sale of the property under these circumstances was a taking without compensation, from which the Constitution protects everybody not convicted of crime. Four of the Judges—Waite, Gray, Bradley, and Wood — dissent, but their opinions have not yet been published. Of course the Lee heirs will not now obtain possession of the estate, and do not seek it, but they will have to get its value from Congress. One of the interesting features in the case was the overruling of Attorney-General Devens's demurrer to the jurisdiction of the court, that the Government's consent was necessary to its being sued in its own courts, which in this case had not been given.

The Cincinnati *Catholic Telegraph*, which recently proposed a grand lottery to pay Archbishop Purcell's debts, continues to speak very plainly on the necessity of doing something to discharge the obligation. On Thursday it referred to "the ruined lives, the blasted hopes, the desolate homes, the tears of the widows and orphans," and even the "deaths of some who, it is feared, have died the second death," all of which distressing consequences have flowed from the Archbishop's original method of book-keeping and imperfect acquaintance with investments. The *Telegraph* does not stop with vague generalities of this sort, but attacks the "repudiating priests" of the Cincinnati Diocese, and asserts that efforts already made to raise money to pay the debt failed through the opposition or indifference of the clergy of that diocese. It mentions, without naming him, an Archbishop who said that if the Pope had sent him to Cincinnati he would have paid the debt, and if the priests had refused to coöperate to that end, there would have been "some vacant parishes within forty-eight hours." Perhaps it is not too late to put this vigorous prelate where he would do the most good. The energetic revival of the subject by the Roman Catholic organ, under its new management, is likely to cause some excitement, but it will be a wholesome one if it convinces those who are responsible in the premises, that a great church cannot afford to rest under the reproach of this unpaid debt of honor. If such mismanagement of a secular trust had occurred, there would have been no end of attachments, receiverships, and orders of arrest. The plea that the trustee had acted in good faith would have been no defence to a suit to recover the money. It ought to be none in the court of morals in which alone, it seems, the Archbishop's unfortunate depositors have a standing. There is this encouragement to make an effort to satisfy their claims, that all the money collected will go to that object. In a secular proceeding the entire assets might be exhausted by receivers' and counsel fees.

Unless Congress is prepared to see the purpose of the Yellowstone National Park defeated, it will give heed to what General Sheridan says about it in his report to the War Department. It seems that the Park is "rented out to private parties." Of course, they are using it "for money-making purposes"; and not only, as General Sheridan says, is it probable that "claims and conditions will arise that may be hard for the Government and the courts to shake off," but such a present disposition of the place will impair, if it does not wholly destroy, its character in the future as a unique popular possession. For example, one of its features should be that of a great game preserve. It appears that since its discovery as many as 4,000 elk have been "killed by skin-hunters" in the Park, and that during last winter alone as many as 2,000 were slaughtered, besides mountain-sheep, deer, and other animals. At this rate how long will there be any game left to preserve? General Sheridan recommends that the Park be extended in an easterly direction about forty miles, so as to add 3,344 square miles to its area, and "make a preserve for the large game of the West now so rapidly decreasing." This recommendation is a good one, as well as the further suggestions that "the improvements in the Park should be national" and controlled by the Government, and that "small appropriations be made and expended each year on roads and trails," etc. He says that a small body of troops will "keep out the skin-hunters and all other hunters," and make the Park a safe resort for the game now drifting toward it. This is manifestly the easiest way to police the Park.

That the police in Cincinnati, or in any city, should permit such an exhibition as that in which the actress, Miss Von Behren, lost her life last week, is very extraordinary. Frank Frayne, the manager of the company, in the play "Si Slocum," had to shoot an apple on Miss Von Behren's head by "a backward shot," aimed with the aid of a mirror. He had done the feat many times before, in fact had been doing it for years successfully, with only one mishap, in which his ball, after having passed through the apple, and through a piece of wood intended to stop it, lodged in the foot of a "supe." Since then Mr. Frayne is said to have improved his apparatus, and was certain either to hit the apple or miss the woman, unless something went wrong. But something did go wrong. His rifle was a breech-loader, and the catch which holds the barrel in the groove after loading broke or failed when the shot was fired, allowing the breech to fly up, and thus depress the muzzle and lodge the ball in Miss Von Behren's brain.

She dropped dying on the stage, leaving the unfortunate Frayne, to whom, it appears, she was engaged, half crazed with horror and grief. Such a performance seeks to gratify the same craving for excitement as that of crossing Niagara on a tight rope, putting one's head in the lion's mouth, jumping from high bridges into the water, and fighting angry bulls in the arena. They all owe a large part of their attractiveness to the fact that they put the life of a human being in a greater or less degree of danger. As simple feats of dexterity or agility they would not "draw" nearly so well. No performance on the tight-rope, for instance, is thoroughly taking unless the man is sure to be killed if he falls. The delight of seeing a man's head in a lion's mouth lies mainly in the probability or possibility that the lion will bite it off and stick his claws into his legs. And what makes bull-fighting so fascinating to the Spaniards is not simply the address and skill with which the bull is killed, but the chance that he may kill the man, or give him a good goring.

In all these cases, however, the chief actor runs all the risk. He takes only his own life in his hands, and it is difficult to find a perfectly conclusive argument against a man's being allowed to earn his living by taking risks for the amusement of his fellows, considering how many risks almost equally great we allow him to take in order to supply them with luxuries. But there is a broad line of distinction between this kind of entertainment and that in which the performer is allowed to furnish entertainment by putting another person's life in peril, in case he fails. Granting everything that can be said in favor of his taking risks for himself, it does not cover his inflicting risks on others in which he does not share, as in this Cincinnati tragedy. This is more than any audience is entitled to for its money, and more than any police ought to permit. It is a grave question, too, whether any exhibition should be allowed which amuses people by the sight of a human being in great peril. The passion for it is still strong, we know. It is, as we see it, but a survival after all of that which kept the Roman amphitheatre going for four centuries after Christ. It is the old passion which made mediæval Christians enjoy judicial tortures and heretic-burning so much, and made hangings at Tyburn and public whippings and prize-fights so delightful to the English mob. In short, it is a brutal passion, a relic of the old animal from which we sprang, which the advance of civilization has much diminished, but which we ought, as far as law can do it, to put out of sight altogether.

Lord Dufferin broke up the elaborate programme for Arabi's trial as soon as he came to see the evidence, which undoubtedly involved the Khedive and Sultan both, and probably most of the high officers now surrounding the Khedive, in the guilt, whatever it be, of Arabi's rebellion. Arabi's assertion that the Khedive encouraged him up to a certain point in his war with England, is probably provable as well as true; that the Sultan egged him on all along, even while he was negotiating with England for the issue of a proclamation denouncing him as a rebel, has been believed from the beginning, and has never been denied by anybody. So that the trial of Arabi for rebellion, if he had chosen to resist, would probably have been a huge farce, and would have made it almost impossible for England to maintain the Khedive's authority while allowing Arabi to be prosecuted and punished. We presume there is little doubt that he permitted if he did not order the burning of Alexandria, but there appears to be no writing to convict him of it, and the habits of all Egyptian officials are so mendacious that it would hardly do to convict him on oral testimony. Everybody concerned in the late rebellion is now telling as many lies as may be necessary to get himself out of his scrape or remove inconvenient enemies or rivals. Consequently Lord Dufferin concluded that the best way out of the mess was to drop the proceedings on condition that Arabi would plead guilty to rebellion and take a sentence of perpetual exile. This he has done, and will go abroad for life. What effect all this will have on the Egyptian mind remains to be seen. It is said that the natives have all along believed that no one would dare to punish Arabi, and if so, this will perhaps confirm the belief.

Mr. Gladstone having carried all his rules of procedure through with many amendments, Parliament was prorogued on Saturday. The indifference shown by the bulk of the Tory members, in their absence from the House during most of the debates, furnished a somewhat comic contrast to the dreadfulness of the prophecies uttered by those who did remain as to the consequences of the success of the Ministerial programme. The adoption of the rules, they said, would put an end to free speech and the independence of Parliament, but the prospect was not sufficiently alarming to make many give up their shooting. The Grand Old Man, in fact, comes out of the session, not only having had his own way, but leaving his opponents in a somewhat ridiculous attitude. He is altogether probably the most provoking phenomenon ever witnessed in English politics. He has got rid of all obstruction except what forty members acting together can offer, but there is no doubt that this may be formidable some day. Parnell cannot muster as many now, but in the next Parliament he certainly will.

The Irish Home-Rule politicians are at last forcing Mr. Trevelyan to abandon the policy of not interfering with political meetings or speeches. He has prohibited a meeting at Limerick, and has begun a prosecution against Healy and Davitt for violent language. What is expected to be gained by these prosecutions, beyond making Healy and Davitt more popular than ever, it would be hard to say. It is, in fact, impossible not to regard the step as a sort of confession that the Repression Act, though apparently working well as a specific for murder, is no remedy for political discontent. The Dublin Grand Jury has proved sufficiently brave to find bills against several more murderers, but there are signs that the special jurors for the trial of the cases are somewhat frightened. Eighty-three out of a panel of two hundred have failed to appear, and the fine of $100 will hardly overcome their timidity, which is probably intensified by that of their wives.

Dublin has been put under the curfew clause of the Repression Act, which authorizes the police to arrest all persons found out of doors after dark under suspicious circumstances, and carry them before a magistrate to give an account of themselves. This, we fear, will prove a source of great irritation to perfectly innocent people, and no help in catching criminals. There are so many people of all sorts and conditions abroad in a city of 300,000 inhabitants after nightfall that hundreds, if not thousands, must have a suspicious air to watchful and not very discriminating constables, and many causeless and stupid arrests will doubtless be made. The really suspicious characters, too, if known, can be arrested just as readily, if found in the streets at night, without the curfew proclamation as with it. If not known, the curfew will afford no assistance in recognizing them. Doubtless it has been resorted to rather in the hope of producing some effect on the imagination of the criminal population. What to do is, doubtless, hard to know. There seems to be collected in Dublin a body of assassins of a peculiarly desperate or Nihilist type, who have undertaken to intimidate the courts and juries, and with the juries will undoubtedly succeed, and may drive the Government back on the power given by the Act to try by the court alone. But the judges, who condemn sitting alone, will, unless the conspirators can be daunted in some manner as yet undiscovered, have as uneasy a life as the Russian officials in St. Petersburg.

Herr von Benningsen's remark in the German Reichstag that Germany will have to fight again for the possession of Alsace and Lorraine, owing to the "increasing ferment" in France, resembles very much the assertion that a war between Austria and Russia was imminent, which assertion was reported by cable as having been made by a member of the Hungarian Delegation during the discussion of the military budget of the Austrian Empire. There was, of course, much high talk about revenge in France after the war of 1870–71, but there is much less of it now than there has been heretofore, and at no time was there much more of it than there had been of "revenge for Waterloo" between 1815 and 1830. France, although much richer and stronger, is in some of the most essential respects not much better prepared to take that revenge now than she was then. Not only is her debt enormous, and her finances, owing to slovenly management, in a very disordered condition, but her Army, in spite of the large sums that have been spent upon it, is in a very unsatisfactory state as to discipline, organization, and general efficiency. The cry of revenge is used occasionally by politicians because it has an heroic sound, and is apt to draw some cheap applause from popular meetings in the capital. But how little warlike spirit there is at present in the French people has been abundantly demonstrated by the action of the Government, the debates in the Chambers, and the attitude of the public during the recent Egyptian complications.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, November 29, to TUESDAY, December 5, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Forty-seventh Congress assembled for its final session on Monday, but little business was transacted beyond the reading of the President's message, and both houses adjourned early in honor of members who have died since the close of the last session.

The President's message, which was sent to Congress on Monday, announces that our relations with foreign governments are entirely friendly. The claim of the United States to the supervision and control of any inter-oceanic canal across the Isthmus of Panama has continued to be the subject of conference. The agreements reached at the International Convention held at Paris in 1880, in regard to the protection of trade-marks, patented articles, and the rights of manufacturing firms and corporations are being formulated into treaties. The differences between Spain and the United States in regard to the effect of a judgment and certificate of naturalization are in process of adjustment. The immigration of paupers and criminals from certain of the Swiss Cantons has substantially ceased, and is no longer sanctioned by the authorities. Other mooted questions between the United States and foreign Powers, with the exception of the onerous fines which Spain and her colonies have placed upon vessels of the United States for trivial technical offences against local regulations, the large fees demanded by Spanish Consuls in the American ports, and the question of the jurisdictional rights of the United States in Turkey, have either been satisfactorily settled, or else are in process of settlement. Diplomatic relations have been established with the new kingdom of Servia; a mission to Siam has been created, and the mission to Greece restored. The reorganization of the diplomatic and consular service on a salaried basis, leaving fees to inure to the benefit of the Treasury, is recommended. In regard to domestic affairs, the President recommends the reduction of the large surplus in the Treasury by the abrogation of internal taxes, save those on distilled spirits, which abrogation could be accompanied by a simplification of the machinery of collection which would save $2,500,000 in salaries, and retire from 1,500 to 2,000 officials from service. In order to defeat the practice of grouping in a single bill appropriations for a great number and variety of objects, all of which must stand or fall together, the adoption of a constitutional amendment such as now exists in several of the States, providing that the Executive may veto any item or items of an appropriation bill without disapproving the bill as a whole, is suggested. The President favors a revision of the tariff, so as to equalize the burdens among all classes and occupations. The strengthening of our sea-coast defences and armament is recommended, and the adoption by Congress of some measure for reviving American shipping and restoring the American flag in the ocean carrying-trade is strongly advised. The President withholds his concurrence from the Postmaster-General's argument in favor of a postal-telegraph system, but recommends the reduction of domestic letter postage from three to two cents. In regard to Indian affairs the President reaffirms his recommendations of last year. The message closes with a strong appeal to Congress to take some decided measures for a reform in the method of appointment to office in the civil service. The President approves of the bill at present pending before the Senate, and promises his assent to this or any other bill embodying like provisions. He also declares his approval of such legislation as may be found necessary for supplementing the existing provisions of the law in relation to political assessments, and says that a bill which will effectually suppress such assessments will meet with his cordial approval. In short, in regard to all matters connected with civil-service reform the President's message is most earnest and explicit. It has been been received with almost unanimous expressions of approval.

The annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1882, shows that the total ordinary receipts amounted to $403,525,250 28, while the total expenditures were $257,981,439 57, leaving a surplus revenue of $145,543,810 71 applicable to the payment of the debt. The total revenues for the current fiscal year and the year following are estimated at $415,000,000 each, and the expenditures at $295,000,000 each, leaving a surplus of $120,000,000 for each year. The Secretary recommends the repeal of the provision requiring the coinage of a fixed amount of silver dollars each month, and the repeal of the law authorizing the issue of silver certificates, and advises that the silver certificates in circulation be withdrawn as speedily as possible, else the accumulation of silver will soon exceed the capacity of the Department for storing it. In regard to the large surplus annual revenue and the rapid extinguishment of the public debt, the Secretary favors legislation authorizing the Department to apply its surplus to buying in the long bonds rather than to paying off the short bonds, and he suggests that the fifty million dollars held as a fund for the redemption of the national-bank notes be treated as public moneys and deposited in the banks which are public depositories. In these ways he thinks that the enormous accumulation of money in the Treasury, and the great resulting embarrassment of trade, may be prevented. The Secretary recommends a careful revision of the tariff with a view to substantial reductions, particularly upon sugar, wool, iron, steel, silk goods, coarse cottons, and raw materials generally.

The Secretary of the Navy, in his report, says that the available cruising vessels of the Navy are sufficient for giving practice to officers and men, and for displaying the flag abroad, but for nothing else, and that they should be replaced by modern iron and steel cruisers. The guns of the Navy also are antiquated, and of little use. There is only one modern high-powered gun among them, and only the eighty-seven converted guns are worth retaining. He recommends the transfer of the administration of the Light-house, Coast Survey, Life-saving, and Revenue Marine services from the Treasury to the Navy Department. The condition of the commercial marine, its connection with the Navy, and their mutual dependence are set forth, and the establishment of a Bureau of Mercantile Marine is urged. To revive American shipping, Secretary Chandler recommends the removal of burdens, such as inordinate fees and charges, and protection from foreign competition by paying a bounty for construction and a subsidy for carrying, in the form of compensation for mail service.

The Secretary of War, in his report, states the expenditures of the Department for the fiscal year to have been $45,349,319, while the estimated expenses for the next fiscal year will amount to about $6,500,000 less than this amount. The report says that the General of the Army urges strongly that the limit of the enlisted strength of the Army be fixed at 30,000 instead of 25,000 men, and the Secretary concurs in the recommendation. Three thousand seven hundred and twenty-one soldiers deserted during the year, which is more than half the number of enlistments. Some remedy, the report says, must be found for this trouble, as it is not only very expensive, but also very hurtful to the *morale* of the Army. The General believes that a partial remedy may be found by increasing the pay to what it was in 1865.

The report of the Postmaster-General shows an excess of income over expenditure for the past year of $1,394,388 82, and an estimated excess for next year of $3,929,345 02.

The Tariff Commission submitted its report to Congress on Monday. The report recommends changes in the tariff laws which, if made, will cause a substantial reduction in rates averaging from 20 to 25 per cent. The elimination of compound duties, except in the schedule of woollens, is advised. The report is signed by all the Commissioners now living, with certain reservations on the part of some of the members

The Republican members of the Senate held a caucus immediately after the adjournment of the Senate on Monday, and decided to continue the committees as at present constituted. The Caucus Committee was instructed to confer with the Democratic caucus for the purpose of filling the committee vacancies caused by the death of Senator Hill, and also to decide upon a permanent chairman for the Committee on Pensions made vacant by the withdrawal of Secretary Teller from the Senate.

The Ways and Means Committee on Tuesday reported to the House a bill for the abolition of taxes on tobacco in all its forms. The receipts from the taxes which this bill proposes to abolish were, for the last fiscal year, nearly one-third of the receipts from all internal taxes.

The public debt statement for the month of November shows the net reduction of the debt for the month to have been $5,534,142, which is a little more than one-third of the average monthly reduction for the first four months of the fiscal year.

A decision was rendered by the United States Supreme Court, on Monday, in the tax-sale case of the United States against George W. P. C. Lee, which involves the title to a tract of land in Alexandria County, Virginia, known as the Arlington estate. The judgment of the court below in favor of the Lee heirs was confirmed. It is stated that the United States will now endeavor to acquire a valid title to the Arlington estate, either by direct purchase from the Lee heirs or by instituting condemnation proceedings.

Ex-Senator Dorsey on Saturday furnished a statement in his own behalf in regard to the Star-route frauds. The statement is long, and contains much abuse of the persons who have been engaged in the prosecution of the frauds, but its substance is as follows: Dorsey says that in a letter to General Garfield in December, 1880, he told him all about his connection with the Star-route contracts; that in March, 1881, he requested President Garfield to appoint a commission of Democrats to investigate the charges that had been made against him, and the President referred him to Postmaster-General James, who for some time avoided meeting him, but finally did meet him in company with Attorney-General MacVeagh, who declined to allow any investigation, saying that there was no evidence on record of any wrongdoing on the part of Dorsey, and that there was, therefore, nothing to investigate; that finally, under promise that it was to be used and regarded as confidential, he (Dorsey) wrote out a full history of his connection with the Star-route contracts, but that in spite of their promises Messrs. James and MacVeagh did make use of this confidential statement, and within twenty-four hours had detectives employed working up the facts contained therein. For this alleged "treachery" Dorsey roundly abuses Messrs. MacVeagh and James. He then goes on to state at length his version of his connection with the Star-route contracts, from which it appears that he is a perfectly innocent and much maligned man. In regard to the removal of Marshal Henry and Postmasters Ainger and Parker, Dorsey says that it was a trick to enable the Government to get Marshal Henry out of the way, and thus to secure the selection of a packed jury for the forthcoming trials.

Mr. Clayton McMichael, editor of the Philadelphia *North American*, has been appointed to, and has accepted, the post of Marshal of

the District of Columbia, made vacant by the removal of Charles E. Henry.

The Garfield Monument Fair at Washington was closed on Saturday night, after eight days, which were moderately successful. It is estimated that there will be a net profit of a few thousand dollars. The fund before the Fair amounted to $16,192.

On Thursday the Grand Jury at New Orleans presented two indictments for forgery against thirteen of the Democratic election officers said to be guilty of the election frauds.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Thursday, Mr. Gladstone refused to grant Mr. Parnell's request for facilities to discuss the administration of the Land Act. Mr. Trevelyan stated that the recent inflammatory speeches of Messrs. Davitt, Healy, and Redmond had been considered by the Government, and that if such speeches were continued, the meetings of the National League would be prohibited. Mr. Redmond's speech came within the provisions of the Prevention of Crimes Act, and prosecution would forthwith be instituted in his case. The speeches of Messrs. Davitt and Healy did not come within the act, although those made by Mr. Healy were indictable, but he advised that he be not prosecuted. If Messrs. Davitt and Healy persisted in making inflammatory speeches, application would be made to have them bound over to be of good behavior or to have them committed to prison. At the conclusion of Mr. Trevelyan's speech Mr. Healy rose, and in a defiant manner said he begged to inform the Government that he would return to Dublin on the following day. On Friday Mr. Johnston informed Mr. Parnell that he was considering under which of two statutes to prosecute Mr. Healy.

On Saturday Parliament was prorogued until February 15. The Queen, in her speech, said she continued to hold relations of amity with all foreign Powers; that notwithstanding the failure of the commercial negotiations with France to result in a treaty, yet, owing to the enlightened policy pursued by the French Government and Legislature, there has not been any general decline in the dealings between the two countries; that she took this opportunity of placing on record her gratitude to the able officers and victorious forces in Egypt; that notwithstanding a succession of unfavorable seasons, the crops have been most abundant; that the growth of the revenue has been retarded by a cause which is to be contemplated with satisfaction —namely, the diminution of the receipts of the Exchequer from duties on intoxicating liquors; that in some parts of Ireland she is compelled to anticipate distress during the coming winter; and that though she records with deep pain that "horrible crime and assassination has been rife in Dublin," still, in the social condition of the country at large there has been a marked improvement.

Messrs. Davitt and Healy have been served with summonses to appear before the Court of Queen's Bench and enter into recognizances for good behavior.

A proclamation signed by Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, was issued on Saturday, prohibiting a meeting on behalf of the Irish National League, which was to have been held at Limerick on Sunday, and at which it was announced that Mr. Davitt would speak.

At the opening of the Special Commission Court at Dublin on Monday, Justice O'Brien, in his address to the Grand Jury, referring to the decrease in the number of crimes committed in Ireland, pointed out that the decrease was mainly in the matter of the sending of threatening letters. There was no decrease in the number of undetected crimes, as evidenced by the attacks upon Judge Lawson, Detective Cox, and Dennis Field. Owing to the increase in such offences, the trade of Dublin, he said, was gradually decaying, and those persons who were able to do so were giving up their business and flying from the city as if it were infected with the plague.

The Queen opened the new Courts of Justice in the Strand on Monday. Thousands of persons assembled along the route of the procession from the Paddington Railway station to the Courts. All the Judges had previously proceeded in state from Westminster to await with the Prince and Princess of Wales the arrival of the Queen. The proceedings at the Courts consisted of the delivery of the key to the Queen by the First Commissioner of Works, and by her to the Lord Chancellor. After prayer by the Archbishop of York and the formal announcement of the opening of the Courts, the Attorney-General obtained royal leave to enter the proceedings upon the records of the court. All the diplomats, Cabinet Ministers, and other officials were present. Lord High Chancellor Selborne has been created an Earl in honor of the event.

On Wednesday Lord Granville, in introducing the Dean of Westminster to a deputation from the Longfellow Memorial Committee, said they asked the Dean's consent to allow a bust of Longfellow to be placed in Westminster Abbey as a testimonial to a graceful and tender poet. He pointed to the number and eminence of the members of the committee as scarcely paralleled for distinction in all the departments of intellectual activity. The Dean unhesitatingly consented, and, after paying a graceful tribute to Longfellow, referred touchingly to Washington Irving and to the relations between England and the United States, whose ties, he said, were as strong as links of iron.

Earl Kimberley, Secretary of State for the Colonial Department, has telegraphed to Lord Napier, Governor of Gibraltar, that the Government has decided, after careful consideration of the report in regard to the surrender of the Cuban refugees to the Spanish authorities, that the Colonial Secretary and Chief Inspector of Police at Gibraltar cannot be permitted to retain their offices. In regard to the case of the acting police magistrate who ordered the expulsion of the refugees from the British lines, Lord Kimberley says that, although he must be severely censured for his conduct in the affair, the Government does not feel compelled to remove him from the office of Captain of the Port.

On Sunday it was announced at Cairo that the Prosecution Committee had decided to abandon all the charges against Arabi Pasha except that of armed rebellion. At 9 o'clock, Arabi was arraigned, Rauf Pasha, ex-Governor of Sudan, presiding. Sir Charles Wilson watched the case on behalf of Great Britain, but no counsel were present for the Egyptian Government. The President read the charges and asked the prisoner whether he would plead guilty. Mr. Broadley thereupon rose and stated that the prisoner had voluntarily, and in accordance with the advice of his counsel, pleaded guilty. The proceedings only occupied five minutes. On the reassembling of the court in the afternoon, the President sentenced Arabi to death. The Khedive subsequently commuted the sentence to exile for life, and the decree says that if he reënters Egypt or its dependencies, he will be amenable to the sentence of death. The counsel for the defence stipulated that the other chief prisoners should participate in the compromise effected in the case of Arabi. It is believed that Arabi will retire to some part of the British dominions. His demeanor before the court is reported to have been dignified.

Nubar Pasha, who was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian Army, arrived in Cairo on Friday, and was officially informed that England declines to recognize or sanction his appointment as Commander-in-Chief of the Army. The London *Daily News* said on Friday that it believed the Government would send a British general to Egypt to take command of the forces levied by Baker Pasha, and that as Baker does not hold a commission in the British Army, he is not competent to assume command over British officers. In the House of Commons, on the same day, Sir Charles Dilke stated that the Egyptian Government had applied to England for officers for the Egyptian Army, and that negotiations were proceeding upon the subject.

A despatch from Constantinople says that the Sultan did not attend the Mosque on Friday, and that it has since become known that an attempt to assassinate him was contemplated. The Sultan is said to be completely terror-stricken, and scarcely dares show himself outside of the harem.

The Seine, Rhone, and Garonne Rivers, in France, have risen greatly, and many houses have been deserted for fear of disaster. The country between Châlons-sur-Marne and Épernay has been inundated. A despatch from Vienna says that the River Theiss and its affluents have overflowed their banks, and that the Marmaros district is inundated. In the Prussian Diet on Friday Herr von Puttkamer stated that the damage caused by the overflow of the Rhine could not be repaired without drawing upon the resources of the State. He has asked the Emperor to sanction a grant of 500,000 marks to relieve the distress in the flooded districts, and the Diet will be asked for funds as soon as the amount required has been ascertained.

A despatch from Berlin, on Friday, announced that the Reichstag had rejected, by a vote of 153 to 119, the motion to allow as optional the use of French in the debates in the Provincial Committee of Alsace-Lorraine. During the discussion of the motion, one of the members, in opposing it, said that the use of the French language was unnecessary, as eighty per cent. of the population were Germans, and the other twenty per cent. could speak both languages. Another member said there would be, in any case, another struggle for the possession of Alsace-Lorraine whenever the increasing ferment in France came to a head.

A despatch to the London *Times* from Berlin states that the imperial budget for 1883-1884 estimates the total revenue and expenditure at 530,000,000 marks each, and the budget for 1884-1885 estimates them at 531,500,000 marks each, there being entered in these annual accounts loans of 28,500,000 and 19,400,000 marks respectively for extraordinary expenses.

An ordinance was presented in the Berlin Bundesrath on Thursday forbidding the importation of American pigs, pork, bacon, and sausages of all kinds.

The Spanish Cortes reassembled on Monday. No speech was delivered from the throne. Señor Herrara, the Ministerial candidate, was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies, receiving 223 votes to 82 for the candidate of the Opposition.

A despatch from Rome says that the Italian Government, acting in accordance with the opinion of the Venetian Tribunal and the Council of State, will refuse to surrender to Austria two natives of Trieste whose extradition has been demanded on the charge that they were connected with the manufacture of bombs to be used for treasonable purposes in Austria.

On Tuesday, Dr. Dunajewski, the Austrian Minister of Finance, submitted to the Reichsrath the budget for 1883, showing a deficit of 31,600,000 florins. He said the condition of the treasury was exceedingly favorable, and that the Government would be able to pay off uncovered credits to the amount of 14,200,000 florins. After deducting the outlay for new railways and the Bosnian expenses, there will be no administrative deficit. It is probable that a considerable portion of the deficit for 1883 can be met by the cash in hand from the current year.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

CONSIDERING how very little attention Congress, as a rule, pays to the recommendations of the President's message, the interest with which it is received at the opening of each session must be ascribed to a recognition of the fact that it is a sort of general review of the political situation, produced by an exceptionally well-informed politician. The information which it contains about the Government business, except foreign affairs, is to be found in the department reports; besides this the President has generally nothing to offer except some advice which, as we have said, Congress rarely heeds. But this advice is apt to be the result of more or less careful observation of the drift of public opinion, and really urges things which the people at least are supposed to call for. It is not always easy, however, for the shrewdest observer to say in the first week of December in any given year what the people are calling for. Elections sometimes give a rather uncertain sound; and when they do, the message is apt to take on the form of an essay.

But this year the people have really left the Chief Magistrate in no doubt about their meaning. It is not permissible to a person of even ordinary intelligence to hesitate for one moment in construing the purport of the popular vote in this State, in Pennsylvania, and in Massachusetts, and we must do President Arthur the justice to say that he does not hesitate in the least. He takes the reform bull by the horns in the most manful fashion. Henry the Fourth, of France, did not go to mass more cheerfully in order to get the crown than Mr. Arthur urges civil-service reform just as the reformers ask for it. This time there is no humming or hawing, no ifs or buts, no doubts about this particular measure, or about the English system, or about the possibility of meeting the evils complained of by legislation; no recommendation of the general growth of the community in virtue as the best means of filling the offices with good men. This time he asks to have the Executive relieved by legislation of the burden of appointing the swarm of civil servants which the Government now needs, and he boldly declares that the Pendleton bill now before the Senate is good enough for him. He even asks for a bill to prohibit assessments on officeholders, and acknowledges that, under the present régime, even a Presidential order guaranteeing the officers against evil consequences in case they refuse to contribute, is not sufficient to remove their apprehension. He virtually admits, in fact, that Hubbell's money was collected under duress. This acknowledgment is the more creditable because the facts on which it is based were as patent last July as they are to-day; because Hubbell was allowed during four months to practise intimidation which the President could have stopped in an hour; and because the arbitrary removals made in the departments, on Mahone's demand, were just what Hubbell needed to give to the assurance in his circulars that his collections were not "viewed with disfavor in any official quarter," the terrible significance which most of the unfortunate clerks doubtless attached to it.

There is one portion of the message which is distinctly and even formally apologetic, and which we think the President might have spared himself the trouble of producing—that, namely, in which he shows that, although not a professed civil-service reformer, he made fewer removals in proportion to appointments than Presidents Hayes and Garfield. His figures in support of this theory are not satisfactory, because he is hardly in a position to compare himself with his predecessor, inasmuch as he is not the head of a new Administration, and did not succeed to his office until most of the changes which on any view, civil-service or spoils, are permitted to a new Administration, had been made. Moreover, in its present temper, the public cares very little about the question which politician has broken most of his pledges, or done most to disappoint the popular expectation. What it desires to know of every politician is, whether he means to keep on breaking his pledges, or whether he is going to turn over a new leaf. The only persons who can feel much interest in the comparison which President Arthur makes of himself as a civil-service reformer with President Garfield, are, in fact, a somewhat mysterious body called the "Garfield Republicans," whose main source of dissatisfaction with the present Administration seems to be, as well as we can make out, not that it has not done more for civil-service reform, but that it has kept all the spoils for "one wing of the party."

The other recommendations of the President are all in the line of those he made last year, before his mind had been cleared on the civil-service reform question. On all questions of finance and taxation his views are sound and enlightened. He believes in getting rid of our debauching surpluses by reducing taxation, in clearing away the silver cloud which now hangs over our currency by stopping the silver coinage, and in reducing the letter postage. He is fortunate, too, in the possession of a faculty of clear, forcible, and persuasive statement such as but few of his predecessors could boast; and the present message, like all his state papers, is on every topic he touches unusually easy and even pleasant reading.

THE RATIONALE OF SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

WE print in another column a letter on Southern homicide from a gentleman who has a conspicuous right to speak for the South, and has held a high position in the public service. He is, therefore, entitled to a hearing, and we wish most sincerely that his reasons for thinking our criticisms have been "too severe" had more force in them. He says the first question to be settled in judging the South on the homicidal matter is, "What is civilization?" but he carefully refrains from settling this question. All the contribution he makes to the settlement of it is the assertion that "a healthy and fruitful civilization has several elements in it besides 'the sacredness of human life.'" This is true. But what healthy or fruitful civilization does he know of in which life is not held sacred against lawless violence? In all the highly civilized countries of to-day, the protection of life against lawless violence is the *first* concern of the community. Other things have to be added to this, to make high civilization; but this is essential. In fact, the sacredness of human life as against assassins is to a nation very much what clothing is to a gentleman. Clothing does not make a gentleman, but a naked gentleman is a contradiction in terms. So also is "a highly civilized community in which people murder each other with impunity when they quarrel."

Our correspondent says that, "leaving out homicides caused by political or race quarrels," "homicide is not much more frequent at the South than at the North, Mr. Redfield to the contrary notwithstanding." But why "to the contrary notwithstanding"? Mr. Redfield has collected the statistics from the County Clerks' offices, and the newspaper reports, collated and analyzed them, and then published them, and his book has for four years been challenging examination. He shows that homicides are eight or ten times more numerous at the South than at the North, and the vast majority are neither race nor political. To oppose to this the simple contradiction of somebody who has never examined the matter at all, but does not like the figures, is really almost childish.

To the question, which is a most important one, "Why is it that at the South homicides are more frequent among supposed-to-be respectable people than at the North?" our correspondent answers that the Southerners are either descended from the Cavaliers, or are influenced by the manners of the Cavaliers, who were "gentlemen of the rapier-and-pistol school," very ready to resent by fighting "the least imputation on personal honor or truthfulness"; while the people of the North are either descended from the Puritans, or are influenced by the Puritan horror of "personal combat and bloodshed." The theory that any but a very small number of Cavaliers ever settled in Virginia is now thoroughly exploded; but we let it pass as a rough explanation of the difference between the Northern and Southern communities in the colonial days, and we will further grant that slavery helped to maintain what we may, without offence, call the greater ferocity of Southern manners. But there is hardly anything in common between the typical Southern business or social homicide and the Cavalier's duel. In street fights, in which the Southern homicide is generally committed, there is no attempt to secure equality of arms or conditions. The quarrel is submitted to nobody's judgment. Each tries to steal the first shot by taking his adversary unawares; if successful, he fires into his body after he falls. In nine cases out of ten the revolting scene is enacted in the public street, at imminent risk to the passers-by.

The number of Cavaliers who settled in the South was exceedingly small; but, granting that it was as large as any Southerner has ever supposed, it will be admitted that the great bulk of the Cavaliers stayed in England, where they and their descendants have until our day enjoyed a social and political influence such as no class has probably ever exercised in any country—influence, we say, not power simply. They have long both ruled the state and set the fashion in manners. How does it happen, then, we inquire, that in England the street

fight with deadly weapons between persons in any decent social position is unknown; that even duelling is extinct; that the English country gentleman is one of the most peaceable, kindly, honorable, law-abiding men in the world; that, far from murdering his neighbors, or threatening his creditors or business rivals with shotguns, he uses the shotgun for sporting purposes only, and is always the first man in the county to hunt down a murderer, and see that he is fairly tried and decently hanged? Who is the English "Cavalier," now at large and received in society, who has killed his man, either in single combat or a street brawl, or helped to shield a criminal from justice?

The answer to these questions is easy. The explanation of the difference for social purposes between Southern cavalierism and English cavalierism—the latter being undoubtedly the more genuine article of the two—is that the Southern variety has lagged behind in civilization, and even degenerated. Instead of becoming more lawful with the advance of material civilization, it has become more lawless, and has lowered its standards so as to clothe the drunken swashbuckler and bully of every small town with "the grand old name of gentleman." Worse than all, defence of Southern homicide, like that of our correspondent, on the plea of cavalierism, is, in our opinion, so debauching to Southern youth that we really think that, without meaning to be disrespectful to "Y.," it deserves to be put in the category of "pernicious literature." The Southern boy who, when he begins to ponder the ethical problems of his daily life, hears from his elders that it is cavalierish to be fierce-tempered, and quick with his weapons, and ready to wash out slights and insults and settle quarrels in blood, cannot but be prepared to shed blood in a way unknown in highly civilized countries. Two clerks in a hardware store at Charlottesville, Va., were skylarking the other day, and one lost his temper, and demanded "satisfaction" of the other, and they actually fought with butcher-knives procured from the stock in the store until one was ripped open. There can hardly be a doubt that this poor wretch would never have dreamed that he needed to stab or rip up somebody by way of "satisfaction" if he had not been listening from his childhood to all this wonderful stuff about the cavalierish origin of Southern shooting and cutting.

We grant our correspondent that "life is a means, an opportunity to an end," and that that end is "the happiness of our neighbors . . . as well as that of the owner of a particular life." What we object to is allowing every man to decide that somebody else's life is necessary to his happiness, and to take it accordingly. We accept the doctrine, but demand that the carrying of it into practice be left to judges and juries. Under any other system it produces New Mexico, where nearly everybody is trying to make some other man's life a means of promoting his own welfare. We acknowledge, too, that the South did not produce Professor Webster, or the Nathan murderer, or the professional boy-killer, or the daughter-whipper, or the religious fanatic. The North produced them, but what did the North do with them? Where are they? Is Webster going about the streets threatening to kill more creditors? Is the boy-killer looking up more little boys to kill? Is the daughter-whipper a favorite in society, and longing for more daughters to whip to death? Are they not in the grave, the penitentiary, or the lunatic asylum, as the consequence of their crimes? All we ask of the South is to deal with its assassins in the manner in which the North deals with the wretches produced by its social condition. In other words, let it clear its streets of everybody who has wilfully killed, or tried to kill, or threatens to kill a human being—except the Sheriff.

MORE OF MR. BLAINE ON THE ISTHMUS CANAL.

A VERY curious interview with Mr. James G. Blaine about the Nicaragua Canal, was reported by the Washington *Post* on Monday. In it he expressed the sincere hope that Congress would not make a grant for its construction, on the ground that after it was made we should have no control over the Canal whatever, and have engaged, by the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty with England, "not to assume any control over it." "But did you not," said the simple-minded reporter, "yourself, as Secretary of State, take the ground that the (Clayton-Bulwer) Treaty was no longer operative?" "Oh, not at all, not at all," exclaimed the Retired Statesman, "with emphasis"; "I took the ground that the lapse of time and the great change in our continental relations justified our Government in asking several modifications in the treaty which I specified." The Retired Statesman has taken so many grounds about so many things in his busy career that it is not surprising that he should forget "with emphasis" what ground he took about the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty; but the fact is, that in his despatch of June 24, 1881, about this Canal matter, he ignored the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty altogether, and expressed himself as follows, besides much more of the same sort:

> "During any war to which the United States of America or the United States of Colombia might be a party, the passage of armed vessels of hostile nations through the Canal at Panama would be no more admissible than would be the passage of the armed forces of a hostile nation over the railway lines joining the Atlantic and Pacific shores of the United States of Colombia. And the United States of America will insist upon her right to take all needful precautions against the possibility of the isthmus transit being in any event used offensively against her interests upon the land or upon the sea."

In other words, Mr. Blaine here pledged the United States to do the very thing which he now says the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty prevents her from doing.

Probably the most charitable construction to put on this performance is that he forgot all about the treaty when he was writing that terrible circular to the European Powers in June, for when Lord Granville reminded him of it, in a cutting way, he did take it up and discuss it in the following November, and ask for modifications in it, pouring over the subject a flood of the lurid campaign rhetoric which has made his state papers so famous over the entire earth. It would seem from this interview, however, as if he were now conscious that Lord Granville had got the better of him, and that there is nothing left but to shake his head over the Canal prospects of a country which has discarded himself and his policy.

There is one other little matter in the interview which we trust he will explain early in the coming spring. Said the simple-minded reporter:

> "Do you think Great Britain will secure the recognition of her right of control of the Suez Canal from the other great Powers by treaty?"
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> "No, of course not," said Mr. Blaine. "But why should Great Britain ask it? Her navy absolutely controls the Canal at both ends, and no European Power can place an army there to dispute the mastery of the ironclads. Why, then, should Great Britain ask a treaty to give her what she already has? But England's control of the Suez Canal is not more absolute than the same Power's control of the Nicaragua Canal would be if built under the provisions of the Kasson bill. We are bound by treaties both with England and Nicaragua not to fortify the Canal, and so of course that leaves the control of the British Navy just as absolute as at Suez."
>
> "But after all," queried the reporter, "does it make much difference who controls the Canal so that we get the commercial advantage of it?"
>
> "If that question could be authoritatively addressed to Great Britain, you would perhaps get an answer that would satisfy you. In the time of peace it would make little difference, with equal and impartial tolls, but if war should unhappily come, the nation controlling the Canal would have a vast advantage. With the control of the Canal in our hands a vessel of war lying in the Gulf of Mexico is just as available for the defence of San Francisco as for the defence of New York. With the control of the Canal in British hands an English man-of-war in the Gulf is just as available for attacking San Francisco as New York. The British Government understands the difference if we do not."

Now, what needs explanation here is, how fortifying the Canal will make it a convenient highway to San Francisco, if Great Britain controls the sea at both ends of it in the manner described. The American man-of-war will be safe in the Canal if fortified as aforesaid, but the Canal is not a harbor of refuge. It is only useful to those who can leave it; and suppose an American man-of-war were to leave it in order to get up to San Francisco, and the British iron-clad fleet was lying outside, and its Admiral knew that Mr. Blaine was not on board and attacked the American ship on the high seas, in what manner would the fortifications of the Canal help that man-of-war out of her scrape? This may seem to a really great mind a small problem, but, small as it appears, its solution, Mr. Blaine will find, affords materials for the highest mental capacity to work on.

FRENCH ANARCHISTS.

ACCORDING to some of our esteemed contemporaries, republican institutions in France are rapidly going to pieces, and the French people are anxiously looking about for somebody to govern them as a monarch. We do not believe things have as yet come to such a pass in France. But it cannot be denied that the recent demonstrations of activity on the part of the revolutionary element have made the popular mind there more restless than it has been for many years. There is no agitation of public questions calculated to work upon the passions of large multitudes. There seems to be no widespread desire for a fundamental change. But what might be called the subterranean element in politics, the plotters for revolution under any circumstances, are evidently at work stirring up local disturbances and outbreaks, which, as they appear one after

another, shake the popular sense of security in a very discomforting way.

The revolutionist for the sake of revolution is a peculiarly French product. Under the monarchy he conspired against the King, and called himself a Republican. Under the Republic he conspires against whatever government may exist at the time, and calls himself an Anarchist. It is an error to think that Anarchism and Socialism are one and the same thing. The doctrinaire Socialist wants to regulate everything—government, labor, the daily life of society—by the power of the state. The state is to exercise an all-powerful government in the paternal sense. The theoretical Anarchist wants to strip the state of its power and to let everybody do pretty much as he pleases. But it would also be a mistake to suppose that the common run of Socialists and Anarchists are in all respects clearly conscious of this difference in their objects. The fact is that it would be equally difficult for the Socialist and the Anarchist to give a clear account of the social and political condition he is aiming at. The Socialist has the advantage of at least trying to imagine something like a new social order, however fantastic it may be, while the Anarchist simply wants to destroy the government, as such, without giving himself the trouble to imagine any social and political organization that is to follow. Both are agreed as to two things: that the "bourgeois"—that is, the citizen who has got something, be it much or little, and who wears decent clothes, and who is not obliged to earn his living from day to day by working with his hands—is a nuisance, and that a Government controlled by the bourgeois must be overthrown. The Socialist wants to abolish him, because he imagines the bourgeois to stand in the way of the establishment of the "Republic of Labor"; and the Anarchist wants to abolish the bourgeois because, although he may be a Liberal, and even a Democrat, he still has some conservative streak in him, and because he is generally the ruling class "fattening on the sweat of the people."

If the Anarchist has any fixed and tangible programme, it is that revolution, change by force, should be the permanent state of society, and that, therefore, whenever a government is established, a movement must at once be set on foot to overthrow it. He is a revolutionist for the sake of revolution. This would seem to presuppose either a desire to take advantage of social disorder for the sake of plunder, or a deranged state of mind. But it is a noteworthy fact that most of the leaders of the professional revolutionists—among them men of considerable ability—were, as to the acquisition of property, not of a rapacious disposition at all. On the contrary, they were self-denying in the highest degree—content to live in poverty and want, despising domestic comforts, and apparently satisfied to go from one prison into another as martyrs for their cause, using their intervals of freedom in getting up revolutionary uprisings which uniformly came to nothing. Thus one of their principal heroes, Blanqui, who died not long ago as an old man, had spent the larger part of his life within prison walls, and always contrived to get there again as often as he was set free. There is more to be said in favor of the other theory. There is a strong histrionic propensity in the make-up of the French mind. A Frenchman likes to pose, if possible, after a model that has struck his fancy. Thus the young popular leaders of the first French Revolution were fond of regarding themselves as Brutuses, Cassiuses, Gracchuses, and the like; and thus the professional revolutionist of the present century wants to be a St.-Just, or a Robespierre, or a Danton, or a Babœuf. The methods of the first French Revolution, and especially of the Reign of Terror, are also gospel to him, and so he will insist that there will be no chance for true liberty in France until at least half a million heads are cut off.

Of late this element has found means to make itself very uncomfortable, even in quiet times, by the use of dynamite, which has rendered the old-fashioned "émeute" unnecessary. A dynamite cartridge thrown into a theatre, or a dry-goods shop, or a church, will cause as much consternation and alarm as an ordinary street fight behind barricades used to do. The danger is not that the Anarchists will succeed in organizing a great movement, capable of overthrowing the existing order of society and establishing a government of Anarchists in its place. In enterprises of such magnitude they always fail even under favorable circumstances—the Commune in 1871 showed the utmost limits of their capacity in that respect. But they may contemplate, by repeated strokes of mischief, such as recently happened at Montceau and Lyons, continually annoying and disquieting and exasperating people who want to live securely and peaceably, and thus bringing on a confusion favorable to their schemes. The only thing they could possibly accomplish would be gradually to produce a disposition in the popular mind to look once more for some strong hand to "save society." That the result would be just the reverse of what the Anarchists are aiming at is a matter of course. This point, however, seems not to have been reached as yet.

ENGLISH DIFFICULTIES IN EGYPT.

LONDON, November 18, 1882.

SINCE the victory of Tel-el-Kebir and occupation of Cairo in the middle of September last, nothing has happened to affect in any legal, formal, or permanent way the relations either of England or of any other of the European Powers with Egypt. Very little, indeed, has happened at all in that quarter. The British troops have been coming home in detachments until now only twelve thousand remain, and it is announced that in the meantime that number will be kept there to maintain (till more durable arrangements can be made) the authority of the Khedive and good order in the country. The self-styled Mahdi, a Mohammedan fanatic or impostor, who has appeared in the Sudan and collected a large, though very disorderly, force, has seriously disturbed, if he has not destroyed, Egyptian power in the negro-peopled countries to the south of Nubia. He has several times been reported to be moving down the Nile, and fears have been expressed lest he should attack Egypt itself; but at present he remains no more than a cloud hanging on the horizon.

In Lower Egypt the principal matter has been the trial of Arabi Pasha and his accomplices, an affair which has given the English Government a great deal of trouble, because while it is theoretically and technically in the hands of the Egyptian authorities, against whom these leaders revolted, it substantially involves the responsibility of England. It was to an English officer that Arabi surrendered, and it is England who is practically supreme in Egypt now; so that whatever punishments may be inflicted upon the rebels will seem to be inflicted by or under the sanction of England. The judicial methods of the East, even more than its military codes, are of course unlike Western ones, and in many ways repugnant to Western ideas. If England permits Arabi to be tried and found guilty in a manner or upon evidence which Western courts would not follow or admit, she will be thought guilty of injustice, and will be blamed not only by Europe, but by those who at home have taken the supposed head of the so-called National Egyptian party under their protection. If, on the other hand, she interferes with the trial, forbidding this and directing that, she will seem to be superseding those native authorities which it has been her object to strengthen, and which she has striven to represent as being still the legitimate Government of the country. Every interference is an assumption of responsibility, and also involves a weakening of the influence and credit of the Khedive and his ministers. The Tory and Irish Oppositions in the House of Commons have perceived this difficulty, and have not been slow to take advantage of it. In particular, the Tory skirmishers, though six months ago they were constantly urging the Government to act with more promptness and boldness in Egypt, and though they still blame the hesitation which allowed Arabi to strengthen himself, now exhibit a good deal of sympathy for him. They worry the Foreign Office by incessant questions intended either to entrap them into admitting that the trial is in fact being conducted under their supervision, or else to make it appear that they have dishonorably handed over their prisoner to his bitterest foes, to be dealt with according to Oriental ideas—that is to say, with brutality and injustice.

Meanwhile, the trial proceeds, as might be expected, very slowly. Delay is in the prisoner's favor. We have almost as great an aversion as you have to shedding blood, except in the open field. Although Arabi is being tried for a military mutiny or revolt against the person to whom he owed allegiance, his revolt was so like legitimate war, and he has himself obtained so much of the character of a political leader, that it will be found very hard to deal with him according to strict military law. Those of his accomplices who can be shown to have borne a direct and active part in the burning of Alexandria or in the slaughter of Europeans may, perhaps, be put to death; but it is very unlikely that a similar fate will befall him. Eminence, which in former times endangered a leader's life, now protects it. Although, as I have just said, Arabi's case is technically quite different from that of Abd-el-Kader or Shamyl, the two most famous Mohammedan heroes who have in this century been captured by European antagonists—because they were independent chieftains, while he is an adventurer heading a military rising against his sovereign—still, people involuntarily put him in the same category, and think that it would be as harsh to execute him as it would have been to execute Napoleon after Waterloo.

He has, besides, another point in his favor. Our information regarding it is still incomplete, but its relevance is obvious. There can be little doubt that his action was all along, even in its earlier stages before the crisis of April last, encouraged, and to some extent prompted, by the

Sultan. Although the Egyptian National party was, in its origin, directed not against Europeans so much as against Turks and Circassians —there being an old and bitter jealousy between the Arabic and the Turkish-speaking races in the Eastern world—the Sultan and his advisers seem to have recognized the value which a national Mohammedan movement would have as against the influence of Christian Powers. This feeling became stronger after the French conquest—for such one may call it—of Tunis, in the autumn of 1881. The Sultan feared that Africa would be lost to him, withdrawn from the Khalifal authority which he seeks to extend, and he resolved to regain in Egypt what he had lost in Tunis. He would, accordingly, seem to have stirred up the fanaticism both of Arabi and of the ecclesiastical party in Egypt, putting forward his own rights and claims as superior to those of the Khedive, and exhorting the faithful of Egypt to remember their allegiance to the head of their religion and maintain their resistance to the aggressions of infidel foreigners. Numerous letters from the confidants of the Sultan have, it is said, been found among Arabi's papers, approving the latter's conduct and assuring him that he was fighting the battle of Islam and of the Khalif. These letters are to be used at the trial in defence of Arabi, as evidence that he acted throughout under instructions—secret, but not on that account the less effective —from Constantinople. Supposing them authentic, they are important in two ways: they extenuate Arabi's offence in a moral point of view, because they show that he was influenced by religious motives, and because it seems hard that he should be put to death for doing what we cannot punish the Sultan, an independent and nominally friendly potentate, for having conspired with him to do; and they extenuate it also in its legal aspect, for the Sultan is still Suzerain of Egypt. It may be argued that Arabi owed allegiance to him as much as to the Khedive, and that if the wishes of the higher authority clashed with the authority of the latter, he was at liberty to obey the Sultan, who had also, as head of the Faith, a more sacred claim to his obedience. Putting all these things together, it may safely be predicted that the bullet which will pierce Arabi is not yet cast. Whether the Egyptian tribunal condemns him or not, the English Government—which has admitted that no sentence of death on him will in fact be carried out without its sanction—will not allow him to be executed. In all probability, he will be removed from Egypt and placed somewhere in a confinement which will prevent him from further endangering its peace.

Those who profess to know the East lift up their voices against such lenity. They declare that even now the Mussulman world does not realize—that the fellahs in the country parts of Egypt itself do not believe—that the insurrection has been suppressed and the champions of Islam overcome. Nothing but the death of the ringleaders will suffice, they urge, to bring this home to the popular mind. Clemency is in the East always attributed to fear. If Arabi is not executed, it will be because the Sultan has forbidden it, and the English dare not provoke the Sultan. "And why," they add, "should not an Eastern game be played according to Eastern rules? When an Oriental leads a rebellion, when he even intrigues against his master, he stakes his head upon the issue. The distinction which Westerns draw between political offences and ordinary crimes does not exist there, and is unsuited to the conditions of Mohammedan society. If Arabi had captured Tewfik, he would without doubt have put Tewfik to death; why should he fare better when fortune has gone against him, especially as he was morally, if not directly, guilty of the Alexandrian massacre?" Without disputing these reasonings, I can only repeat that every day which passes makes Arabi's head seem safer. England is in good humor over her successes; the massacre of Alexandria has receded into the distance; Arabi is in no more danger than was Jefferson Davis when he had been six months in prison.

These trials of the military rebels illustrate very clearly the difficulties which the English Government has to deal with in Egypt. They have to play an Eastern game according to Western rules, and that, too, with all Europe looking on. India is far away, and even now, in spite of telegraphs and newspaper correspondents, little of what passes in India attracts notice in Europe; but Egypt is near, and the great Mediterranean nations are interested in what happens there. All our mistakes are sure to be discovered and to be used unsparingly against us. Our position is novel, exceptional, indefinable. For some time Mr. Gladstone would not admit that we were at war in Egypt, and even in the vote of thanks passed by Parliament to the Army and Navy he spoke only of the "military operations" which had been successfully prosecuted there. We have not legally any further authority now in Cairo than we had a year ago, under the various treaties and protocols which secured various rights to France and ourselves and the other Powers. Such predominant authority as we undoubtedly possess is that of the sword; yet we are not conquerors, but allies who have been invoked to restore order. We are practically masters of the country, and responsible for whatever goes on there. If there is injustice, cruelty, oppression, Europe will blame us, and we shall blame ourselves. Yet how are we to prevent injustice, cruelty, oppression except by taking the administration out of the hands of the natives and assuming it ourselves? If we leave things alone, they go wrong; and we cannot sit by, keeping an army in the country, and quietly watch them getting worse. If we interfere, we destroy what prestige still remains to the Khedival Government, we annoy the native ministers and dispose them to intrigue against us, we make further acts of interference more natural, more inevitable. These perplexities make the reëstablishment of government in Egypt and the defining of our legal position there a very difficult problem.

In a future letter I hope to sketch the different views which prevail in England as to its solution. Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet is evidently quite sensible of the difficulty. Its members have carefully abstained from giving any glimpse of their intentions. Communications are believed to be passing between them and the other Powers of Europe, but no one yet knows how far such communications have gone. Meanwhile, a bold and unexpected step has been taken in despatching Lord Dufferin from Constantinople to Cairo, where he is to remain for some months, and no doubt to help the Government to prepare some scheme for a permanent settlement. It seems, from Mr. Gladstone's declarations in Parliament, that a convention regulating the occupation of Egypt by our troops is in preparation; but even this, a mere preliminary to further and more complicated arrangements, will not be given to the world for some time to come. Public opinion is thus permitted ample time to ripen. But from public opinion the Government have little light to expect: it is still uncertain and perplexed. Y.

VENICE REVISITED.

VENICE, October 30, 1882.

EVEN in the days of Byron and Samuel Rogers Venice was a melancholy place, which he who would be cheerful and joyous was bidden not to visit. The fantastic and dissolute luxury of the eighteenth century had been succeeded by languor, poverty, decay. It is not less melancholy now, when happier days, coming in the train of freedom, have dawned upon Italy. Indeed, in some ways Venice seems more weak and doleful, more entirely a thing of bygone days now, when she is free, than she did in the days of Austrian domination. Then, when a strong garrison held the city, when white-coated soldiers filled the streets, cannon stood loaded on the Piazza of St. Mark prepared to quell any sudden outbreak. The very efforts made to keep the people down made both place and people appear to have a life and importance in the present. One was reminded of the events whereby the ancient republic had fallen helplessly into the hands of France and Austria; and of those later days in which she had wiped out the dishonor of that fall by her revolt in 1848, and the gallant defence which she made under the leadership of Daniel Manin. One felt that another revolt, another struggle might be at hand, and speculated as to its incidents and its result. But now, when she and her old territories have been liberated, when she has subsided into the chief town of a province, with no separate and independent life of her own, and no prospect that any such will arise, the link between Past and Present seems to have been broken, and the Present displays nothing on which imagination can lay hold. It is only the Past that the stranger thinks of, and the thoughts that rise in his mind are those melancholy musings upon the greatness and decay of empires, upon the dissolution of old faiths, and the vanishing of old forms of art and life which the ruins of a feudal castle or the silent aisles of a mediæval cathedral suggest to the traveller from some new home of industrial democracy.

Not that Venice is either ruinous or silent. If she were so, this sense of a chasm between the present and the past would not be so strong, because the impression she would make would be purely one of the past, which would then be felt to have lived on into our own time, still to dominate the minds of the inhabitants no less than of the visitor. This is the impression which such places as Toledo, or Ravenna, or Carcassonne, not to speak of Egypt and the further East, leave upon the traveller. But Venice is exerting herself to recover commercial consequence. There are steamers anchored in the Grand Canal and the Giudecca—steamers plying as far as Liverpool in one direction and Alexandria in the other. Two or three offices of ship brokers may be seen in the arcade which runs under the front of Sansovino's library. The glass and mosaic works of Murano employ a considerable number of workmen; nor are efforts wanting to reëstablish other manufactures. So far, however, the trade of the port has not come to amount to much. Trieste, on the one side of the Italian peninsula, receives most of the goods destined to cross the Alps into Austria and East Germany; Genoa, on the other side, those which find their way to Switzerland, Western Germany, and the populous districts of Lombardy and Piedmont. The steamers injure the picturesque aspect of the place not only by their unshapely forms, but also by the volumes of smoke which they emit. They do not add much to the prosperity of the town, a large part, some say one-fourth, of whose population are steeped in pauperism. The real industry of Venice and the source of such prosperity as she enjoys is the reception of tourists. She has become one large art-gallery, cabinet of curiosities, architectural museum, for the travelling races of Europe and America.

Especially for the Teutonic races. This is perhaps what strikes one most on returning to the island city after the lapse of twenty years: this

and the disappearance of the priestly and monkish garb. Visitors of course there were even then, as there have been for a century past or more, ever since art died in Italy and people came to look at her grave. But they were then comparatively few, almost confined to rich people who were making a sort of grand tour of Italy, and artistic people who had a special purpose in studying Venetian architecture and pictures. Most of them were English, and the French were not wholly wanting. Now the Northern barbarians have descended upon Italy in a flood, though, to be sure, a fertilizing flood which scatters gold in its path. Germans predominate, not only because they are nearest and have easy access by the three lines of railway which now cross the Alps from Teutonic territory, but also because they are a curious and active-minded people, extremely fond of travel, and so simple in their habits as to be able to travel cheaply. Next to them in number seem to come the Americans. The English have only the third place, and the French, if there are any French, appear quite lost in the superabundance of Teutons. During the tourist months, and especially, of course, during September and October, one might think that there were as many strangers as natives in Venice. In and all round the Piazza of St. Mark nothing is heard but German and English. Most of the handsome palaces at the sea end of the Grand Canal have become hotels, and new ones are continually being opened. The consequences are not altogether pleasant. There is always a crowd in all the more famous places of resort, such as the Ducal Palace and the three great "show churches." One is not permitted to see anything in one's own way, for officious cicerones are pestering at every turn; nor can one even ask the way in the street, for somebody rushes forward who insists on accompanying and becoming a guide for the rest of the day. It is entertaining to watch the result of the efforts which enthusiastic ladies make to study art under the auspices of Mr. Ruskin. They go with his book, 'St. Mark's Rest,' in their hands to the façade of the Ducal Palace, hoping to verify his description of the sculptured capitals and to feel all the profound symbolism which he discovers therein. Before the first capital is finished a beggar is at the student's elbow. She endeavors to appear absorbed, but in a few seconds yields to the whine and bestows the soldo. Then another comes, and another, and another. The stock of small change is exhausted, and the decipherment of the capitals is abandoned before half of them have been compared with Mr. Ruskin's pages. Tiresome as all this is, no one who sees how much real interest the tourists, German, American, and English, are learning to take in what they see, how much more they are profiting by it now than they would have done twenty or thirty years ago, will regret the growing afflux. But one asks one's self what it will have become when every German feels himself uneducated till he has seen Italy, and when America contains three hundred millions of people.

As the number of strangers who come to see Venice increases, the value of that which is to be seen diminishes. That passion for restoration which overspreads Italy and France could not be expected to spare a place so much in the world's eye. The municipality is poor, but these restorations are often undertaken by the King's Government, so that even poverty is no protection. There has been a great deal of controversy over the necessity of the works undertaken at St. Mark's and the Ducal Palace, some contending that there was no way to preserve the buildings except by taking down the old walls and column shafts and putting up new ones, while others declare that a little judicious propping would have been sufficient. So as to the mosaics: one set of artists and architects, mostly Englishmen interested in these matters, condemns altogether the taking down of the ancient mosaics and putting up of new ones in their places, alleging that this is done partly in order to provide work for local artists and manufacturers, partly from the preference which Italians have for bright, new, gaudy things over old and mouldering ones; while the Italians reply by insisting that the old mosaics were dropping to pieces, so that nothing remained but to replace them by new ones copied as closely as possible from the old. Whatever the truth may be, the value and beauty of the buildings cannot help suffering. Scarcely anything stands now as it stood twenty years ago. Half the capitals on the lower sea façade of the Palace are new; and whether their sculpture be good or bad (for as to this, also, a controversy rages), their fresh white contrasts painfully with the weather-beaten dark gray of the remainder. The new mosaics in St. Mark's do not harmonize with the old ones: parts of the outside which have been scraped have lost that softness of hue which ages of exposure had given them.

Some of these misfortunes are unavoidable; but other errors have been committed which might have been spared. A very long high wall has been erected around the Arsenal on the north-east sea front; and both the color of its bricks and the tastelessness of its design make it spoil one of the most striking general views of the city. On the smaller islands that lie round Venice new and hideous buildings are being erected where formerly gardens or vineyards surrounded a few houses or some lonely little convent. Two large lunatic asylums cover two such islands which one sees in going out to the Lido; on a third, S. Francesco in Deserto, they are putting up a big iron foundry, whose chimneys will mar a singularly romantic and characteristic prospect. In the city itself large gas-lamps have been set up in the middle of the Piazza and Piazzetta, so that those effects of brilliant moonlight in the open, contrasting with the deep shadows under the buildings, which used to be so fascinating, and kept one sitting half the night upon the Piazzetta quay, under the spell of that matchless scene, are now no longer to be had. The impressiveness of the Piazza itself, with its great smooth unbroken space, the one large space in a city of narrow lanes and tiny courts, is sadly diminished. They have started a service of steam omnibuses on the Grand Canal—little shrieking creatures whose whizz and cry is never silent all along its winding shores. The protests of American and English visitors against these "improvements" find no echo among the native Italians—indeed, seem to nettle them. For modern Italy does not like to be admired for the sake of her achievements of centuries long past, but for herself—for what she is now and is to be in the future as a free and powerful nation. She is not content to be a land of ruins and old pictures; nor can one blame her, however regrettable the results of her desire to restore and to improve.

These are jarring notes in the symphony of Venice. Yet even were they far more numerous they would not make its music mute. Venice retains her strange and peculiar charm beyond all other cities of Italy—beyond Rome and Florence, though they have far more to show in the way of art and history; beyond Ravenna and Pisa, though they are more perfect fragments of the earlier Middle Ages; beyond Verona and Perugia, though the Alps look down on the one and the Apennines upon the other. And this charm is not less powerful over the pensive mind of maturer age than on the fresh enthusiasm of youth. What is the secret of this charm? It is not to be wholly found in the mere singularity of Venice as a city whose streets are of water, though this is the first thing which strikes the visitor and the one characteristic which everybody knows. Beautiful as the canals are, the rich and infinitely varied picturesqueness of the place is better appreciated when one saunters through it on foot, losing one's self in the maze of lanes connecting tiny courts and crossing tiny bridges, each of which is like enough to the others to perplex one's recollection, yet different enough to have the charm of novelty. This complexity produces a wonderful impression of the size of the town, so that when one mounts to the top of the great Campanile and looks round, it is hard to believe that what seemed so large when one was wandering through it is really a place of very moderate size—not bigger than Detroit or Richmond, not as big as Edinburgh or Sheffield. Nor, again, is it in the peculiar grace of that Gothic architecture which we call Venetian; nor in that richness of color which is the glory of Venetian painters; nor even, perhaps, in the strange and romantic sense of isolation due to the position of the city, lying out at sea, yet in a calm and peaceful sea, with a perpetual silence brooding over her. All these things do, no doubt, help to weave the spell, but its potency seems to be most of all in the peculiar lines and lights of the surrounding landscape, and in the marvellous sense of breadth and space which that landscape gives. The silver floor of sea that stretches out all round the town throws up a sheen of light which glorifies the humblest building. The vast expanse of sky—a true sea sky, as those familiar with the ocean know—has room for an endless play of clouds, for storms here and sunshine there, for swift changes from gloom to brilliance and brilliance back to gloom. The pearly light that glitters along the southern horizon over the Adriatic is matched on the north by the shadowy forms of the great Alps, stretching further than eye can follow to the east. Westward the sharp volcanic outline of the Euganean Hills, dear to every lover of Shelley, breaks the level line of plain and stands out vivid against the sunset, while in the remotest northwest, a hundred miles away, a patch of gleaming white marks the snowfields of the Adametto and the frontiers of Italy. And in Venice one can never forget this background, for on all sides the streets and the canals open out on the sea and the free space beyond. You emerge from a dim church or glide out of a dark canal, and see far down the vista the glowing blue of the lagoon, and over it an endless depth of air. Nowhere, not even in mid-ocean, does one seem to have such a sense of space all round, nor such a variety of those most tender and delicate effects of color which vast air spaces give; nor do any prospects appeal more to the imagination, for on one side we look down that sea highway which the navies and the merchantmen of Venice traversed, conquering the islands of the East, and bringing home its wealth; on the other there hangs over the plain that mighty mountain rampart from whose recesses all the conquerors of Italy have descended, and behind which they have within our own memory retreated.

It is not only because Venice and her landscapes touch the mind and the emotions in so many ways that her fascination is so peculiar, but because these influences are so quiet and subtle, rather felt than perceived, and not all felt at first, but slowly growing day after day upon the traveller as he becomes more attuned to his environment. Those, therefore, who pass hastily through, as most of us do now when there is so much to visit and so little leisure to visit it, lose no small part both of the benefit and the pleasure. There is not only less left to see now than there was a century ago, but less favorable

conditions for seeing it. Yet the taste is finer and the knowledge wider; the average tourist, whom it is the fashion to sneer at, is usually abler to see and judge and profit than were the rich dilettanti of last century.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Only through quotations made by other papers have I seen your article referring to the too frequent use of deadly weapons by men of the best classes in the Southern States. I have no time to speculate as to the cause, but I know that in the main you are right as to facts and deductions. Two generations ago it was the custom among Southerners to fight duels, public opinion countenancing it, as I know from the fact that my maternal grandfather, a Kentucky editor born in Virginia, fought and bore the marks of almost deadly wounds of pistol and knife. Though duelling is now infrequent, the street and bar-room rencontres have taken its place. Unless this habit can be cured, the Southern people must degenerate to the level of the worst Spaniards and Italians, and he is their best friend who points out the fault, not who declares it does not exist. Southerner.

Missouri, December 1, 1882.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being Southern born and educated, fully appreciating Southern faults, personal and political, having always denounced and ridiculed duelling, and denounced in all proper ways the struggle for the "lost cause," you will concede that any dissent from the severity of your criticisms, and any defence of the South by me, proceeds not entirely from Southern prejudice. Your criticisms—I refrained from calling them fierce denunciations—have been too severe, and positively, but not intentionally, unjust, for the following reasons:

You always allude to "civilization" and the manners of "savages." Now, the first question to be settled is, What is civilization? I don't attempt to define it at all, but I venture to suggest that a healthy and fruitful civilization has several elements in it besides the "sacredness of human life." We must aim to discover the general average of benefits conferred which make human life happy, make it worth having. Your argument is one-sided because it discusses and dwells upon but one feature of life—an occasional homicide, certainly very much to be deplored and deprecated. The severity of your criticisms is unwise, and they amount to a positive public calamity because of the feeling of injury and injustice which they excite in the minds of the good people of a whole section. The result is the Southern people say, "The North either cannot or will not understand us; they continue to insult and denounce us outside of politics"; and the day of real union is postponed, if not prevented.

Leaving out of view homicides caused by or growing out of political or race quarrels, which have been numerous, have been owing to exceptional and temporary causes, of very great heat and bitterness, and are rapidly on the decline—leaving out these, homicide is not much more frequent at the South than at the North, Mr. Redfield to the contrary notwithstanding. Homicides at the South are nearly always for personal causes or feelings, while at the North they are far more frequently for plunder. Homicides at the South are nearly always in open fight, while at the North they are more frequently by stealth, preconcerted arrangement, to take the victim at a disadvantage. Violence to females, leading to the homicide of either the victim or the perpetrator, are less frequent at the South than at the North.

Still, leaving out of view political homicides, which cannot be too severely denounced, but which have been exaggerated, the fact remains and cannot be denied that homicides at the South are more frequently among those who are called and ought to be gentlemen, certainly citizens of prominence, while at the North they more frequently occur among the low and vulgar. This gives greater prominence and publicity to Southern homicides, and makes them more frequent than at the North, and seem more frequent than they really are. Why is it that at the South homicides are more frequent among supposed-to-be respectable people than at the North? The answer is not far to seek. Though historical, it lies on the surface; and in pointing it out we again find ourselves involved in that larger question of "civilization" which you always mix up with this one question or fact of homicide. The North was peopled mainly from New England, and New England was peopled, morally and socially speaking, from Plymouth Rock. The Pilgrims—the severely religious Roundhead Puritans—fled from the Cavaliers and the Established Church. They and their children, though good soldiers against the Indians, the French, and the British, had a religious, moral, domestic education that abhorred personal combat and bloodshed. The Cavalier fled from the Puritan and liberal ascendancy in England, and settled in Virginia and the Carolinas, and Virginia and the Carolinas have peopled the South. These were not only gentlemen in the conventional sense, but, for their day and generation, they were gentlemen. But they were gentlemen of the pistol and rapier school. They were fox-hunters, they were slave-owners, and they were fighters—that is, not often actually fighting, but very ready to fight. The least imputation upon personal honor or truthfulness, the least affront to a lady, might instantly lead to bloodshed. A more gallant, genial, graceful, frank, courteous, hospitable, high-toned set of fellows were never found in this or any other country. They brought the duello with them. Now, all the people of the South are not descendants of these gentlemen. Far from it. But we know how their manners and habits, especially the worse features of them, will permeate, leaven, educate the whole community, and how the things supposed to be required by "honor" will coarsen as they descend among the vulgar; how the courtly duel will develop into a street or bar-room fight, with "Arkansas toothpicks" as the weapons. But did these gentlemen, whose manners were formed in Europe, on the pattern and in the school of chivalry, do no good? With all the good-natured raillery, and sometimes fierce contempt, heaped upon the follies of the original article of chivalry in Europe, has it done the world, civilization, no good? Let woman answer that question.

I would not at all encourage personal combat, the avenging of one's supposed wrongs by one's own hands. With a few rare exceptions and emergencies, it cannot be too severely condemned nor too promptly punished. But I do solemnly protest against making "the sacredness of human life," or "respect" for human life, the only or even the principal test or measure of civilization. Life is a means, an opportunity to an end. That end is happiness. But that happiness is the happiness of our neighbors, of the community, as well as the happiness of the owner of that particular life. Society cannot exist except on the theory that certain things forfeit the right to live. This "sacredness of human life" may easily become a morbid, unwholesome sentimentalism. It may become a two-edged sword. It has already done so—for all you know. One man kills another at the South. The slayer is indicted. The advocate for the defendant talks ingeniously of passion and hot-blood, deeply regrets the death of the slain, dwells upon the "sacredness of human life," says one valuable life is gone, we can't restore him by hanging another, and the defendant is acquitted, when he ought certainly to have been hanged.

Finally, recurring, as you always compel us, to the question, What is civilization—what is savagery? I will not discuss it, but only submit that the test is not solely the absence or presence of duels and street fights. I have not heard of the civilization of the South producing a Professor Webster nor a Nathan case; we do not hear of the professional boy-killer at the South; nor of a religious fanatic sacrificing his little daughter; nor do they have so many Malley cases, nor Hayden cases; nor do we hear of the uniformed protectors of society clubbing an anxious father while sitting on his door-steps to give the sick infant in his arms a little fresh air. While living at the South I was exceedingly provoked with some Southern preachers, because they so quickly and so powerfully fanned the flames of rebellion. But I never heard of one of them whipping his little girl to death because she did not say her prayers correctly. The North has more good colleges than the South, but I never heard of a Southern professor chasing and shooting a student because the lad had lifted the professor's front gate off its hinges. Was there insanity in any of these cases—a fanaticism run mad? Possibly. But what did it? What are all the elements of a wholesome and useful civilization—a civilization that produces happiness? Our answer must not be one-sided, nor based on a few street fights.

Y.

New York, November 25, 1882.

ART FOR ART'S SAKE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review, on the 9th of November, of Tuckerman's 'History of Fiction,' you touch upon the underlying moral purpose in the Anglo-Saxon novel, and the Neo-Pagan criticism of such purpose from the artistic standpoint. You allude to the fact that the highest development of prose fiction has been produced by this method, but fail to point out that such a moral purpose underlies every great art period. It is this moral purpose which produces that quality which we call the grand manner. The great masters of the great art periods have all been distinguished for the high and serious quality of their work. No great art period has existed without it. We find it everywhere: in the Greek periods of song and sculpture, in Raphael, in Michael Angelo, in the divine Dante, in Boccaccio and Cervantes. Lack of purpose is the want felt in the French school of prose fiction and painting.

Has not the Neo-Pagan method of art for art's sake alone, and the development of what you call the anti-moral phase of art, marked the decadence of all great periods? C. P.

A BATTLE THAT IS A BATTLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of 'The Friendships of Mary Russell Mitford,' a queer old English Tory, Sir William Elford, is noticed as being apparently quite in earnest in holding that war, plague, and famine are the necessary means, "according to the course and construction of the animal world," of keeping down population, and war is the least

unpleasant of the three; "so that to deprecate war is to fly in the face of nature." An Englishman named Thompson fought as a volunteer in the Texan Army at the battle of San Jacinto. He was walking meditatively over the field among the Mexican dead, soon after the battle, when he was accosted by Dr. Sheppard, my informant, with, "Well, Thompson, how is this for a victory?" "No victory at all," was the reply. "Why, what's the matter? haven't we killed enough?" "Oh, yes, it will do; but I have always wanted to be in a battle where they were all killed on both sides!" Sir William and this Thompson were much akin. N. N.

BELLEVILLE, Ill.

Notes.

THE CENTURY CO. will publish directly, from advance sheets, a new and enlarged edition of Ogilvie's 'Imperial Dictionary of the English Language,' in four octavo volumes, illustrated profusely, as this work has always been; indeed, if we remember aright, its example in this direction was what led to the pictorial Webster and Worcester. The 'Imperial Dictionary' has very distinct and admirable features.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, will issue in a few days 'The Times of Gustav Adolf,' as the first volume of Topelius's 'Surgeon's Stories.'

'A Gift of Gentians, and other Verses,' by May Riley Smith, will be brought out with holiday elaborateness by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

If there was need of an American illustrated scientific weekly like the London *Nature*, there were two places at one or other of which it should be published—viz., Washington, and Cambridge, Mass. The attempt made in this city by the projector of *Science* proved a failure, as might have been predicted. The name, which was a good one, being thus left unappropriated, it has been adopted for a new venture to be published by Moses King, at Cambridge, on behalf of a powerful organization of scientific men, with a fund at their command and Dr. A. Graham Bell at their head. The editor will be Mr. Samuel H. Scudder, who resigns his position as assistant librarian of Harvard University. The new paper will appear early in the coming year. Its collaboration will be on a commercial basis so far as regards original contributions, book reviews, etc. It is perhaps a pity that it will not be printed as well as published in Cambridge.

The *Atlantic Monthly* will hereafter be published in England simultaneously with its appearance in this country, through Ward, Lock & Tyler, instead of, as heretofore, through Trübner & Co.

Much the most sensible discourse we have ever read on the "Study of Short-hand" appears in the *Californian* for December, 1882, from the pen of Mr. T. S. Van Dyke.

B. Westermann & Co. send us Parts 54-56 of the new "chromo edition" of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (Mammals). They will also soon have from across the water a new novel by Georg Ebers, entitled 'Ein Wort.' The time is of the sixteenth century, and the hero a German adventurer in foreign lands.

The Christmas number of the *Publishers' Weekly* is, as usual, a picture-book quite as much as a guide to book-buyers.

D. Appleton & Co. put their imprint on a pretty English edition of 'Sir Roger De Coverly,' of which the illustrations are by Mr. Charles O. Murray. This designer is seen at his best, we think, in the etched frontispiece of Sir Roger and the widow. The woodcuts, though well enough, are not remarkable.

R. Worthington has published, in a showy octavo volume, with large type and open page, Alexander Thomson's translation of Suetonius's 'Lives of the Twelve Cæsars,' apparently the text as revised in Bohn's edition. The latter, however, contains also the treatises on famous grammarians, rhetoricians, and poets, which are wanting in the present edition. On the other hand, engravings of the busts of the emperors and their wives have now been usefully inserted.

We have already noticed as they appeared Macmillan's illustrated sixpenny quarto editions of 'Tom Brown's School Days,' Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America,' and Irving's 'Old Christmas' and 'Bracebridge Hall.' These have since been bound up together, in the order given, with tasteful cloth covers. Inside, the result is rather heterogeneous, owing to the mixture of two and three-column pages, large and small type, the diversity of designs, etc. The price, too, for the binding seems large, but altogether it is far below the cost of the several books in any other form.

The quality of Wilhelm Busch's humor is already known somewhat widely in this country by his 'Max and Maurice.' It resembles nothing American, and is not likely to have any imitators among us. That it has admirers and propagandists is shown by the Rev. Charles T. Brooks's further translation of the text which accompanies Busch's designs, in 'Plish and Plum' (Boston: Roberts Bros.).

Mr. John A. Jennings's 'Readings from the Works of Charles Dickens' (Dublin: Carson Bros.) shortens to advantage many of Dickens's own selections as given in the Ticknor & Fields edition of 1868. It also adds a number which are certainly not hackneyed, but the taste of which for public delivery is somewhat doubtful. Mr. Jennings seems to have aimed to make the readings as dramatic as possible, and has succeeded very well in this. On the whole, the compilation is to be recommended for its declared purpose. The print is clear, but rather too fine.

We have received the prospectus of a subscription work, of which the limited edition will be numbered and signed, derived from the MS. 'View of the State of the Clergy within the County of Essex [England],' preserved at Kimbolton Castle among the papers of the Duke of Manchester. The date is about 1603. The editor, Mr. B. Beedham, of Ashfield House, near Kimbolton, is engaged upon an introduction, illustrative notes, and an index which will greatly enhance the value of this publication. To give some idea of its interest, especially for New Englanders, we may state that Mr. Beedham has made extensive researches concerning Ezekiel Culverwell, who officiated at the marriage of John Winthrop, then aged seventeen, with his first wife, a resident in Culverwell's parish of Great Stambridge, and who remained on intimate terms with the future Governor. Little has hitherto been known about Culverwell, and many corrections will be made in the accepted accounts of him. Though nominally of the Church, the Essex clergy of the period in question were Nonconformists at heart, and Culverwell was deprived of his rectory for refusing to conform. The subscription price for this work is fifteen shillings.

We are glad that Mr. Goldwin Smith's return to America insures the revival of his personal organ, the *Bystander*. The first number of a new series is, we understand, now in the press.

The great success of the free lectures at the National Museum in Washington has led to the enlargement of the course for the coming year, and to the institution of a course for the High-School pupils, which will precede the other.

From the General United States Agency, No. 2 Wall Street, we have received the ground plan of the Dutch International Exhibition, to be held in Amsterdam from May 1 to October 31, 1883.

L. Prang & Co. send us a great variety of their Christmas and New Year illuminated cards, including under the former head the designs for which prizes were awarded (*a*) by a committee of artists and (*b*) by popular vote. There was coincidence of judgment only in the case of the first prize, won by Miss Dora Wheeler, and, barring some incongruities in her conception, it was rightly preferred to the others. Miss L. B. Humphreys's child kneeling to Santa Claus at the hearthstone ranked second, and has perhaps more genuine and natural sentiment than any of its competitors. The remaining themes were somewhat hackneyed.

Miss Leggett, too, offers "premium Christmas cards," seven in number, of which three were designed by male artists who were successful also in the Prang competition. They are of nearly uniform size, and range from Mr. Alfred Fredericks's conventional "Angels and Child" to Mr. W. H. Beard's animal feast. The color printing is not comparable with that of the Prang series.

At the formal reopening of the courses in the University of Liége, says the *Athenæum Belge*, the Rector, M. Trasenster, delivered an address on the necessity of admitting women to the higher education (*de créer un enseignement supérieur pour les femmes*). His views as quoted in the journal just named deserve to be translated, as their bearing is not confined to France and Belgium.

The sixth part of Leuckart and Nitsche's 'Zoologische Wandtafeln' (Cassel: T. Fischer; New York: B. Westermann & Co.), containing plates xv.-xvii., has just appeared. It includes a plate by Dr. Leuckart on the structure and development of the tape-worm, one on the hydroids, and a third illustrating the structure of Phylloxera, its injurious effects on the vine, and its distribution in France. This number fully sustains the character of the series as the best and at the same time the cheapest set of wall plates in the comparative anatomy and embryology of invertebrates. Each plate is devoted to a single class or order, and shows the anatomy and main features in the development of one or more forms. There are, on the average, about nine figures in each plate, and these are printed in colors either natural or (in anatomical illustrations) diagrammatic. In the present number, plate xv. contains a large figure of Tænia saginata, and detailed figures of the head and mature segments in two stages of this species and those of T. solium, with a figure of the cysticercus of the latter species. Plate xvi. has five figures on the structure of Hydra, and seven others of typical hydroids. Plate xvii., in addition to figures of diseased roots and leaves of the vine, has thirteen illustrations of eggs, larvæ, and adults of the Phylloxera. The series now includes in its illustrations of insects three of the most destructive forms—the grasshopper, the potato-beetle, and the Phylloxera. Each plate is about forty-two by fifty-four inches in size, is accompanied with explanatory text, and, unmounted, will cost in this country about one dollar.

—Our civil-service deformity manifests itself as well in State and municipal as in national affairs. Last June we noted the fact, which came out at the Cincinnati Convention of Librarians, that the greater part of the Western librarians owe their appointment to, and fear removals from, purely political causes. We have just heard that the State Librarian of Indiana, a capable officer, has been decapitated in consequence of the recent elections, to make way for one of whom

we know nothing, but who, it is safe to say, has probably not superior qualifications. The State Librarian of Michigan is also threatened. This is a particularly aggravated case. The present incumbent is declared by competent judges to be the only good librarian the State has ever had. When she took charge of the library the room was a lounging place, the sets of books were very incomplete, and in the way of further spoliation. She soon established order and decorum; she made herself familiar with the books, so as to direct inquirers, and set herself to fill up deficiencies, by purchase or exchange, as fast as the means of the library would allow. The library thus well cared for received more attention and larger appropriations from the State, and is now declared to be, for its size, a remarkably good one. The law library particularly is said to be well selected; for Mrs. Tenney, one of the judges says, has shown more judgment in buying than most lawyers. This is the official who is to be turned out to make way for a woman who has stumped the State for the victorious party. If the new claimant were an excellent librarian, it would be gross ingratitude to turn out a faithful and efficient officer to make way for her. Probably she knows nothing whatever of the work. Librarians are born, but they have to be made also. When one who was evidently a born librarian has also been made by the experience of a number of years, it is very poor political economy, however good politics it may be, to let her services be lost to the State, and take in her place one who has all the experience to gain. A few instructed persons know that to perform the work of a librarian fairly requires months of apprenticeship; to perform it well requires years of practice. This, however, after all, is not to the point. The desire of the politician is, not that the public service should be well done, but that his friends should be so treated that they will support him at the next election.

—In his address before the Physics Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Montreal in August (now printed in pamphlet form), Prof. T. C. Mendenhall has given a clear and concise view of the problem presented to our colleges, universities, and schools of science in the methods of instruction in physics. He shows that the cour es of instruction which have been adopted are unbalanced. In some schools, physics is used merely as the ground on which to display a mathematical analysis whose symbols often convey to the student but vague conceptions of the physical relations which these symbols are intended to show. In support of this opinion the author quotes Mr. G. H. Darwin, who, in speaking of his experience as examiner in the highest school of mathematical physics, says:

"The subject which exhibited the average weakness of grasp most flagrantly was thermodynamics. A great many men had read something of it, but very few really understood what they attempted to explain. Extraordinary muddle and confusion was sent up in answer to a question on the absolute scale of temperature. On another question, while the very elements were unknown to those who answered, the same men reproduced faultlessly the algebraic calculation of the thermodynamic function for a perfect gas."

In other courses of physics too much is done in mere qualitative and indefinite work, of little value in those applications of physics which are affecting so profoundly the relations of individuals and of nations. Professor Mendenhall, we think, is quite right in urging that quantitative work should alone be pursued in our physical laboratories, and that mere qualitative or illustrative work should be relegated to the lecture-room. The teaching of physics in a school of science may be divided into three parts: (1) a thorough course of mathematics; (2) a course of text-book and lecture work (fully illustrated by carefully prepared experiments), in which the student shall learn to apply his mathematical knowledge in the elucidation of the phenomena of physics; (3) the work in the physical laboratory, in which each problem given shall be discussed mathematically and experimentally, and more attention be paid to the quality than to the amount of performance. The balancing of these three parts of the course so as to bring about their harmonious operation is a point to which Professor Mendenhall wishes to call special attention.

—It is not long since we had 'Arrows of the Chace,' a collection of Mr. Ruskin's letters to the newspapers, and now Mr. Charles Reade has gone and done likewise, and we have a volume of 'Readiana: Comments on Current Events' (London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford; 8vo, pp. 330). A very few of the articles here gathered together are regular essays or sketches; the "Box-Tunnel" is one, and "A Brave Woman" is another. The rest have at least the form of letters. In the catalogues of dealers in autographs we often see appended to some showy item the phrase, "a characteristic specimen." There is scarcely a letter in this volume to which this phrase might not be applied justly. Most of them are perfervid and fiery, and recall the epigram to the effect that "Mr. Reade is a literary fusee—you have only to touch him and he goes off!" Some are feeling and eloquent appeals, like "A Hero and a Martyr" and the tribute to "A Dramatic Musician." Some deal with topics of permanent interest, like the hundred pages devoted to "The Rights and Wrongs of Authors," which is in fact a historical discussion of the copyright question, recalling the earlier work on "The Eighth Commandment." But most of them have been called forth by some passing wrong either against himself or against some one who needed a defender; and all of these are written at white heat, and glow even now as we read them through the non-conducting types. More interesting to an American reader than any argument about Col. Valentine Baker or the Tichborne claimant are the many defences of Mr. Reade himself and of his works. We have here the letters defining the "Sham-Sample Swindle" and the "Prurient Prude," and the letters defending 'A Terrible Temptation' against the charge of indecency, and 'Foul Play' against the charge of plagiarism. Altogether this collection of Mr. Reade's epistolary correspondence with the public through the papers is a volume which no one can afford to overlook who is really interested in one of the most original and vigorous writers of fiction of our time.

—The transformation of France from the most bellicose to the most pacific of nations has been commented upon by all the journalists with astonishment and in some cases, one fancies, with a slight feeling of disappointment. It is so much more commonplace to settle down into the calm pursuit of physical or even of artistic comfort, than to shriek *La gloire!* to astonish Africa with zouaves, and to see Europe listening to catch even the silence of one's Emperor; quiet and money are so much less romantic than *la revanche*. A similar change is making itself seen in internal affairs. It is not so many years ago that the Commune held a carnival of unreason in the French capital. Compare with this the result of the strikes at Montceau-les-Mines, and the threatening letters which turn out to be hoaxes in that formerly most dangerous city, Lyons, and the entire indifference shown by the miners at St.-Étienne to the Socialist Congress held there late in September. The Socialists, after quarrelling among themselves (the "Opportunists" expelling the "Révolutionnaires"), finding, like Mahomet, that the mine would not come to them, resolved to go to the mine, and organized conferences to which they invited the miners; but at one of these, when they urged the latter to take possession of the mine and the plant, they met with a unanimous cry of protestation. "Since the miners are not *à la hauteur*," said one of the Socialists, "we will go into the mine and bring them by force into the workman's party." To which a miner replied: "Well, come into the mine and see how you will be received. If you knew what the miners think of you, you would moderate your propaganda. When workmen leave your conferences they carry away this opinion of you: that you are trying to force yourself forward at their expense, and only excite them to revolt because you find it profitable for yourselves." The reproach is said to be deserved, the members of the Congress being almost entirely *bourgeois*, some of them pretty well off, or writers, or members of liberal professions, and by no means laborers. It is a healthy sign when workmen begin to feel some distrust of counsels coming entirely from the outside, and from persons who have nothing to lose by the course which they advise. The accredited representative of the miners is of an entirely different character, M. Michel Rondet, an energetic, hard-working, and intelligent miner, who has been forced by his companions to leave underground work and devote himself entirely to the defence of their interests. For this service he receives five francs a day—not magnificent pay for an advocate; but if he received more, they would trust him less.

—The Socialist Congress having shown itself entirely unpractical, the Syndical Chamber of Miners called for October 1 a meeting of all the deputies of the mining districts, in order to lay before them the grievances and claims of their laboring constituents. Nine deputies came. A representative of the great companies spoke first. He was followed by M. Rondet, who read the manifesto of the Syndical Chamber, setting forth their demands, which bore chiefly on three points: *caisses de secours*, hours of labor, and accidents. The deputies promised to take the demands into serious consideration and labor to find a solution of the difficulties. A dinner followed, of which perhaps the most noteworthy feature was that the miners kept on their hats during the whole of the three hours that it lasted. With the most friendly intentions the deputies could not follow their example. We do not suppose that there are to be no more communistic cakes and ale, any more than that we have seen the last French war. At this very meeting of conciliation the last thing said was the remark of a representative of the miners to the deputies: "You know now what we wish. If you do not grant our demands, we shall see what we shall see." But there is evidently a beginning and more than a beginning.

—The prolific French novelist, M. Louis Ulbach, who has been taking a short trip in Holland, expresses his wonder at the progress made since, eighteen years ago, he made one of those little journeys which Liberal writers used to find necessary now and then under the Empire. Amsterdam has more than doubled its population and its extent. Moreover, owing to the force of individual initiative and independence upon the Government to do everything, "as we Parisians do," it has gained as much in quality as in quantity. The tramways, as all Europe calls our horse-cars, are more comfortable and more profitable than in Paris; everybody uses the telephone—the man that does not is remarked; a great zoölogical and botanical garden, which the Jardin des Plantes might envy, has been founded; and finally, a great exhibition is to be held

there in 1883, and the Dutch, who have been rivalled only by the Belgians and the Americans in literary piracy, are to see the sixth Congress of the International Literary Association, and perhaps be converted.

—The French School at Athens continued last summer its investigations in Delos, which have been going on for several years. The results of the work of this season are not without much interest, although it could not be expected that they would approach in importance the work already done upon the Temple of the Delian Apollo, and the discovery a few years ago in the sacred precinct of the wonderful series of archaic sculptures which have thrown new light upon the study of early Greek plastic art. Among the most important discoveries of this season are a fine inscribed mosaic, found near the sacred harbor, a colossal statue of the Goddess Force, by Melanos the Athenian, and a statue above natural size of a kneeling Gallic soldier—a work of Agasios of Ephesus, the artist who carved the famous "Borghese Warrior" of the Louvre. The excavation of the theatre has also been begun, and has revealed great marble tripods set up in the orchestra as votive offerings, and two Atlantes, which once supported either (like those of the Dionysiac Theatre) the floor of the stage, or some raised platform or part of the stage building. The seats immediately surrounding the orchestra of this theatre are provided with backs similar in character to those of the Odeion of Herodes in Athens.

—A new imitator of *Notes and Queries* has appeared at Padua—*Giornale degli Eruditi e Curiosi*, of which the first number appeared in October, and the price is twenty lire ($4) a year. It may be worth while to recall the other journals of like character. They are, so far as we can recollect, *Notes and Queries*, 1849-82, the parent of them all; *De Navorscher*, Amsterdam, 1855-82; *L'Intermédiaire des Chercheurs et Curieux*, Paris, 1864-82 (No. 347 is dated October 25); one published at Madrid called, if we remember right, *El Intermediario; Educational Notes and Queries* (Salem, Ohio, 1875-81); and finally the long-titled *Miscellaneous, Literary, Scientific, and Historical Notes, Queries, and Answers* (No. 1, July, 1882, Manchester, N. H.). Every library of any size has *Notes and Queries*, but *L'Intermédiaire* is not often to be met with, and we doubt if half-a-dozen libraries in the country have *De Navorscher* and *El Intermediario*. The *Educational Notes and Queries*, also, is very scarce in the East. A number of periodicals have a column of "Notes and Queries" (*Polybiblion* and the *Library Journal* occur to us at this moment). Several libraries hang up strips of yellow paper, headed "Questions and Answers," as an intermediary for their frequenters. The column "Answers to Correspondents" in numberless journals amounts to the same thing. So does Mr. George Augustus Sala's "Echoes of the Week" in the *Illustrated London News*. Thus, knowledge is broken up fine, as soil is made by Mr. Darwin's earthworms. What will grow in it?

—It is now—thanks, mainly, to the researches of Professor Dozy, of Leyden—well established that there are two Cids: a legendary Campeador, the hero of a thousand battles for the Cross and paragon of all chivalric and civic virtues, and an historical Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar, a famous freebooter, fighting by turns under the Christian banner of Spain and under that of her infidel foes. It was ultra-scepticism which tried to consign the Cid among such mythical heroes as Amadis de Gaul, Tell, or Romulus. And his Ximena, too, is no myth. The very marriage-contract which united them in wedlock is still extant in the original. The remains of both have also been preserved in a double sarcophagus at the Carthusian monastery of San Pedro de Cardeña, near Burgos. They were, however—as has recently been made public—not left intact there after the victory of the French near that city in November, 1808. About a year ago a literary company, including Dr. von Lehner and Dr. Lauser, a diligent writer on Spanish history, on visiting the art galleries of Prince Charles Anthony of Hohenzollern, at Sigmaringen, were surprised by their host's pointing out to them an artistically-wrought sarcophagus, containing, as he said, bodily relics of the Campeador and his famous consort. Lauser subsequently revisited Sigmaringen in the company of Tubino, a member of the Spanish Academy, and, with the permission of the Prince, examined both the remains and the documents referring to them in the Archives of Hohenzollern. The facts elicited are these: After the battle of Burgos, Prince Salm-Dyck and two French officers of high rank visited the monastery of San Pedro, which had been ransacked by the French soldiery. The double sarcophagus being found broken open, they carried off a part of its sacred remains, which Prince Salm-Dyck afterward placed in a small sarcophagus executed after the Spanish model. A protocol, drawn up in Paris in 1811, duly authenticated the fact of transfer. In his old age, in 1857, Salm-Dyck presented the treasure to his friend Prince Charles Anthony. The latter, being asked by his guests whether he would be inclined to restore the relics to Spain if the gift were deemed valuable, answered in the affirmative. The necessary inquiries were made, King Alfonso XII. sent the Prince an autograph letter, and the favor asked for has been politely granted by the father of the Prince, Leopold of Hohenzollern, who, in 1870, was offered by Prim and his followers the crown of Spain, torn from the brow of Alfonso's mother.

—The third volume of Sara F. Hennell's 'Present Religion' (Trübner, 1882) is introduced by a prolonged dissertation on comparative ethics from a somewhat novel standpoint. After premising that "the future ripening of all true philosophy will be identified with the ripening of the minds of women," who are more platonistic and immaterialistic than men, the writer proceeds to develop the "sexhood theory," which she had applied in religion, with reference to morals also. By introspection, and by subjecting all opinions elsewhere derived to self-appeal till her intuitions are contented, she seeks to reach the distinctively woman's view of morals, which it is assumed will rest less upon the science of ethics (which relates only to conduct, and is more masculine) than upon religious morality, which is more feminine and emotional. The general result attained by this method is that neither empiricism nor supernaturalism can give the true basis of morals, but that the comparative ethics of sexhood must be "developmental," and must rest on a sense of duty as the most personal of all our sensations, and one which can have no strength, at least to women, if impersonal or if undirected either to God or to human beings. The power of truth, whether intellectual or moral, is at bottom loyalty, and implies a will subordinated to the general order of things in the universe. Duty thus involves dualism. The authoress's "sense of deepness," always shocked whenever serious works are addressed—as are most except the Bible and much of Mill and Comte—to men readers only, was especially wounded by Herbert Spencer's theory, that a sense of duty diminishes with increasing moralization, till only pure spontaneity remains. This, and the position he ascribes to women generally, makes a very different ethics and sociology from his own—probably her own—the logical culmination of all of Spencer's works preceding his 'Ethics.' The fact of dying and the dread of death are the basis of awe, and therefore, when softened by a slowly unfolding trust in nature despite death, of religion. Notwithstanding its peculiar stringyness of style, modelled on that of Comte, which makes it hard reading, the work is not without much suggestiveness, especially on account of its frankness.

—The third number of the 'Schweizerisches Idiotikon' lies completed before us, and gives evidence of rare linguistic ability combined with the most laborious industry on the part of the two editors, Profs. Fr. Staub and Ludwig Tobler. It embraces only the German dialects of Switzerland, and is the result of the coöperation of more than 400 contributors from all classes of the people. From 1862, when the Society of Antiquaries in Zurich first appointed a commission for the purpose, contributions have been pouring in from teachers and clergymen, from Government employees and professional men, from linguists and from untrained agriculturists, to illustrate the Swiss dialects in every manner and shape; even foreign university professors have extended a helping hand. To digest the contents of all these manuscripts, a corps of assistants has been busily engaged for ten years; the federal and some cantonal governments have contributed to the national work by aiding it financially. The dictionary is published by J. Huber, at Frauenfeld, in Roman type and quarto size, with two columns to the page, and is edited after the most approved method of modern lexicography. The quaint and ever-varying pronunciation of the various cantons necessitated the use of a linguistic alphabet with some letters bearing diacritical marks, and also a peculiar alphabetic order, by which, for instance, the words beginning with vowels had all to be brought together on account of their interchangeability in passing from one valley to another. Whenever a term is used in several significations, these are presented in the order of their historic evolution. The key to this evolution is furnished by the etymology of the word, and particular pains are taken to elucidate the linguistic origin at the end of each item. The principal dialectic variations of the terms are often helpful in disclosing the etymology, and a full array of them is quoted after each heading. References taken from early and recent authors, from proverbs, popular songs, ditties, and other folk-lore, from every-day conversation and from other sources, are given in profusion as helps for establishing the various definitions of a term. Wherever it is desirable, other German dialects are adduced to prove certain acceptations of a word of rare occurrence. The references from Swiss authors date back to the sixteenth century, although a few go back to the thirteenth, in order to exhibit fully the historic connection of the present idioms with those of former centuries, especially with the period called *Mittelhochdeutsch*, whose chief literary products sprang from Southern Germany and contain many vocables identical with or closely akin to terms found occurring at the present time only in German Switzerland. That the Swiss dialects are, linguistically speaking, the most important German dialects was stated long ago by the celebrated Jacob Grimm. The 'Idiotikon' gives the derivatives under the heading of the base or stem of which they form compounds—*e. g.*, *Unachtsami* under *Acht*, *Schifferi* under *Eri*. Political and ecclesiastical history, economy, husbandry, local and personal nomenclature, are equally well illustrated by the rich contents of this laborious publication, and there is no end

to appellations from the domain of natural science; thus we find the names of several hundred species of apples and more than thirty species of potatoes. Very amusing and instructive at the same time are the popular rhymes illustrating the customs, habits, and practical philosophy of the country rustics.

—Some points of general interest are developed in the introduction to the 'Bibliographie de l'Astronomie' (by J. C. Houzeau, Director of the Royal Observatory of Brussels, and A. Lancaster, Librarian of the same), the fourth and last fascicule of the second volume of which has lately appeared. The authors have tabulated the number of astronomical papers by the dates of publication, from 1600 to 1880, and have plotted the results in a *Courbe des Travaux astronomiques*, which illustrates with striking effect the rapidity with which the number of these articles is increasing with the time. Political revolutions have but slightly affected this progressive activity—excepting only the great wars of the First French Empire, which occasioned a remarkable decrease in the number of papers, the epoch of greatest depression being the year 1815. Important astronomical discoveries and events have had the most marked effect in stimulating the production of astronomical works; for example, the last transit of Venus, 1874, and the discovery of Neptune, 1846. Of some 1,800 articles indexed in this volume of the 'Bibliographie,' 6,000 are written in the French language, 5,800 in English, 4,400 in German, 800 in Italian, and 600 in Latin—the remaining 400 being divided unevenly among nine other languages. The four most prolific names are those of Secchi, Lalande, Zach, and Bessel, while those who have averaged the greatest number of papers per annum during the period of their activity are Flammarion, Secchi, and Proctor. The sections of this volume are nine in number, and relate to the History of Astronomy, Biography, Spherical Astronomy, Theoretical Astronomy, Celestial Mechanics, Astronomical Physics, Practical Astronomy, Monographs on the principal bodies of the Solar System, and Stellar Astronomy. The first and third volumes, being thought of less pressing importance than the second, will be published subsequently, and will relate the first to Works (or separate publications), and the third to Observatories and the observations made at them.

BARTLETT'S FAMILIAR QUOTATIONS.

Familiar Quotations: Being an Attempt to Trace to their Sources Passages and Phrases in Common Use. By John Bartlett. Eighth edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1882.

THE appearance of a new edition of this useful handbook will be welcomed by all lovers of good literature, especially when they learn that "the present edition contains quotations from one hundred and twenty-five authors who are not represented in any former edition." From its modest beginning, in 1855, in a little volume of less than three hundred pages, mostly confined to quotations from the English poets, down to the present substantial one, more than three times as large, and containing a medley of citations, prose as well as poetical, and from various languages, we have remarked a constant increase in its usefulness. For literary workers it has become a *vade-mecum*, not only on account of the wide range of its selections and the completeness of its index, but especially for its accuracy in citation, by which it has enabled every one to discharge with great saving of time and trouble the much-neglected duty of "verifying quotations." It is by far the best collection of quotations that has ever appeared in any country or in any language; and whoever will undertake the task of preparing a similar manual from the Greek and Latin writers will deserve well of all classical scholars. But while we cheerfully bear witness to its steady improvement, we must hint to the author that if it has increased in bulk, so has it in price; and, as there would seem to be no limit to its future size, we would whisper gently in his ear the saying of Callimachus: "τὸ μέγα βιβλίον ἴσον εἶναι τῷ μεγάλῳ κακῷ."

Naturally, many persons must have contributed to the production of this work, and to some of them the author makes grateful acknowledgment, while stating that the "editorial labors" have been shared with another gentleman. To this divided responsibility possibly we may attribute certain faults in its execution which may readily be corrected in subsequent editions. There are far too many commonplace quotations from inferior writers, which neither are nor deserve to become "familiar," by whose removal space would be gained for important contributions from better sources. The suggestion of parallelisms of expression, and the hunting up of instances of the use of the same thought or figure of speech by different authors, has been carried to an inordinate length. On comparing the present with the last edition, we remark at once a great improvement in the index of authors, which in that was disfigured by numerous errors in alphabetizing. Of course we have a right to expect as one of the chief merits in such a work scrupulous accuracy, both in giving the quotation and the place where it is to be found. Some slips in this regard which we have detected we will proceed to point out, as well as to make our contribution toward the improvement of the work by suggesting certain omissions, which may be remedied in future editions.

Among the new authors, Omar Khayyám makes his début somewhat unluckily, as "pity" is printed for "piety" and "conceal" for "cancel" in Fitzgerald's translation of the 'Rubaiyat,' st. lxxi.; and we do not understand why the striking and often-quoted couplet from st. lxvii. should not also have been given: "Heaven but the vision of fulfilled desire, And Hell the shadow of a soul on fire." We miss the name of Matthew Arnold from the list of contributors, although space has been found for that of S. J. Arnold; but surely we should never have heard so much about "sweetness and light" if 'Culture and Anarchy' had never been written, and he might at least have been noticed in a note to the quotation from Swift's 'Battle of the Books.' We would also suggest the admission from his 'Stanzas from the Grande Chartreuse,' of "Wandering between two worlds, one dead, the other powerless to be born," as well as "The kings of modern thought are dumb." Charles Kingsley and Mrs. Browning are each represented by a single extract, to which we would add as equally deserving candidates for the honor, "Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever; Do noble things, not dream them all day long," from 'A Farewell,' and "Men must work and women must weep," from 'The Three Fishers'; and for Mrs. Browning, "Knowledge by suffering entereth, And life is perfected by death," from 'A Vision of Poets,' imitated from Æschylus (Agam., 177, "Πάθει μάθος"); and from 'Aurora Leigh,' b. ii.:

> "God answers sharp and sudden on some prayers,
> And thrusts the thing we have prayed for in our face,
> A gauntlet with a gift in it."

Mathew Roydon gets the credit for his beautiful verses upon Sir Philip Sidney, but twice they are absurdly called "An Elegie on a Friend's Passion for his Astrophill," instead of "Elegie, or Friend's Passion," etc. Moreover, we know no reason why Prof. Child's edition of Spenser should be given as the authority for Todd's discovery that they are not the production of Spenser. Philippe Gaulthier, author of the famous "Incidis in Scyllam, cupiens vitare Charybdim" is stated to be of "about the thirteenth century," although Charles Sumner, in an elaborate article in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Dec., 1865, showed that the "twelfth" is the correct date. Buffon's celebrated phrase is quoted, "Le style est de l'homme même," although the preposition has no business there ('Œuvres Complètes,' vol. xxv., page 269). The inscription over the door of the library at Thebes is translated "Medicine for the soul," while its real meaning is not "medicine," but the place where it is dispensed. On page 423, n. 2, "another and the same" is given as the equivalent of the Latin phrase "alter et idem" instead of "aliud et idem."

Most of the quotations from Boswell's 'Johnson,' on page 317; from Wordsworth's 'Excursion,' on page 422; and from Macaulay's 'History,' on page 522, are so badly misplaced that we would advise their complete revisal. We suggest the insertion of Johnson's anecdote about "the retired tallow-chandler," anno 1775, and of Macaulay's "Young Levite" ('Hist.,' vol. i, chap. 3). We should also append to the quotations from 'The Excursion,' b. iv., "Recognizes ever and anon the breeze of nature stirring in his soul," and "So build we up the Being that we are."

We sometimes notice a tendency to mutilate quotations, as in the instance from Milton's 'Samson Agonistes,' l. 129, where it reads "Ran on embattled armies clad in iron," but omits the pith of it—"And weaponless himself made arms ridiculous." So the editor quotes from the Twelfth Sonnet, "License they mean, when they cry liberty," but omits the next line, "For who loves that must first be wise and good." We are also surprised to miss from "Lycidas" l. 188, "He touched the tender stops of various quills." From Sir Thomas Browne's 'Religio Medici,' part ii., sec. 9, he takes what is said about the "music of beauty," but omits the more beautiful passage about the "music of the spheres." In the citation from Michael Drayton's lines about Marlowe, he leaves out "Had in him those brave translunary things that the first poets had."

Sometimes an authority is quoted at second hand, when a little search might have discovered the original, as in the anecdote about Burns, on page 372, taken from 'Chambers's Cyclopædia,' instead of Lockhart's 'Life of Scott,' vol. i., chap. 4. On page 283 a blank is left, which might have been filled with the name of Mr. Broadhurst, who might thus have been easily rescued from oblivion; and the inquirer for the origin of the beautiful translation from Uhland, "Take, O boatman! thrice thy fee," might have been referred to the *Edinburgh Review* (Oct., 1832). So when Coleridge says he borrowed the expression "myriad-minded," to apply it to Shakspere, from "a Greek monk, who used it of a Patriarch of Constantinople," his error might have been corrected. The monk was Naucratius, who employs it in an encylical letter upon the death of his teacher, S. Theodore Studita, Abbot of the Monastery of Studium, and not Patriarch (Migne, 'Patrologia' [Ser. Græc.], vol. xcix., p. 1828). The proverb about the "mills of God grinding slowly" is given from the Greek under two different forms, but we are not told that both come from an adage cited by Plutarch in his treatise "Concerning those whom God is slow to punish," chap. 3, and that the one was put into a metrical form by Henry Stephens, and inserted in his 'Thesaurus,' while the other passed into the apocryphal collection of the Sibylline Oracles.

As to what may properly be styled "familiar quotations" deserving a place in such a hand-

book as this, and what authors ought to be included in it, there must necessarily be wide diversity of opinion. But since Molière and Voltaire have both figured in the last two editions, we cannot understand why "Que diable alloit-il faire dans cette galère" ('Les Fourberies de Scapin,' Act ii., Sc. 11); or "Tuer un amiral pour encourager les autres" ('Candide,' chap. xxiii.); or "Le superflu chose très-nécessaire" ('Le Mondain,' 1736), should all have been omitted. Of course the miscellaneous appendix is capable of indefinite expansion, and naturally will include many familiar quotations from the Greek and Latin; but we should certainly recommend as candidates for admission such as are almost universally misquoted, like "Ne sutor supra crepidam" (Plin. 'Hist. Nat.,' xxxv., 36, 12—not "ultra"), or "Non passibus æquis" (Verg. 'Aen,' ii., 724—not "haud"), or "Dictum sapienti" (Plaut. 'Pers.,' iv., 7, 19; Ter 'Phor.,' iii., 3, 8—not "verbum"). There are also many phrases, particularly Latin ones, whose origin is not generally known, and these it might be proper to put upon record in a place where they would naturally be sought for. Such are "E pluribus unum" (Verg. 'Moretum,' l. 103; Cic. 'De Off.,' i., 17), and "Manus hæc inimica tyrannis Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem,' which assuredly should find a place in such a Boston book. About the origin of this quotation there is some uncertainty. A correspondent of *Notes and Queries*, March 10, 1866, stated that the first line is to be found in a patent granted in 1616 by Camden (Clarencieux), from which it may have been borrowed by Algernon Sidney. It was written by him in the Album of the University of Copenhagen, according to a letter of his father ('Familiar Letters written by John, late Earl of Rochester and other persons of honor and quality'), or in that of the King's Library, according to the statement of Lord Molesworth, who adds that it was torn out by the French Ambassador ('An account of Denmark as it was in the year 1692'). We would call to the editor's notice another elaborate article by Charles Sumner in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Nov., 1863, upon the origin of the famous compliment paid to Franklin, "Eripuit cœlo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis"; also a paper in the Transactions of the Cambridge Philological Society, vol. i., page 47, showing how the phrase "In puris naturalibus" is entirely misapplied, in borrowing it from the scholastic philosophy, in which it denotes "the natural powers of man prior to divine grace." "Stare super vias antiquas" is to be found in the Vulgate, Jeremiah, vi., 16; "Habent sua fata libelli" in Terentianus Maurus, 'De Syllabis,' v. 1007; "Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixerunt," in Donatus, apud S. Hieronymum, 'Comm. in Eccles.' i., 9 (Migne 'Patrol.' [Ser. Lat.], vol. xxx., p. 1019); "Semel insanavimus omnes," in Joh. Bapt. Mantuanus, 'Eclog.' i., 178; and "Perfervidum ingenium Scotorum," in the "Jesuita Vapulans" of And. Rivetus, and not in Buchanan, as has often been stated.

But as the work is principally designed to give the sources of "familiar quotations" in the English language, we will proceed to mention a few that certainly ought to have a place in it. Such are, for example, the story about "the poor and pious girl, who wrote poor and pious poetry"; this can be found in a note contributed by Richard Grant White to page 59 of the first American edition of Burton's 'Book-Hunter.' Another is the expression, "Sons of Liberty," which was first used by Col. Barré, in a speech on the Stamp Act, February 7, 1765. To the quotations from standard authors we would add: "The greatest clerkes ben not the wisest men," 'Canterbury Tales,' l. 4052 (The Reve's Tale). "I think we do know the sweet Roman hand," 'Twelfth Night,' Act iii., Sc. 4. "Outdid the meat, outdid the frolic wine," Herrick, 'Ode for Ben Jonson.' "Here are sands, ignoble things, Dropped from the ruined sides of kings," Fr. Beaumont, 'On the Tombs in Westminster Abbey.' "While his off-heel, insidiously aside, Provokes the caper which he seems to hide," Sheridan, Prol. to 'Pizarro.' "Doing good, Disinterested good is not our trade," Cowper, 'Task,' b. i., l. 673. "Not rough nor barren are the winding ways Of hoar antiquity, but strewn with flowers," Warton, Sonnet written in Dugdale's 'Monasticon.' "Rushed into the field, and foremost, fighting fell," 'Childe Harold,' c. iii., st. 23. "Hiving wisdom with each studious year," *id.*, *ib.*, st. 107. "The fatal facility of the octosyllabic verse," Preface to 'Corsair.' "Handsome is that handsome does," 'Vicar of Wakefield,' ch. i. "Fair exchange was never robbery," 'The Antiquary,' ch. xxxviii. (Motto, Old Play). "Those blessed consolations in distress," Preface to the 'Excursion.' "Those old credulities to nature dear," Wordsworth, 'Memorials of a Tour in Italy,' iv. "O be wiser thou, Instructed that true knowledge leads to love," *id.*, 'Lines left upon a yew-tree seat.' "His honor rooted in dishonor stood, And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true," 'Idyls of the King' ("Elaine," l. 873). "The long, mechanic pacings to and fro, The set, gray life and apathetic end," Tennyson, 'Love and Duty.' "Like glimpses of forgotten dreams," *id.*, 'The Two Voices.' "Laurel greener from the brow of him that uttered nothing base," *id.*, 'To the Queen.' "Olympian bards who sung Divine ideas below; Which always find us young, And always keep us so," Emerson, 'Ode to Beauty.' "Hammer in the Horologe of Time," Carlyle, 'On History,' and 'Death of Göthe.' "The one thing finished in this hasty world," Lowell, 'The Cathedral.'

Want of space and no lack of material compels us to pause here, with the suggestion to the editor that he is slightly inconsistent in not placing beyond question the origin of the motto on his title-page from Montaigne ('Essays,' b. iii., ch. xii.), as its paternity has frequently been questioned. We will append such minor errors or misprints as we have noted. Page 138, line 3 from bottom, "Res" is printed instead of "Re"; page 154, line 3 from bottom, "Ibid" for "Book ii., Song 2"; page 167, line 20, "vol." for "book"; page 196, line 3 from bottom, "14" for "13"; page 212, line 4 from bottom, "n. 4" for "3," and for "ad. fin. 1" read "sect. vi., par. 18, 1"; page 253, line ult., for "278" read "298"; page 366, line 15, for "2" read "11"; page 364, n. i., read "page 606." On page 261 the quotation from Aaron Hill is printed as if the two stanzas were separated instead of successive, and the same is true, on page 387, of those from Burns's "Ae Fond Kiss"; on p. 360 the quotation from Cowper, 'Task,' book i., l. 702, belongs to book ii., same line; while in the index of authors, "Browne, Wm.," read "154"; "Darwin, Erasmus," add "423"; and "Shenstone," add "458."

Outlines of the Life of Shakespeare. By J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps, F.R.S., etc. The second edition. London, 1882. 703 pp.

Does it ever occur to us how deeply we are indebted to Shakespeare, not only for what he has done, but for what he has not done—for his virtues of omission as well as his virtues of commission? We may try to estimate what we owe him for his revelations of our springs of action, for his profound philosophy, for the matchless beauty of his poetry, for the harmony of his verse; but all these elements, and many more, do not exhaust his claims upon our gratitude. To a less degree, of course, these may be found in other poets. But more is Shakespeare's due for two other things which he did not do—viz., he did not read his proof-sheets, and he did not write an autobiography. No lover of his kind can contemplate with composure the idleness and torpor that would have benumbed editorial brains for the last hundred and fifty years had Shakespeare bequeathed to us his immortal dramas with every word spelled right, and all commas duly marshalled. Where would have been that ambition whose height is reached in the fit location of a semi-colon? Of what earthly use would be all our knowledge of ancient sports and pastimes, of unique black-letter volumes, or of Elizabethan learning generally, if we could not display it in explanation of "Vllorxa," or that "dram of eale," or if any schoolgirl could see through "runawayes eyes"? Verily, a deep debt of gratitude the world owes to "the divine Williams" for his contempt of printers, and to Isaac Jaggard and Edward Blount for deserving that contempt by issuing in 1623 that precious, misspelled, ill-punctuated First Folio; and the uncertainty of Shakespeare's text extends to the details of his life. We do not even know for certain the day of his birth, and we doubt the manner of his death; and how he amassed his large fortune is the wonder and despair of modern playwrights. It is even denied point-blank that he ever wrote any of the plays which pass under his name; that at most he merely copied them off, so that Heming and Condell could with truth affirm that there was "scarce a blot in his papers." This misty vagueness envelops even his tomb, bearing an epitaph which was written we are scarcely sure by whom, breathing a curse we scarcely know for what. The portraits of him that survive present every style of feature, passing in a series, from the familiar face to a resemblance to the newly elected Governor of Massachusetts, and so on to what is like nothing in the heavens above, or the earth beneath, or the waters under the earth. It is not to be supposed that the man and poet is for us only this dim outline because we will not rub our eyes and look for him. We have rubbed our eyes in search of him until they would gaze an eagle blind, but no clearer can we see him. Every nook and corner, cranny and crevice has been ransacked, but no vivid image of the man is to be found, and the supreme god of Olympus is quite as distinct a personality to us as the god of Stratford.

For this impenetrable obscurity shrouding his outward life, as has just been said, we should be duly grateful to Shakespeare. It permits every worshipper to mould his own image of his god. Just as the eye sees what the eye brings with it the power of seeing, so every reader will detect in Shakespeare's plays precisely those indications of his outward workyday life with which that reader is most familiar—the actor will detect the actor and stage-manager; the sailor will recognize his own and claim Shakespeare for an old salt; the lawyer, the physician, the traveller, the soldier all hail him as a copesmate. And in order to give every one a chance to substantiate his claim, Shakespeare, with a kindly, superhuman prescience, which does not surprise us, left five years of his mortal life an absolute, total blank, and in these five years he may be supposed to have served an apprenticeship to every trade and calling under the sun. From 1587 to 1592 he can be made to travel in Italy, to fight abroad, to sail the seas to the vext Bermoothes, to act in Scotland, to act in London, to study the classics, to carouse at the Mermaid, to stroll in Germany, to hold horses at the theatre door, to read Montaigne, to learn Rabelais, and to study law. Myriad-minded, as Co-

leridge pronounces him, he may well have been; he merely had a separate mind in each body.

The upshot of this rare combination of an imperfectly-printed text with an unknown personality has been the production of a vast amount of emendations, on the one hand, which plainly show that Shakespeare had no clear idea of what he meant to say, and, unable to endow his purposes with words, could only gabble monstrously; and, on the other, a life has been manufactured for him out of a supposed chronological order in which he wrote his plays—that he wrote tragedy when he was sad and comedy when he was merry—and this chronological order has been founded on the number of syllables in his lines. Under these circumstances, when the world is going Shakespeare-mad, the appearance of a book like that before us is most timely; in it the veteran scholar, surpassed in years by only one living fellow-editor, has given us the results of his lifelong study. Here are no surmises, but statements which rest on facts which can be substantiated. Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps has here proposed to construct,

"in plain and unobtrusive language, a sketch of Shakespeare's personal history strictly out of evidences and deductions from those evidences. Subtle and gratuitous assumptions of unsupported possibilities will be rigidly excluded, and no conjectures admitted that are not practically removed out of that category by being in themselves reasonable inferences from concurrent facts."

Admirably is the proposal carried out, and, in spite of the restrictions of his rigid rule, Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps has managed with the simplicity of truth to impart great interest to the meagre, commonplace material at his command.

In recording Shakespeare's life year by year, note must necessarily be made of the successive publications of the quarto editions of his plays, and herein will be found the surest chronological order of their composition. Of course, contemporary external evidence may modify this order, and, where the plays appear only in the folio, this, with scraps of internal evidence, is the only evidence we have; but all internal evidence is to be regarded with great caution. As Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps well says, "allusions to such matters as storms and eclipses are exceedingly treacherous criteria" (p. 285); and when we come to deciding on the order in which they were written by the moods through which we fondly imagine Shakespeare to have passed, we are at sea without compass, chart, or rudder.

Space will not permit us to do full justice to this admirable volume. The "Outlines" are followed by over a hundred pages of "Illustrative Comments," every one of which bears witness to the painstaking zeal and accuracy of the author. By the fulness of these "Comments" we can measure the restraint which Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps put upon himself to keep from wandering, in the text, into episodes and by-paths delightful and refreshing to the scholar's heart. Then follow elaborate and exhaustive essays on some fifteen or sixteen subjects intimately connected with Shakespeare, such as "The Theatre and Curtain," "The Coventry Mysteries," "Shakespeare's Neighbours," "The Davenant Scandal" (which is, or ought to be, hereby for ever dispelled), "The Ratsey Episode," etc., etc. We can give only a taste of their quality, for, alas! there is no table of contents. A hundred and fifty pages of "Documentary Appendix" close this invaluable book, which let any one read, learn, and inwardly digest, and we will guarantee him against all attacks of Shakespearian megrims, such as Baconian theories, or theories that "the poet, when engaged in dramatic writing, placed before his eyes an elaborate map of the scenes of his plot, or reckoned the exact number of hours to be taken by a character in moving from one spot to another; or, in the composition of each line of verse, repeated the syllables to ascertain if they developed the style of metre it was his duty to posterity to be using at that special period of his life" (p. 102).

On one point we wish Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps had been more explicit. On page 97 he says that "Love's Labour's Lost" "received some additions and improvements from the hands of the author," and on page 216, that "2 Henry VI." "may have been retouched by the author after its first production." These statements certainly countenance a theory which we hope Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps does not advisedly maintain—that Shakespeare remodelled his plays, or rewrote them—a belief which cart-ropes could not draw us into. A poet who could write "The Merry Wives" in a fortnight would never spend his time in rewriting anything that had once, in all its completeness, left his teeming brain. Must we for ever forget that Shakespeare wrote his plays to be seen and heard, and not to be read, and pondered over, and studied? Did Shakespeare make any corrections, or additions, or changes in "Venus and Adonis," the first heir of his invention, wherein, if ever, his maturity could have detected flaws? Or in his "Lucrece," the most popular of all his poems? Shall we never learn that in studying Shakespeare in the quartos we are looking at him "maimed and deformed by the frauds and stealthes of injurious impostors"? The mention of "The Merry Wives" minds us to say that we are afraid that the legend that Queen Elizabeth commanded Shakespeare to portray Falstaff in love, is one of those "unsupported possibilities" which Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps led us to expect would be "rigidly excluded" from his pages. Can it perchance be a "reasonable inference from concurrent facts"?

Tunis. The Land and the People. By the Chevalier de Hesse-Wartegg. With twenty-two illustrations. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE Chevalier de Hesse-Wartegg appears to have made a good use of his time while in Tunis last year. Armed with special privileges, including the honorary title of Colonel in the Tunisian Army, he visited many places which unofficial Europeans probably rarely see, and had many opportunities for observing the working of the Government and the daily life of the people. These things he describes pleasantly, although we confess to a feeling of uncertainty at times as to whether he is relating what he himself has witnessed or what he has got from "other communications placed at" his disposal. His book, however, is a clear, and doubtless an accurate, account of the condition of Tunis at the time of the French occupation. He very carefully avoids any discussion of the causes or description of the events leading to the annexation of the country, the name even of M. Roustan not being mentioned throughout the work.

The city of Tunis, the second in point of size in Africa, differs but little in its essential features from other Oriental cities. A few clean and well-paved streets are to be found in the European quarter, but the great obstacle to improvement in this direction is the fact that so much of the land is owned by the mosques. This can never be sold, although estates may be exchanged. But the ground in which a saint is buried "must never be touched, but must remain in the same state, even if situated in the centre of commercial intercourse or before the palace of the Bey." These tombs appear to be numerous, and "woe to him who touches them! A Jew who some years ago put his foot on one of them to lace his shoe was instantly killed by fanatical Mussulmans." Architecturally considered, the city is uninteresting. There are "some pretty mosques, grand palaces, and, distributed here and there, some costly fragments of Moorish architecture." But the inexhaustible quarry of building material, ready cut and ornamented, furnished by the neighboring ruins of Carthage, would seem to have prevented the full development of the powers of the Arabian architects. For "in every second house are found Roman stones with inscriptions or sculptures, parts of columns and capitals. If Tunis were destroyed, her ruins would be the ruins of Carthage!" This seems to be equally true of other places throughout the Regency. "All these towns, with their palaces, mosques, towers, and walls, are built from the splendid stones of these Roman ruins." With other travellers, the Chevalier calls attention to the rich and comparatively unexplored field which the country presents to the archæologist. Under the new régime, it is to be hoped that scientific explorations will be instituted in the remains of Carthage, Utica, and the Roman towns in the south. Another circumstance which adds to the number of ruins is that, "according to a Tunisian custom, a reigning Bey must not live in a palace where one of his predecessors died." Mohamedia, built about thirty-five years ago for Achmet Bey at a cost of $2,000,000, was dismantled at his death. "The furniture was moved; the floors, glazed tiles, doors and windows were broken out and dragged to another palace. The heavy marble columns, statues, the curbs of the wells, etc., remained behind with the walls, and he who passes these imposing ruins to-day might think thousands of years have passed over them." Fortunately, the same fate does not await the Bardo, the great palace just outside the city walls, "a kind of fortified town by itself," as Mohammed Bey died in the Kasr-Said, a villa built by one of his ministers.

The Chevalier gives a favorable impression of this unfortunate monarch, describing him as an intelligent man "very familiar with European matters," and occupying "himself in his leisure hours with the reading of Arabian books, and photography, in which he has attained a certain dexterity." In some respects he was far from being the type of an Oriental ruler. "He hates women," the Chevalier tells us, and his mode of life was very simple. As a just judge, he enjoyed "the best reputation with the natives as well as with the Europeans, and all the sentences I have heard, or which have been reported to me, show a sound judgment, and even something of that Solomonic wisdom which distinguished Oriental Caliphs centuries ago." Unlike his predecessors, he was very reluctant to pronounce the death sentence. "When he is compelled to do so, he spends the day in prayer, and is wholly inaccessible." The best chapter in the book is that describing the "court of justice" held by him every Saturday, at which all were free to bring their cases for his decision. "A strange incident occurred some years ago during one of these judicial sittings. A Moor approached the throne silently, holding a large sack in his hand, out of which rolled two human heads bleeding, one a man's, the other a woman's. The Bey looked first at the heads, then at the Moor, and without saying a word made the sign which meant acquittal. It was simply a husband who had discovered his wife was deceiving him. In his excitement he made use of his traditional right to kill her and her lover, and presented himself the very same day before the Bey to confess his deed, not in words, but more significantly by showing the heads of the transgressors." His brother, Sidi-Ali, who has just been invested by the French Resident, M. Cambon, with the now merely nominal title of Bey, is comparatively

but little known. It is significant, however, that he alone of all the royal princes and ministers of the late Bey has "kept to the Arabian dress." The French press generally describe him as thoroughly devoted to the interests of France, and "at heart a Frenchman."

The various officials, from the Grand Vizier down, appear to be equally grasping and unscrupulous. Their extortions are such that the peasants suffer intolerable oppression, and many rich Moors avoid all appearance of wealth and live in comparative squalor, or enroll themselves under one of the Consulates, thereby escaping Tunisian jurisdiction and taxation. In order to do this, it is necessary to "prove a real or imaginary descent from Europeans. In most cases the Spanish Moors have to serve as ancestors, and the Spanish Consulate has to undertake the protection." Even the late Bey's Grand Vizier, formerly a barber, and the first native Tunisian who has held this position, "has entered his name on the list of the French Embassy."

The Jews form about a third of the population, and, though till recently subject to great oppressions and humiliations, are now, since the restrictions on their liberties have been removed, increasing in numbers, wealth, and social position. "They build new houses in European style, show themselves in smart, new dresses, and, owing to their intellectual superiority, get business into their own hands with surprising rapidity." Their habits of life are described with much detail, and an entertaining account is given of a Jewish wedding, in which there was an extraordinary display of jewels and rich dresses. The author also devotes a few words to some nomad Jews living with the Hammama Bedouins: "They have adopted the habits and customs, and also the dress, of the nomads completely, so that they can scarcely be distinguished; the Bedouins alone know them. They look after the trade of the tribe with whom they live; they buy and sell wool and skins, sell the goods stolen by the Bedouins, and supply the latter with the intoxicating Lacm—*tout comme chez nous*. They are, however, not allowed to marry into the tribe, nor to pitch their tents among the Arabs. They live outside the encampment —a Jews' quarter, built of tents." While speaking in general very favorably of them, the Chevalier accuses the women of a want of chastity: "Whole streets, and even quarters, swarm with Jewish houses of ill-fame"—which, if true, we are inclined to think is exceptional. Of the European residents in Tunis he says, that "in dress and general appearance they remain true to their origin, . . . but in their home-life they imitate the Orientals only too much."

In the second part of his book, the Chevalier gives some account of the provincial towns of Tunis, of which Sfax, distinguished for the industry and prosperity of her inhabitants, is one of the most important. As in Persia, so in Tunis, native manufactures, especially of carpets, are suffering from the introduction of European designs. "Only in the holy town of Kaironan [*sic*] has their carpet industry been preserved in its old glory." Everywhere, in fact, in the house architecture and interior ornaments, as well as in the street costumes, is to be seen that incongruous and thoroughly ugly mixture of the East and the West of which all recent travellers in Mohammedan countries speak. The Chevalier writes enthusiastically of the beauty of the great palm forests in the oases in the south, which furnish the dates that form so important a part of the Tunisian exports. It is to be noted that Mr. Broadley, the *Times* correspondent, and author of the latest book on Tunis, asserts that the late Bey protested firmly, and with reason, against the French scheme of flooding the schotts or salt lakes, on the ground that the excessive humidity would make all the dates uneatable, as is now the case with those growing in the oases bordering on the sea.

To some perfectly excusable infelicities of style, is added in this book a carelessness in spelling foreign words, which it is less easy to forgive. We have already called attention to a curious misspelling of the name of a prominent town, which is also to be found in the English edition. Other forms of the same place are Kairwan and Kerwan. We have also remarked Cheir-ed-Din and Kereddin, shachia and sheshia, kuffia and kufia.

Memoir of John A. Dahlgren, Rear-Admiral, U. S. N. By his widow, Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

It was hardly to be expected that a memoir of Admiral Dahlgren should be entertaining. Laborious, persevering, intelligent, and brave, his services were useful, but he seems not to have had a spark of the genius that kindles the imagination and captivates the fancy of men. For the last two years of the war he commanded the great fleet, sometimes numbering ninety-six vessels, before Charleston. In this command he showed an energy and personal courage above criticism, which called forth a warm eulogium from General Sherman. But the conditions did not admit of success, and beyond the blockade of the port his efforts were fruitless. His name is hardly remembered in connection with the operations about Charleston, and popular attention at the time was mainly directed to the Army. Admiral Dahlgren felt the injustice of this, and attributed it in part to unworthy conduct by General Gillmore. Hence, much wrath and bitterness, which is reproduced here from his private journal, apparently with little reserve or discretion, as, for instance, where a passage is quoted in which the Admiral speaks of a letter from General Gillmore as "a mean-spirited, craven, white-feathered concern."

Admiral Dahlgren's chief fame rests on his ordnance service, and, here, again, his career was quite free from those vicissitudes which sometimes make an inventor's life appeal so strongly to the feelings. When he was fourteen years old his father died, and at sixteen he was appointed a midshipman in the Navy. From that time his future was assured, and he was free from all anxiety for means of support. His investigations and trials were made by him in his official capacity, in the regular line of his duty in a Navy-yard fitted up for him on his own plans. Under these circumstances, the complaints in his journal, echoed by his biographer, of the cruel injustice of the Government in not paying him largely for his inventions, are open to question. These were, however, creditable and useful. The first was a percussion lock. He next devised bronze boat and field guns for naval use, which were adopted and are still retained. They are light and handy and can be fired as often as ten times a minute, but can hardly claim originality of principle as inventions. The production of the Dahlgren gun was the best achievement of the Admiral's life. It was a great advance on all our guns, including the old army Columbiad. It led to the new Columbiad and the Rodman guns, if it was not, as its inventor maintained, identical with them. Its endurance was not increased or diminished by casting hollow by Rodman's method, but its life was shortened by any variation from its regular model. It placed the United States in advance of the rest of the world "in the perfection of figure, material, and fabrication of its cast-iron guns." It revolutionized the armament of our ships of war. It was essentially a shell gun, though it was strong enough for solid shot. Shell guns were not new to the Navy, but their use had been neglected, and the skill and drill necessary for this more complicated service had not been cultivated. Admiral Dahlgren's influence was sufficient to have the *Merrimac* and *Plymouth* armed with his guns and provided with shells exclusively, for trial trips. The result was so satisfactory that this system became the rule in the Navy. These guns, with Parrott rifles, did nearly all the work of the Navy, afloat and ashore, during the war.

In 1864 the guns had a famous victory in the fight between the *Kearsarge* and *Alabama*. It was fought in smooth water, at a distance of 700 yards, or within easy range of the broadside 32s of each vessel. The armaments were singularly equal, the *Kearsarge* carrying one gun less than the *Alabama*, but having a greater weight of broadside. The *Alabama* had an English 68-pounder, then considered in England the best gun ever made, and one 7-inch rifled Blakely gun. These were balanced on the *Kearsarge* by two pivot Dahlgren 11-inch guns. In an hour the *Alabama* struck, and in twenty minutes more she sank. At the close of the war the Chief of the Ordnance Bureau said in his annual report: "But a single gun of the Dahlgren system has burst prematurely." This is a noble record, and the inventor's name will live in connection with his gun as Bormann's does with his fuse, Parrott's and Armstrong's with their rifles.

There seems to be some mystery about the origin of this invention. Admiral Dahlgren says he has often explained it, but never published it; that it did not depend on experiments, but on a principle; that it resulted from considering all the strains to which a gun was subjected. It does not appear whether he included among these the expansion of the bore from the heat of the explosion, as in Norman Wiard's theory. The likeness of the guns to soda-bottles is notorious. Could it have been that the inventor in a moment of reflection was struck with the virtue of a shape which even in glass could cope successfully with the embarrassing explosive energy of this popular beverage?

The book is bulky and diffuse, and its tone naturally partial and undiscriminating. It is largely composed of extracts from the Admiral's diary, giving a mass of details of his life, which may be useful for reference (though there is no index), but which are often as dry as his ship's log. His rivalries and animosities are needlessly revived, and sometimes supported with some disingenuousness. For example, the Department, without consulting the Admiral, had a 15-inch gun altered by reaming out the chamber and reducing the chase, and other guns were made on this model. Whereupon his widow remarks: "The Assistant Secretary—the would-be inventor of a bigger gun than the Dahlgren—was a worthy gentleman who was placed fresh from the successful manufacture and sale of woollen cloth in New England in a high sphere of official dignity at a critical moment in the country's history." This is all quite true, but it does not convey the fact that this gentleman's fitness for his position and success in it came from his regular training and ample service as an officer in the Navy.

Selections from the Poetry of Robert Herrick. With Drawings by Edwin A. Abbey. Harper & Bros.

This quarto volume, despite its flamboyant cover, is one of the two or three foremost holiday publications of the present season on this side of the water. Its manufacture is so far an "international episode" that the types were derived from a London establishment, while Mr. Austin Dobson furnishes a preface; and Mr. Abbey, it is

well known, caught his inspiration for this special task amid the scenes which Herrick's muse delighted in. Some, and perhaps all of the landscapes, are localizable. These, by the way, are the freshest part of the illustrations (for the figure pieces have mostly appeared already in *Harper's Magazine*); and such a one as that which beautifies page 5, or the snow scene on page 54, or again the charming lane on page 69, and incidentally the rural outlines in a number of plates, show no mean strength in the vein natural to American art. Mr. Abbey's figures are in general solidly conceived and drawn, though there are extremes of care and negligence in this respect; his compositions are graceful, and he is particularly successful in expressing movement, for the best example of which, and perhaps of his manner and imagination, his "To be Merry" may be cited (p. 66). No suite is to our mind quite so successful and harmonious as that of the "Discourse of Neatherds" (p. 9), in which every one of the five designs is admirable—a little pastoral in itself. Mr. Abbey's women are, whether of high or low degree, attractively and characteristically portrayed, as, to name a few, the damsel in "Delight in Disorder," "Mistress Susanna Southwell," "Chloris Walking in the Snow," "Musique," and the maid retreating from the room "upon Candlemas Eve." On the other hand, the physiognomy of tinkers, cobblers, the bellman, is humorously seized in its minutest details. Indeed, Mr. Abbey's mastery of expression in the human countenance is far more subtle on a small than on a large scale: compare Sappho (p. 42), Dianeme (p. 139), Cuffe (p. 140), with any of the smaller personages in his gallery.

On the whole, Mr. Abbey must be allowed to have wrought congenially with a poet whose verse would bankrupt the ordinary designer. His friend, Mr. Alfred Parsons, to whom he dedicates the fruit of his labors, and who contributes some of the head and tail-pieces, has been felicitous in his way also. Finally, the publishers have done exceedingly well by Herrick and his artist friends, and spared no pains upon the typography and presswork.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbey, E. A. Selections from Robert Herrick, with Drawings. Harper & Bros.
Adams, W. H. D. Page, Squire, and Knight: a Romance of the Days of Chivalry. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 75.
American Additions to Chambers's Encyclopædia. Complete in four vols. S. W. Green's Son.
Arr, E. H. New England Bygones. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $5.
Baker, G. The Legendary History of Rome. R. Worthington. $7 50.
Barrill, A. G. A Whimsical Wooing. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
Berger, F. New Method of Learning the French Language. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Bradon, Miss M. E. Flower and Weed: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Brehms Thierleben. Chromo-Ausgabe. Parts 54-56. B. Westermann & Co.
Bromfield, E. T. Picturesque Journeys in America of the Junior United Tourist Club. R. Worthington. $1 75.
Brush, Mary E. Paul and Persis; or, The Revolutionary Struggle in the Mohawk Valley. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Buckley, Arabella B. Winners in Life's Race. D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Busch, W. Plish and Plum. From the German. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in the Occident. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 75.
Campbell, Helen. The Problem of the Poor. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 90 cents.
Clark, E. L. Fundamental Questions, Chiefly Relating to the Book of Genesis and the Hebrew Scriptures. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Coffin, C. C. Winning His Way. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 25.
Coffin, C. C. Building the Nation. Harper & Bros.
Crane, T., and Houghton, Ellen. Abroad. [Colored Picture-Book.] Marcus Ward & Co. $2 50.
D'Anvers, N. Lowest Forms of Water Animals. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
De Amicis, E. Sketches of Military Life in Italy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Dies Iræ. Erinerungen eines französischen Officiers an die Tage von Sedan. B. Westermann & Co. 80 cts.
Doyle, J. N. English Colonies in America: Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas. Henry Holt & Co. $3 50.
Five Little Flower Songs. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 50 cents.
Forrester, Mrs. I Have Lived and Loved. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
French, H. W. Our Boys in India. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2 50.
Gardner, E. C. The House that Gill Built: a Book on Home Architecture. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Golden Floral. The Breaking Waves Dashed High. Abide with Me. Nearer, My God, to Thee. Home, Sweet Home. Oh, Why Should the Spirit of Mortal be Proud? Rock of Ages. He Giveth His Beloved Sleep. Ring Out, Wild Bells. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 75 each.
Golden Thoughts on Mother, Home, and Heaven, from Poetic and Prose Literature of all Ages and Lands. Revised and enlarged. E. B. Treat. $2 75.
Grant, R. The Lambs: a Tragedy. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Greenaway, Kate. Almanac for 1883. George Routledge & Sons. 50 cents.
Gross, J. B. What Makes Us Unhappy? Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
Harris, Amanda B. Wild Flowers, and Where They Grow. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $3.
Hastings, H. L. Fireside Readings for Happy Homes. Boston: H. L. Hastings. $1 25.
Herbert, George. The Temple: Sacred Poems and Private Ejaculations. Facsimile Reprint of First Edition, 1633. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Holmes, O. W. The Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table. New and revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Holtzendorff, F. von. Encyklopädie der Rechtswissenschaft. 4th ed. B. Westermann & Co.
Jennings, J. A. Readings from Charles Dickens. Dublin: Carson Bros.
Kaspar Hauser. B. Westermann & Co.
Knight, C. The Works of William Shakspere. In 3 volumes. George Routledge & Sons. $3 75.
Student's Concordance to the Revised Version of the New Testament, showing the Changes in all the Words Referred to. D. Appleton & Co. $2 50.
Suetonius's Lives of the Twelve Cæsars. R. Worthington. $4 50.
Sunshine in the Soul. Selected. Poems. Boston: Roberts Bros.
The Thrift Book: a Cyclopædia of Cottage Management and Practical Economy for the People. Ward, Lock & Co. $3.
The Children's Circus and Menagerie Picture-Book. George Routledge & Sons. $2.
The Silverland Library. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Thompson, Mrs. E. H. Gems of Scripture and Song. Gems of Religious Literature. Gems of Literature. 3 vols. Phillips & Hunt.
Tom Brown's School-Days; Wanderings in South America; Irving's Old Christmas; and Irving's Bracebridge Hall. Many illustrations. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Vanderwater, Rosalie. Two Tea-Parties. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Van Dyke, T. S. The Still Hunter. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $2.
Watterson, H. Oddities of Southern Life and Character. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Wilder-Gage. Anatomical Technology as Applied to the Domestic Cat. A. S. Barnes & Co. $4 50.
Wilson, J. A. Song-Captives. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Wood, Alice, and Others. The Salmagundi Birthday-Book. S. W. Green's Son.
Yriarte, Charles. Florence: Its History—The Medici—The Humanists—Letters—Arts. 500 engravings. Translated by C. B. Pitman. Scribner & Welford.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 14, 1882.

The Week.

It is cheering to witness the moral effect of the November elections upon Republican politicians in Congress. The business of the session has been taken in hand with a vigor and alertness not seen in a great many years. The session is little more than a week old, but the House of Representatives has already passed two important appropriation bills; bills to reduce internal-revenue taxes and tariff duties are vigorously taken in hand in committees; the idea that this time no River and Harbor Bill is to be passed finds general favor, almost as a matter of course; and the popularity which the cause of civil-service reform has suddenly won among Republican Senators and Representatives is fairly amazing. It is a period of signs and wonders. Here we behold Senator Hale, of Maine—the same Mr. Hale who last season made a powerful speech in defence of the Hubbell mode of levying political assessments upon public servants, which was considered worthy of the place of honor on the list of the unique documents published and circulated for the enlightenment of the American people by Mr. Hubbell's Committee—the same Mr. Hale exclaiming on Friday on the floor of the Senate, we suppose with a virtuous flush on his cheeks, "Do you suppose anybody here would vote against a proposition to strengthen the law prohibiting political assessments?" Mr. Hale will be in the front rank of those condemning that abominable abuse. Here is Mr. Allison, a member of Mr. Hubbell's Committee, who not only frankly agrees "that public sentiment has crystallized against the system of contributions from officeholders," but who "will go as far as any Senator to prohibit the soliciting of them." "Call up your Civil-Service Bill," says he, "and I shall give it my hearty support."

Steve French, Clint Wheeler, Mike Dady, Bob McCord, and John F. Smyth, some of the statesmen who have lately had charge of the affairs of the Republican party in this State, have all gone to Washington—a striking illustration of the serenity with which practical men meet the storms of adversity. If a parcel of "theorists" had taken charge of a State election, and had had a majority of 196,000 thrown against their candidate in a total vote of less than 878,000, they would unquestionably have disappeared from the public gaze for several months. Some would have gone to Europe; others would have buried themselves in their families and private affairs. All would have avoided large gatherings of every kind, social or political, and would, above all, have stayed away from Washington, which is full of political managers, by whom political mismanagement is considered peculiarly discreditable. But our statesmen seem to have such greatness of soul that they can go anywhere without a blush. It is said now that they have not only gone to Washington, but have gone to get President Arthur to do what old topers are said to do when they try to cure their morning headache by a little more of last night's whiskey—take some "of the hair of the dog that bit them." He has frankly acknowledged in his Message, in a way that does him great credit, that the voters object to arbitrary removals; so they propose, it is said, that he should make a few more. The Message they are said not to understand. It read so strangely that they felt that nothing but a personal interview could clear it up. "Has 'Chet' Arthur," they ask each other—this being their pet name for the President—"lost his senses?" So they packed their gripsacks, got their hats ironed, and started for Washington. They want him, it is alleged, to "reorganize the party" by removing Postmaster Pearson, Collector Robertson, Appraiser Howard, and various other officers, and think, apparently, that when this is done the 196,000 majority who voted against Folger will vote the Republican ticket next time.

One of the things they desire earnestly is that Mr. Burt, the Naval Officer, whose term expires in February, shall not be reappointed. Mr. Burt is especially odious to them, both because he is an excellent officer, and because he has been the leading promoter of the competitive examinations in the Custom-house and an ardent civil-service reformer. So they want to substitute for him an ex-Congressman of their own set, known in the set as "Jimmy" Smart, but, we believe, absolutely unknown out of it either as a legislator or administrator. He is besieging the White House for Mr. Burt's place, and all the workers are working for him. That Mr. Burt's place ought not to be considered vacant because his term has expired, never occurs to any of them. For this reason we commend his case to the notice of Mr. Kasson, and all others in and out of Congress who think the civil service would be improved by the introduction of short fixed terms for all offices. Mr. Burt served for nine years in subordinate offices in the Custom-house before he was promoted to his present position, and this was, we believe, the first time in the history of the Government that any of the three leading places in the Custom-house was filled in this way. He is, in all respects, a first-rate example of fitness, both as regards character and capacity. In a properly conducted civil service, the thought of dropping him ought not to enter any one's head. The President ought not to be bothered for one moment about filling his place. And yet Smart, the ex-Congressman, who has no experience of business of any kind except the business of "fixing primaries," thinks he ought to get it, and all the bummers, heelers, workers, and henchmen think he ought to get it; and all of them who can afford the travelling expenses go on to Washington to help him to get it, and have Burt turned out. The Civil-Service Reform Bill framed by the House Committee actually proposes to bring 100,000 offices into the arena, once in every four years, to be scrambled for in this way, there being now less than 3,500 which "the boys" can get without making vacancies for the purpose.

The defendants in the Star-route case have adopted new tactics. Evidence is accumulating that they have organized a "literary bureau." Despatches and letters, remarkably like one another in tone and argument, are constantly appearing in various newspapers, trying to create the impression that Mr. Brady and ex-Senator Dorsey were malignantly persecuted by the late Postmaster-General James and the late Attorney-General MacVeagh, for no other reason than that Mr. Dorsey had opposed the appointment of these two gentlemen as Cabinet officers; and that Attorney-General Brewster is continuing that persecution from motives of general "cussedness" and depravity. They further seek to make the public believe, that the removal of certain Government officers on account of their demonstrative and active sympathy with the Star-route defendants means the beginning of a reign of terror, for the purpose of forcing a verdict of guilty. Messrs. Brady and Dorsey have apparently become so much afraid of a trial by jury that they would now rather essay a trial by newspaper first. They may indeed find an audience with that class of readers who are fond of spicy and sensational stories even when they are not true; but they will, after all, not gain much by it. For even if Messrs. MacVeagh and James and Brewster were as vindictive as Messrs. Brady and Dorsey try to make them out, the question would still recur whether Messrs. Brady and Dorsey did not actually engage in fraudulent practices and rob the Government.

Senator Brown, of Georgia, on Monday objected to the taking up of Mr. Pendleton's Civil-Service Reform Bill, on the ground that as the Democratic party had now a fair prospect of gaining possession of the Government, it would be imprudent to embarrass it, by a Civil-Service Reform Act, in the exercise of the power to put the Republicans out of the offices and to put the Democrats in. Mr. Brown has the reputation of being a very astute politician, but his shrewdness is evidently of the short-sighted kind. If the Democrats get into power, the possibility of which is admitted, there are several dangers the party will have to overcome in order to maintain itself there. One of these dangers is that the hungry hordes of Democratic officeseekers will make such a rush for the public plunder that the people will stand disgusted and horrified, and will be eager for an opportunity to take the power of the Government again out of the hands of such a crowd. Every wise Democrat will wish to prevent such an exhibition, and, inasmuch as it is certain that it cannot be prevented except by a law standing in the way, he will be in favor of the strictest civil-service reform bill that can be framed. Senator Brown evidently does not mean to stand among the wise men of his party.

Mr. Eugene Hale is trying how not to do it by proposing a substitute for Mr. Beck's resolution of inquiry into the operations of Jay Hubbell's Committee among Government officers, so as to make the inquiry cover the collection of money by the Democratic Congressional Committee. The object of this is, of course, either to prevent inquiry altogether, or to make the field covered by it so large that nothing can come of it. With the Democratic modes of raising money for the canvass the public has no concern, any more than with the Republican modes of raising money, in so far as they do not include the extortion from Government employees of a percentage of the salaries paid by the United States Treasury, under thinly-disguised threats. What either party gets from others than Government officials, the public does not care. Now, the Democrats got nothing and attempted to get nothing from Government employees. Hubbell treated all Government employees as ex-officio Republicans. None dared to excuse himself on the ground that he was a Democrat and wished to send his money to the Democratic Committee. Indeed, Hubbell assumed that every clerk was so much interested in the defeat of the Democrats that he must consider it a "privilege and a pleasure" to pay something toward bringing it about.

Of course, what Mr. Hale seeks is by an appeal to the widespread and well-founded belief that the "Democrats are just as bad," to divert popular attention from the real issue. No reform whatever would be possible if we were prevented from punishing or restraining the wrongdoing of the party in power by the consideration that the Opposition would do the same thing if it got a chance. In politics we have to concern ourselves with acts and not with states of mind. It would in criminal justice be the height of folly to refrain from punishing one clerk in a store for embezzlement because the character of another clerk was bad. In like manner, it would be the height of folly now to pardon everything to the Republicans on the plea that their opponents are unscrupulous. The first and great concern of those who wish to keep the Republican party in power should be the stoppage of all practices on the part of the managers which contributed to the late defeats. That the levying by Congressmen of contributions from Government clerks, of which they rendered no account, was one of these practices, no one denies. If the Beck investigation will help to stop it, let us have it, therefore. It is not surprising that Mr. Hale should not like it, because he was not only a member of Hubbell's Committee, but composed a little discourse in defence of political assessments, which Hubbell sold at, we believe, fifty cents the hundred, or about cost, although he gave out that he wanted the assessments to aid him in distributing documents gratis.

The report of the Tariff Commission, although more enlightened than it was generally expected to be, contains some very staring absurdities. For instance, while recommending a reduction of duties amounting to twenty or twenty-five per cent. upon the existing scale, it makes an exception of lumber and timber, thereby keeping in force the existing bounty of twenty per cent. offered for the destruction of our rapidly lessening forest area. Although we are a lumber-exporting country to a large extent, we put a duty of twenty per cent. on the importation. This is an absurdity on its face, but there is a reason for it, if we search far enough to find it. Our lumber exports are from the Southern and the Pacific States. Our lumber imports are from Canada, reaching us chiefly through the Northern lake ports. It is to encourage the lumbermen of Maine, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota to strip the ground of its pine as swiftly as possible that we maintain a duty of twenty per cent. on Canadian timber. Mr. T. G. Shearman, in a recent lecture before the Revenue Reform Club of Brooklyn, remarked truly that instead of offering a bounty of 20 per cent. for the destruction of our remaining forests, we ought rather to pay a bounty for the importation of lumber from abroad in order to preserve our forest area as long as possible. In fact, the Government is at this moment offering bounties to persons for growing timber on the public lands. To offer a premium at the same time for cutting it down is a solemn mockery, which ought to strike both gods and men with awe. Why, then, should the Tariff Commission, in proposing a general and wholesome reduction of duties, make special exception of an article whose supply among us is limited, and whose preservation is of the greatest importance for sanitary and climatic as well as industrial reasons? Lumber ought to have been put on the free list. Instead of this the Commission have put on the free list spices—an article of luxury, yielding more than $1,000,000 per annum, one of the series of things best fitted in the whole list of imports to be retained as a permanent source of revenue.

The cigar-makers, or certain of them, in this city, have drawn up a petition to Congress praying for a repeal of the tax on cigars. In support of this petition they say that, "unlike any other occupation in this country, our labor is proscribed and the free use of our skill makes us criminals in the eyes of the law. This species of oppression we have endured for the past twenty years, realizing that the necessities of the Government required an internal tax upon those things which are commonly known as luxuries," etc. We are unable to see how the cigar-makers can contrive to get into the criminal class without taking the bankers along with them as companions. Both are subjected to an internal-revenue tax, and if the one class are to be put into the category of malefactors, the other should be put there also. Are we to suppose that all persons earning an income were "criminals in the eyes of the law" while the income tax was in force? There is such a thing as overstating your case, and this is what the cigar-makers have done. They go on to say that there are many other things in use in this country which are better entitled to be classed as luxuries than cigars, but they forbear to mention them. Their petition concludes by saying that whenever changes are proposed in the law stagnation, idleness, and suffering ensue in the trade. This is true; and so far as the present suffering is concerned they ought to hold Judge Kelley, Mr. Randall, and their coadjutors on the Committee of Ways and Means responsible for it, since they are the persons who have called for the change. The dealers in tobacco and cigars ask for a rebate equal to the tax upon all stocks that have paid the existing tax. This they would be clearly entitled to if the Kelley bill should become a law, of which, however, we see no immediate danger.

There could hardly be a more elevating spectacle than the way in which Mr. Blaine's antagonists occasionally lend a hand in getting him out of the scrapes into which his remarkable facundity so often plunges him. When he avowed his friendship for Bosler, and his desire that he should go to Congress, Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, knowing Bosler, declared his belief that Mr. Blaine could not have known him, or he would not have commended him. In like manner Captain Phelps, one of the corporators of the proposed Nicaragua Canal Company, being asked by a reporter how he accounted for Mr. Blaine's recent deliverances about the Canal and the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, declared that "he must have been misquoted in the interview, for it was not possible that a gentleman of his extensive and complete knowledge of events transpiring in and out of Congress should have been so wholly ignorant of the subject of the interview." This is very touching, but Mr. Blaine ought not to abuse this great kindness by drawing on it too often.

If any one wants to know why homicide is such a prominent feature of Southern life, and why it exercises such an unfavorable influence on the material and social progress of the South, he will find it in such telegrams as the following, which appeared in the morning papers of Tuesday:

ATLANTA, Ga., December 11.—To-day Governor Stephens issued a pardon to Capt. E. Cox, who was sentenced to life imprisonment in the Penitentiary for the murder of Col. Robert A. Alston, at this place, in 1879. The murder and trial created a profound sensation, owing to the prominence of the parties.

Cox committed an unusually brutal business homicide. He did not like the terms on which Mr. Alston had disposed of his interest in a contract for convict labor which they held jointly. So he began threatening to kill him, and followed him about, challenging him to fight in the old familiar fashion. Finally he attacked him in one of the public offices in the State House. Shots were exchanged, and Alston fell dead. There was the usual sensational trial, with weeping and hysterics, but Cox was found guilty and sentenced to the State prison for life. There was not one softening feature in the crime. Every social, moral, and commercial interest of the State called for his prompt execution, or, failing this, for his perpetual imprisonment. He is no more fit to go at large in a civilized community than a tiger, or an elephant in a condition of "must," and yet he is discharged after three years' confinement. What wonder if

the Georgia boys feel "cavalierish," and the pistol and shotgun business flourishes, and prudent investors keep clear of the South!

The Speaker of the Mississippi House of Representatives, Mr. Tison, has just been killed in a typical social homicide, at Jackson, in that State. It seems there was "domestic trouble" in the family of the Speaker's brother, which led to the two Tisons and their two sons giving a terrible beating to a Baltimore merchant named Saunders, which laid Saunders up for a good while. Now, most Speakers would have been satisfied with this. The Speaker of any Northern Legislature, or the Speaker of the House of Representatives in Washington, or of the House of Commons, or the presiding officer of the French or Italian Parliaments, would have undoubtedly dismissed Saunders from his mind after having given him a severe thrashing. Not so Speaker Tison. While Saunders was confined to his room, Tison went about, in the regular old Southern fashion, threatening to kill Saunders as soon as he got well, and of course the news was brought to Saunders by sympathizing friends, who were doubtless smacking their lips over the prospect of a beautiful street fight; and the inhabitants of Baldwin were getting their "gloom" ready for this "shocking tragedy." Saunders was equal to the occasion. He thought no more of applying to the law for protection, and having the Speaker arrested, than Stanley or Brazza would have done if he had heard that a chief on the banks of the Congo had laid a little ambuscade for him. On Monday last the doctors for the first time allowed him to leave the house, and he issued forth with his old family shotgun, and meeting Mr. Speaker shot him dead on the spot. The event is much deplored and regretted in and about Baldwin, where the parties were well known and highly respected. We advise Saunders now to keep a sharp eye on the surviving Tison brother and the two Tison boys.

Miss Stokes has been acquitted by the Arkansas jury on the charge of murdering Miss Melinda Stephens. After the trial she requested the jury to call on her at her room, that she might thank them in person, which they did in a body, when she gave way to "hysterical expressions of grief" mixed with thanks. We need hardly say that the jurymen wept freely. Further details of the affair throw doubt on the alleged high social position of the parties to the tragedy. If Miss Stephens was, as she was at first reported, working in a flower-garden and receiving the morning call of some mounted friends, when they quarrelled, it was easy to believe that they "moved in the best circles." But if the Stephens girls, as is now said, were working in a field when Miss Stokes rode up to ask Mrs. Stephens "what Jane was mad at her for, and what she said she was going to whip her for"; and if Mrs. Stephens replied "that it was for the lies she had been telling or hiring others to tell"; and if at this point the gallant old grandmother of the Stephens family, Mrs. Kesterton, appeared on the scene, and advised "Lindy" Stephens "to pull off her horse and beat to death" "anybody who had talked about her mother, as she (Miss Stokes) had talked about hers"—if all this be true, the ladies in the fray were not exactly "society girls," or "belles," or anything of that sort. It was when endeavoring to carry out her aged grandmother's injunctions, by dragging Miss Stokes off her horse, that Miss Melinda received the fatal stab which was inflicted with a clasp-knife.

There was a new variety of homicide, which might be called vicarious homicide, produced in North Carolina on Thursday. Mr. Nelson, a young farmer, called at Mr. Martin's house for a visit, and in a conversation with Miss Martin got the worst of it in a somewhat acrid chat. He thereupon announced his intention of shooting some of her friends, and accordingly shot her brother, who was sitting by the fireside, dead. Vicarious homicide, however, does not seem to have secured popular recognition as legitimate, for the sheriff's posse started after Mr. Nelson, who was wounded, and, we presume, captured. It would certainly be a very serious matter if men were liable to punishment with the shotgun for all the indiscretions of speech of their female relatives.

The news from London on Friday, that serious changes in the composition of the British Ministry are impending, has probably caused no great surprise in England. It was well known that Mr. Gladstone could not, at his age, much longer hold both the offices of First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, besides leading his party in the House. The burden was too great even for a younger man, and Mr. Gladstone long ago made known that it was but a temporary arrangement. His retirement from office altogether, too, it is intimated, is not far off, and this, also, is probably a by no means unexpected announcement. He has set the Liberal party on its legs, and by the changes in procedure given its majority powers which the majority has never had in Parliament before. Its legislative programme, too, has been pretty clearly sketched out under his direction, and a very vigorous set of younger men has within the last ten years come forward to take charge of it. Lord Hartington, Sir Charles Dilke, Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Goschen, and Mr. Courtney make a little phalanx to which the Conservatives have nothing to oppose, and they are by this time pretty well imbued, it is to be presumed, with Gladstonian ideas. They are now, it is said, to be reinforced by Lord Derby, whose accession, both as the great apostle of common sense, or rather of what is called here "horse sense," and as a great nobleman, will do something to make the party less alarming to the landed class. It is well, too, the most ardent admirer of Mr. Gladstone must admit, for him to withdraw from the work of active management while his influence is still unshaken and his power unabated. The defect of his statesmanship has been that he is too much to his party. He not only dominates it, but provides it with its ideas. A good Liberal of late has been too apt to be simply a man who believed in Mr. Gladstone, and was ready to "say ditto" to Mr. Gladstone. The consequence of this state of things is that if Mr. Gladstone were suddenly cut off, it would leave the party in great confusion. It is much better for its interests that he should withdraw gradually, while his counsels can still be had, and get the party accustomed to following other leaders, before he passes finally from the scene.

The first of the rumored changes in the British Cabinet has been announced. Lord Derby has accepted the Secretaryship for India. The others will probably follow soon. Still, there must be more or less uncertainty and complication caused by the serious illness of Mr. Fawcett, the Postmaster-General, and of Mr. Childers, the Secretary for War, although the former is not in the Cabinet. In the new arrangement it appears almost certain that Sir Charles Dilke, now Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and one of the coming men, if not *the* coming man, will get a seat in the Cabinet. The fiftieth anniversary of Mr. Gladstone's service in the House was celebrated on Tuesday in London with much editorial eulogy and reminiscence from both sides in politics. He must indeed be a bitter enemy of the Premier who can look back over his career without feeling a glow of admiration for all that he has done, and much wonder at all that he has seen. The England of 1832, in which he entered on public life, is, it is no exaggeration to say, an England that has passed all but completely away, and nobody, living or dead, has contributed more to the production of the new and better England which has taken its place than Mr. Gladstone. The Journals of the House of Commons, and the Statutes of the Realm during the Victorian Age, make him a monument such as no other Englishman has left behind him, and a single glance at it—if it could be all taken in at a glance—makes all mention of his faults seem almost absurd, as well as ignoble.

One of the principal aims of Prince Bismarck's policy is to make the Imperial Government more and more independent of the Parliamentary power. His scheme to change the annual budget into a biennial one—that, is to have all appropriations of money made for two years—which would of course give the Government much greater freedom of action, and relieve it of the unwelcome frequency of a critical overhauling, runs in that line. But since the Liberals and the Clericals in the Reichstag have united in opposition to this scheme it is certain to be defeated. It is reported by cable that the Prussian Government will introduce in the Bundesrath a motion in favor of increasing the timber duties with a view to deriving a larger revenue from the forests. Like other measures recently resorted to by the German Government, this is to fill the treasury by increasing the cost of the necessaries of life. The first effect of such an impost in a country like Germany is to limit the consumption of the article made dear by taxation, and so this increase of tariff duty is likely to result in decreasing the consumption of timber by building houses and in other ways, instead of increasing the revenue from the Government forests.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 6, to TUESDAY, December 12, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the House on Wednesday, after a long debate, a bill was passed giving to the State of Georgia $35,000, which was expended in 1777 for the common defence. On Thursday the Indian Appropriation Bill was passed. The bill appropriates $5,208,955, which is $274,200 less than the appropriations for the current year, and $1,516,766 less than the estimates. The reductions were principally on the items for subsistence. On Friday a bill for the relief of the officers and crew of the *Monitor*, which participated in the action with the Rebel ironclad *Merrimac*, on March 9, 1862, was defeated.

On Saturday the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation Bill was passed by the House. The bill appropriates $1,258,255, which is a decrease of $78,250 from the amount appropriated for the current year. The most important changes proposed in the bill are the consolidation of the Paraguayan and Brazilian, and the Uruguayan and Argentine Republic missions; provisions for a Minister Resident in Siam; the restoration of the consulship at Algiers, and the establishment of a new consulate at Malta; an increase of $10,000 in the appropriation for consular officers not citizens of the United States; and a special contribution of $1,350 for international weights and measures.

On Saturday Mr. Page, Chairman of the Committee on Commerce in the House, demanded the passage of a resolution requesting the Secretary of War to furnish certain information in regard to the river and harbor appropriations, and then proceeded to defend the River and Harbor Bill in a violent manner. He was followed by Messrs. Robeson, Reagan, Horr, and McLean in the same strain.

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads has unanimously agreed to report favorably a bill fixing the rate of domestic letter postage at two cents.

The Select Committee of the House on Civil-Service Reform reported a bill to improve the civil service on Saturday. The bill is to apply to clerks of all classes and grades. In making appointments the principle of prorata apportionment among the several States and Territories is to be observed. All first appointments are to be probationary for a period of time not less than three months nor more than one year, in the discretion of the appointing officer, at the end of which time the applicant shall receive appointment for a term of four years, and shall not be removed during this term except for cause; and, after having rendered faithful service during said term, shall be entitled to one reappointment. Removals are to be made only for specified causes. A Civil-Service Board, to be designated by the President, and which shall consist of three officers who shall have been confirmed by the Senate, of whom not more than one shall be taken from any one executive department, shall have cognizance of all cases of complaints for removal, and of all charges and specifications, with the answers thereto.

The Senate on Wednesday discussed the bill establishing a uniform system of bankruptcy. On Thursday Senator Brown, of Georgia, introduced a bill to repeal all internal-revenue taxes, and Senator Beck, of Kentucky, called up his resolution for an investigation into the collection of political assessments from officeholders during the recent campaign. Senator Hale thought that if the conduct of the last campaign was to be investigated, the investigation ought to extend to both parties, and offered a substitute for Senator Beck's resolution ordering the Judiciary Committee to investigate the doings of the Democratic as well as the Republican Congressional Committee. Senator Beck objected to the substitute, and on Friday a lively debate ensued on the question of the adoption of two resolutions.

Several amendments to the Pendleton Civil-Service Bill were reported from the Committee on Tuesday in the Senate. Two of them prohibit the solicitation or collection of contributions for political purposes by officers or employees of the Government. Another amendment proposes to reduce the number of Civil-Service Commissioners to three, at a salary of $4,500. Several others propose to define in a general way the character of the examination. Senator Pendleton made a speech advocating the bill. It is believed by those who are closely watching the course of legislation concerning civil-service reform that the Pendleton bill is gaining ground in the Senate, and that it will have the determined support of a number of Republicans.

Senator Hawley has introduced a bill into the Senate to prevent officers of the United States from collecting subscriptions or assessments from each other. The bill provides that no member or member-elect of either House of Congress, nor any officer or employee of the United States shall, directly or indirectly, solicit or receive or be in any way concerned in soliciting or receiving any assessment, subscription, or contribution for any political purpose whatever from any person receiving any compensation from moneys derived from the Treasury of the United States, under penalty of being punished for a misdemeanor by a fine not exceeding $5,000, or imprisonment for a term not exceeding three years, or both.

In the Senate, on Monday, the Lowell Bankruptcy Bill was substituted for the Judiciary Committee's bill by a vote of 34 to 30.

In the House, Mr. Belmont made a speech in opposition to the Nicaragua Canal Bill, and the bill for the collection of taxes in the District of Columbia was passed.

Secretary Folger decided a question of some interest in connection with Chinese immigration on Wednesday. A Chinaman residing at Portland, Oregon, wished to bring his wife and child, who were in Victoria, British Columbia, to Portland, and the Collector at Portland asked for instructions. Secretary Folger decided that the wife partook of the status of her husband, and was entitled to the same privileges. The Collector was therefore instructed to permit the wife to come to Portland.

The certificate of awards made by the Garfield Board of Audit was presented to the Secretary of the Treasury on Tuesday. Warrants for the amounts allowed each individual included in the list will be issued at once, so that the payments can be made by Thursday or Friday.

The preliminary motions in the Star-route trials are being argued before Judge Wylie in Washington. The Court has refused to grant the motion to postpone the trial on account of the alleged blindness of Dorsey, which, Mr. Ingersoll said, would make it impossible for him to attend the trial. Judge Wylie also made an important decision on Monday, reversing his former one, and placing the prosecution and the defence on a more equal footing in the matter of selecting the jury. In the former trial there were eight defendants, and they each of them had four peremptory challenges, but in the coming trial the six defendants will only have four peremptory challenges altogether, while the Government will have three.

The report of the Connecticut Board of Health says the disease that has been most common throughout the State during the fall months is typhoid fever, and that so extensive is its prevalence at the present time that there seems to be a pandemic wave of typhoid fever, nor does it seem to be at all confined to the regions affected by malaria. The increased frequency of nervous diseases is alluded to in the report.

The total vote for Secretary of State of Iowa at the recent election was as follows: Hall, Republican, 149,059; Walker, Democrat, 112,180; Gaston, Greenback, 30,817. Hall's plurality, 36,871, majority, 5,704.

A newly issued Census Bulletin gives statistics of manufactures, from which it appears that the number of manufacturing establishments in the United States in 1880 was 253,840, and the amount of capital invested in manufacturing was $2,790,223,506, but General Walker says that these last figures are untrustworthy, and he regards it as doubtful whether this amount represents one-fourth of the capital actually contributed to the annual gross product.

Several of the leading companies and operators engaged in the production of petroleum in Pennsylvania have signed an agreement to stop drilling from December 15 to May 15.

An Indian chief named Juh and a band of Indians have murdered, in Mexico, a band of thirty men who started to punish them for some depredations. The pursuers were surrounded by 200 Indians, and sent for assistance, but before the relief party could reach them the massacre was accomplished.

The transit of the planet Venus across the sun was observed by astronomers at various points throughout the continent of North America on Wednesday. In the United States and Canada the early part of the day was cloudy, and the results obtained at some points were somewhat unsatisfactory, but on the whole the transit was much more successfully observed than the last one.

FOREIGN.

The London *Times* says that it has reason to believe that soon after Christmas Lord Derby will be invited to join the Cabinet; that the Right Hon. Hugh C. Childers, now Secretary of War, will become Chancellor of the Exchequer, and that Sir Charles Dilke, at present Under Foreign Secretary, will enter the Cabinet. The *Times* adds that these changes may be the precursors of even more important ones, and that it is possible that before the end of the next session of Parliament Mr. Gladstone may consider himself entitled to retire, in which contingency there is little doubt that Lord Hartington will become Prime Minister.

The London *Daily News* on Monday stated that it was understood that Lord Derby would immediately enter the Cabinet, and that no other change than that made necessary by this step would occur before the meeting of Parliament.

The election in Liverpool for the seat in the House of Commons made vacant by the elevation to the peerage of Viscount Sandon took place on Friday, and resulted in the return of Mr. Samuel Smith, Moderate Liberal, who received 18,208 votes, against 17,879 votes for Mr. Forwood, the Conservative candidate. This is looked upon as a great triumph for the Ministry, as Liverpool has been a Conservative stronghold.

Mr. T. D. Sullivan, member of Parliament for Westmeath, in a speech on Sunday evening at Trim, County Meath, said he was there to show the Government that neither the Irish people nor their leaders were dismayed by the prosecutions. He advised the people to pay all their creditors before paying their rents. He urged organization, and endorsed all that Mr. Davitt had said in the speech for which he is being prosecuted. The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* says that Mr. Davitt intends to subpœna Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Trevelyan to depose at his trial as to the influence of the agitation in Ireland on the passage of the Land Bill.

The trial of the three men charged with the murder of the two Huddys was begun in Dublin on Thursday. It is said that it will depend upon the result of this trial whether the murderers of Detective Cox will be tried by jury or by a commission of three judges. On Saturday, notwithstanding the fact that the Judge's charge was strongly against the

prisoners, the jury after an hour's deliberation failed to agree. On Monday the second trial was commenced.

Mr. Parnell has lodged a petition in the Land Court for the sale of his property in County Wicklow. The extent of the property was given as five thousand acres, and the total incumbrances as £13,000.

From an instalment of the last Irish census, which has just been published, it appears that in the ten years from 1871 to 1881 there was a decrease of 47,222 in the number of inhabited houses. The statistics of marriage are also significant of the absence of prosperity, fifty per cent. of the men and nearly forty-five per cent. of the women being unmarried. The police barracks average fifty to each county and six or seven constables to each barrack. The number of agrarian outrages in Ireland during the month of November was eighty-nine.

A great fire broke out in London on Thursday night. The whole block between London Wall, Philip Lane, Addle Street, and Wood Street, with the exception of two or three warehouses, was destroyed. The burned area extended over two acres. Eight hundred persons were thrown out of employment, and the total loss is estimated at £3,000,000. On Wednesday night, after the performance, the Royal Alhambra Theatre in London was destroyed by fire.

The returns issued by the Board of Trade in England show that during the month of November British imports increased £632,000 and exports decreased £420,000, as compared with the same month of last year.

The funeral of the Archbishop of Canterbury took place at Addington on Friday. The service was performed by the Vicar of Addington, and the Archbishop of York pronounced the benediction. The funeral was attended by a large assemblage.

A great snow-storm prevailed in the United Kingdom on Thursday. Telegraphic communication between London and Glasgow was interrupted, and traffic on the railroads in many districts entirely suspended.

Mahmud Samy, Abdellal Pasha, Ali Fehmy, and Tulba Pasha were arraigned on Thursday. They pleaded guilty, and were sentenced to death, but their sentences were commuted to exile for life by the Khedive. Arabi has been exiled to Ceylon. Mahmud Fehmy, Arabi's military engineer, and Yacub Samy, his Under Secretary of War, have also been sentenced to exile. A peaceful demonstration of several thousand of the poorer members of the foreign colony at Alexandria was made on Sunday, before the consulates of the great Powers, to protest against delay in the payment of indemnity for losses sustained during the bombardment of Alexandria. Nearly all the consuls promised to send telegrams to their respective governments representing the demands of the people. The French Consul expressed an apprehension that long delay in the payment of the indemnity would cause serious disturbances among the lower classes. A despatch from Cairo on Tuesday said it was expected that in a few days a decree would be issued degrading Arabi and the other condemned Pashas, and ordering the confiscation of their property. Lord Dufferin is reported to be opposed to the restoration of the Chamber of Notables. The subject of popular representation in Egypt will be considered after the questions of the Army and the native courts have been settled. The London *Times* says that it understands that Egypt will contribute £3,200 monthly toward the expenses of the army of occupation. A high law officer will shortly go to Egypt from England, for the purpose of arranging judicature affairs there.

It was announced on Thursday that England had offered France the permanent Presidency of the Debt Commission, which would give France the exclusive management of the Egyptian revenues. It is stated, however, that the French Government has refused this proposal, on the ground that its acceptance would make necessary the maintenance of impartiality, which would debar France from defending her interests.

Colonel Stewart, who was sent to the Sudan to investigate the condition of the country, telegraphed from Khartum, under date of the 9th instant, that the False Prophet had been repulsed, and that Khartum was safe.

The French Chamber of Deputies adopted the estimates of the Minister of Commerce on Wednesday. On Thursday a motion was made in the Chamber that the tax on personal property be increased, but it was rejected by a vote of 332 to 132. On Friday the Budget was adopted by a vote of 54 to 46. On Saturday the Senate passed unanimously a vote of credit for 1,000,000 francs to relieve the sufferers by the floods in the Seine district.

In the debate on the extraordinary budget in the Chamber of Deputies on Monday, M. Tirard, Minister of Finance, explained the financial situation. He said that the deficit of 65,000,000 francs in the budget for 1882 was more apparent than real, as 100,000,000 francs had been devoted to the redemption of the public debt; moreover, that the deficit for 1883 would not reach 1,000,000 francs. The Government, he said, was determined to oppose all fresh expenditure not strictly justified. He insisted upon the necessity of carrying out public works by instalments. M. Tirard's speech was received with great demonstrations of approval.

The French Senate, by a vote of 138 to 87, passed an appropriation of 10,000 francs for the expenses of the funeral of Louis Blanc, who died last week. At the funeral, which took place with much circumstance on Tuesday, an address by Victor Hugo was read.

M. Édouard Pailleron, poet and dramatist, and M. Charles de Mazade, publicist and historian, have been elected members of the French Academy.

The floods in Paris caused by the rise of the River Seine threatened to become very serious on Sunday. The water had reached the heart of the city, and rose to a level with the streets. The cellars of the Foreign Office were flooded, while the Notre Dame quarter swarmed with rats driven out from the sewers, and the people were suffering from their depredations. The water is now subsiding.

The losses by the floods in the valley of the Rhine, Mosel, and Main Rivers will be considerable. The loss in the Rhenish districts will amount to millions of marks, the damage to the town of Duisburg alone amounting to one million. The King of Bavaria has given 40,000 marks to assist the people rendered destitute by the floods.

In the German Reichstag on Monday a motion to refer the budgets for 1883-4 and 1884-5 to the Budget Committee for the purpose of having the Committee consider whether or not the objections to the system of biennial budgets have a solid foundation, was rejected. It is stated that the defeat of the biennial budget scheme is certain. During the discussion of the budget on Saturday Herr Richter made an attack upon the protectionists, in the course of which he declared that the interdiction of the importation of American pork was much less a sanitary than a protectionist measure.

The Chambers of Commerce of all the seaports of Germany have protested against the exclusion of American pork, but it is understood that the Government will persevere in the determination to prohibit its importation.

A despatch from Rome reports that the negotiations between M. de Giers, the Russian Foreign Minister, and the Vatican, have resulted in the latter agreeing to contribute to the eradication of the disaffection in Poland, in return for Russia's agreement to allow the Consistory to preconize Polish bishops.

The festival of St. George was celebrated in St. Petersburg on Friday. A banquet was held at the Winter Palace at which the Czar proposed the health of Emperor William, of Germany, which was drunk with enthusiasm.

A despatch from St. Petersburg on Sunday stated that the *Novoe Vremya* newspaper said that the Prefect had ordered the police to expel all Jews residing within the municipal boundaries of St. Petersburg without official permission, and that the *Golos* said the Senate had decided that Jews are incapable of holding landed property in Russia.

The extensive emigration from the mountain districts of Hungary to America has caused the Hungarian Government to request Austria to stop emigrants not provided with passports.

The Spanish "Red Book" has been distributed. It contains a note in which Spain demands that the United States shall not enjoy the exclusive right of intervention in connection with the Panama Canal.

In the Spanish Senate on Wednesday, Marshal Serrano delivered a speech explaining the programme of his party. He declared that he was a partisan of the Constitution of 1869, but believed it susceptible of modification. He desired the establishment of universal suffrage, legalization of civil marriage, reform of the general administration of War and Marine, reduction of taxation, improvement of the national credit, and liberty of the press and public worship. He believed that the Monarchy under King Alfonzo was compatible with the Constitution of 1869. Señor Sagasta, President of the Council, replied to Marshal Serrano's speech. He said that he was glad to hear that Marshal Serrano was a partisan of the present dynasty, and maintained that he had carried out a better programme than that just announced by Serrano. He reminded the Senate that the Democratic party had accepted the Constitution of 1876, which guaranteed the principle of monarchy. He regretted that the Conservatives supported Marshal Serrano. A resolution was then offered declaring that any modification of the Constitution would be dangerous, and unpatriotic, and contrary to the will of the nation. This resolution was, on Thursday, upheld by a vote of 116 to 61.

At a meeting of Spanish Republicans in Madrid on Sunday a coalition of Republicans of all shades of political belief was resolved upon. Señor Salmeron advised the party not to oppose Marshal Serrano's programme, as the restoration of the Constitution of 1869 would promote the development of Republican principles.

The Spanish Ministry has resolved to present a bill in the Cortes authorizing, subject to slight limitations, the free introduction of cereals, in order to relieve the distress in Andalusia.

Signor Bertani, the acknowledged leader of the Italian Radicals, took the oath of allegiance to the King on Wednesday.

It is reported that China is making great preparations to resist French designs on Tonquin, and telegrams from Saigon report that 10,000 Chinese troops have crossed the Tonquin frontier.

The *Diario Official*, of Lima, Peru, has published a telegram from General Pierola announcing his inability to accept the unreasonable proposals of Chili, and stating that he has deferred his return to Peru until more favorable conditions present themselves.

The Mexican Government has made contracts for the establishment in Paris of a permanent exhibition of Mexican products, with branches in various French cities, the object being to increase Mexican commerce.

A fire destroyed the business portion of Kingston, Jamaica, on Monday, destroying property valued at millions of pounds sterling, and leaving hundreds of persons homeless and in need of food.

HOW NOT TO DO IT.

We have to warn the public that, in spite of the recent very emphatic and undisputed condemnation by the voters of the spoils system in the civil service—a condemnation so emphatic and undisputed that it has even made the President ready to accept the Pendleton bill—there are signs of an intention on the part of the Civil-Service Committee of the House to get rid of the whole subject by a bill of their own, which it is not too much to pronounce "a mockery, a delusion, and a snare." But we would warn the Committee also, and the Republican members of both Houses generally, that if they suppose they can shirk their responsibility in this matter, and put the public conscience to sleep, and get the party ready for a decent appearance in 1884 by a mere pretence of reform, they are hugely mistaken. It is ten years at least since such a bill as the Committee now proposes would have satisfied public expectations. Since then there has been too much discussion of the subject, too much familiarity with the various dodges, tricks, and evasions by which politicians have sought to avoid dealing with the question, to make the success of this last one possible, even as a palliative. It will not only not reform the civil service, but it will not put the party right before the country on the question of civil-service reform. It is recorded that when

"The devil got sick, the devil a saint would be";

but it is not recorded that he had any success as a saint, or imposed on anybody. The lesson of his experiment is that nobody can be devil and saint at the same time, or, to translate it into political parlance, that you cannot save a political abuse by pretending to reform it.

The bill on which Messrs. Briggs, Kasson, Horr, and Tucker are said to have agreed, provides for the appointment of Government clerks on probation. This would be in no way an improvement in practice on the present system of appointment by Congressional favor. In fact, it would be an attempt to disguise the evils of appointment by Congressional favor by a sham probation. The places would still be filled, as now, by Congressmen with their own retainers, fit or unfit, and they would compel the head of the department, by the very influence they now exert, to treat the probation as satisfactory if they wished to have the man retained, or unsatisfactory if they wanted his place for somebody else. No system of appointment, in short, can be a remedy for the present evils which makes admission to the service depend on any man's favor; and members of Congress may as well get rid of the idea that they can satisfy the public with any change which does not divest them of the power of quartering their dependents on the United States Treasury.

The bill would provide for a fixed term of office for clerks of four or six years, during which they would not be removable except for cause. This, so far from creating greater stability of tenure, creates less. It extends the operation of the act of 1820, making the term of office four years, which now only reaches about 3,500 officers, to all officers in the service of the Government—or, in other words, makes a great and alarming extension of the spoils system. The act of 1820, which was undoubtedly passed to make office-jobbing easy, which was condemned by all the ablest statesmen of the day, and which has in its working amply fulfilled their predictions, only covers accounting officers—that is, officers through whose hands public money passes and whose nomination has to be confirmed by the Senate. It does not reach the remainder of the 110,000 who now hold during good behavior, tempered by occasional arbitrary removals for political reasons. But taking into account these removals, which have considerably diminished of late years under the reform outcry, the average length of service is eight or ten years. The proposed bill would, therefore, practically reduce the length of the term.

In addition to this it would diminish every officeholder's sense of stability. A competent and faithful officer now feels that in the present state of public opinion he is not likely to be dismissed unless the appointing power can provide an excuse for dismissing him which will bear public scrutiny. The proposed bill would, however, furnish the appointing power not only with the authority to make a large number of vacancies every four or six years, but with an apparent justification for making them. It would enable the President or head of a department to say, when making sweeping changes, that Congress had deliberately made such changes a feature of public policy. He would not need to apologize for making them, or to conceal them, or give reasons for them. He would, in fact, every year be able to provide for the politicians more spoils than now fall to their share in eight or ten years, and, to crown all, he would be able to call this monstrous perversion of his trust the execution of a measure of reform.

Though last not least, the bill by making vacancies in 100,000 offices at stated periods, and giving notice to all the world when these vacancies will occur, would practically put every place up at a periodical auction, at which all the tricksters, intriguers, bummers, heelers, henchmen, and ne'er-do-weels of every kind and description would be bidders. As the close of a faithful officer's term drew near, all the Guiteaus in the country would know of it, and go to Washington to "work" for it. At present they are discouraged by not knowing when a vacancy is like to be made, and the appointing power, which the President says is already overwhelmed by the applications, is able to get rid of them or keep them at a distance by telling them that no vacancy exists. The bill provides, in short, for a repetition, on a scale such as the world has never seen before, of the scramble for office which took place in Washington after Jackson came into power, and which Josiah Quincy likened to the fighting of a herd of hogs for access to the trough, in a passage which, as a vivid description of a beastly scene, has but few parallels in the literature of invective. We warn the House Committee that their contrivance will not do. The country will not stand it. The day for postponements and shams has gone by.

THE MARTYRDOM OF STATESMANSHIP.

There was an interesting debate in the House of Representatives last Saturday. The advocates of the famous River and Harbor Bill, the support of which has cost so many statesmen their seats, "set themselves right before the country"; or, rather, they proved to their own satisfaction how grievously an ungrateful and deluded people had wronged them. Had they voted for a bill taking $18,000,000, or a large part of that sum, out of the public treasury for a number of profligate jobs, as a licentious press had made the people believe? By no means. They had merely endeavored to promote works of public usefulness, aye, of public necessity. They had sought to improve the water-ways of the country for the purpose of fitting them for a healthy competition with the railroad monopolies. It was the cause of the people against the grasping corporations they had faithfully and courageously endeavored to serve by putting through the River and Harbor Bill, with its $18,000,000 appropriation, and by voting down the President's veto. And for their fidelity to this sacred cause they had been made to suffer. And for this they had been slandered and maligned by the metropolitan press, which wants to prevent the improvement of all other harbors so that the commerce of New York alone may flourish, and which is intent upon keeping the Mississippi in an unnavigable state so that the railroads may have the carrying trade of the country all to themselves. And thus the gallant Page, of California, went down, and thus that noble Roman, Robeson, of New Jersey, succumbed to the five railroads he has in the district which formerly was his and now is to be somebody else's. And in order to demonstrate that they suffered for a good cause and deserved wreaths of laurel rather than crowns of thorns, they want the Secretary of War to report upon the meritorious character of the objects which the eighteen millions appropriated by the River and Harbor Bill was to promote.

Well, let us have that report from the Secretary of War by all means. Let the character of those objects have the fullest investigation. Let virtue be vindicated, though that vindication come in some cases after punishment. The metropolitan press will, we hope, not seek to forestall the judgment. It may, however, in the meantime have to say for itself that it has, in a considerable majority, vigorously advocated the removal of the tolls from the Erie Canal, so that its competition with the railroad monopoly may be made more effective than it ever has been, and that, while opposing the squandering of money upon trout-streams and gravel-beds, it is always found in favor of any rational measure to improve and develop to the utmost the carrying capacity of the Mississippi, or any other waterway of a national character. It only objects to the trick of making such measures a vehicle to carry through jobs which are neither national nor rational; and in this respect it is likely to hold its ground.

But we have a piece of advice for the aggrieved statesmen. There are undoubtedly

some among them who voted for the River and Harbor Bill, with all its jobs, for the reason that it contained some appropriations of national importance and usefulness. We admit that it did. It would be remarkable, indeed, if a bill appropriating $18,000,000 for a great variety of ends had not some meritorious ones among them. The Congressmen who were guided by such reasons may plead that their offence was only an error of judgment, and that, as they had to share the fate of the bad company in which they were found, the verdict in their case should be tempered with compassion. Let them now consider how they got into that scrape. Had the different objects for which the $18,000,000 appropriation was made, instead of being rolled together in a single bill, been before them in separate and distinct legislative enactments, they would have voted for the good ones and against the bad ones. Or, had the President possessed the power to veto the appropriations for the bad objects, permitting those for the good ones to stand, they would have sustained the President's veto, and would not now be in need of a post-mortem vindication. They should now at least avail themselves of every opportunity to protect their successors against similar dangers.

There is pending before the House of Representatives a constitutional amendment, introduced by Mr. Flower, which is to give the President the power to veto parts of an appropriation bill without covering the whole bill with his veto. It is the same power already possessed, under our State Constitution, by the Governor of New York; and it is the unanimous opinion of the people of this State that the exercise of that power has been uniformly beneficial to the public interest. It has saved this State many millions of dollars, prevented all kinds of jobbery, and kept politicians out of endless mischief. The same system prevails in thirteen other States, and is alike successful in all of them. There is no reason why, in the hands of the President, such a power should not be equally productive of good. President Arthur recommends its adoption in his message. We are also of the opinion that, if such a constitutional amendment were submitted to the State Legislatures, it would soon have the requisite majority. The only thing necessary would seem to be that it pass the two Houses of Congress. There it will undoubtedly meet with opposition. The jobbers and log-rollers will all be against it. But that is a good reason why Senators and Representatives who are not jobbers and log-rollers should be in favor of it. Now, we suggest to those members of Congress who, as they thought last season, had to swallow some bad jobs for the purpose of serving other and meritorious ends, and who had to suffer for it, that the present session of Congress would be an excellent time for carrying through such a constitutional amendment. Let them resolutely put their shoulders to the wheel, and, aided by the present temper of the country, they may succeed in coupling their names with a very great reform.

Of course, it will require some time to obtain the consent of the State Legislatures. But President Arthur in his message covers this gap by another and most excellent suggestion. It is, that different appropriations for different objects be made by separate bills, each bill covering one object, instead of many different appropriations, for many different objects, being put together into one bill. Omnibus appropriation bills will thus be avoided, each appropriation will have to stand upon its own merits, and Congressmen will have the fullest opportunity to discriminate between them. Nobody who wants to improve the Mississippi will have to vote thousands of dollars for the improvement of Gravel Run at the same time. It may be said that this will make the appropriation business very cumbersome; but that will be the beauty of it. The more cumbersome the voting of an appropriation for Gravel Run becomes the better. For the meritorious objects there will be time enough. If the President's proposition were at once embodied in the rules of the Senate and of the House of Representatives, it might keep Congress out of much mischief until the constitutional amendment was passed. We repeat, it is well enough that the Secretary of War be called upon to say all he has to say about the late River and Harbor Bill; but the time the House of Representatives has devoted to the discussion of the call for information would have been better spent by taking up Mr. Flower's constitutional amendment, and the President's excellent suggestion as to a change of the rules concerning appropriations.

WHY CAPITAL DOES NOT FLOW INTO THE SOUTH.

THERE was news last Friday of the execution of four negro murderers and of the lynching of one at the South. This is good, except the lynching. We trust the news of the execution of the white murderers will now soon begin to come in, and under the term murderers we include any man who has sent notice to somebody that he meant to shoot him "at sight," and has then come on him unawares and killed him in cold blood.

One reason why we recur to the subject is that it is very important to the South from a business point of view. Very large amounts of capital, both European and Northern, have during the past ten years been invested in farm mortgages all over the Northwest. Some of these investments are made on a great scale through indemnity companies, others directly by capitalists or trustees. They are made in sums of $200 and upward to small and large farmers—people who in many cases have nothing but their land to offer as security. Now, there is every reason in the world why some of this money should go to the South, were the social conditions good. Its climate is mild, the soil is fertile, and some of its products are surer of a good market than any of those of the North. But the truth is that a Southern farmer cannot borrow abroad. We believe there is only one loan company—a Scotch one—investing any money in the South, and it is only just beginning. The Southern planter who wants money has to run in debt to his factor at rates made up in various ways—not much under twenty per cent. He ought to be able to borrow at the North, as the Northwestern farmer does, at six or eight per cent. Even in Southern cities of a commercial character, loans are not attractive to capitalists, and real estate is somewhat of a drug in the market. We know of a case recently where a capitalist refused an investment, on excellent security, in a Southern city, to take a lower rate of interest, on no better security, two or three hundred miles further North in a Northern State, and among the reasons which he gave for refusing all Southern loans, was the fear that his agents in collecting interest might encounter the shotgun. We believe the loan companies generally make it a rule to lend no money at the South. We are sure no prudent Northern trustee lends money on Southern farming lands, though trustees lend millions on farming lands in the Northwest. In fact, we think it might be said without exaggeration that nearly all the foreign capital which has gone into the South since the war has gone into railroads which the owners control, and which are conducted on a cash basis, and that the amount advanced to Southern men to develop the natural resources of their country is exceedingly small.

Now, the reason which these investors all give for avoiding the South is, that if they have to foreclose a farm mortgage, there is no sale for the land, and they are compelled to hold it themselves. There is no rising tide of industrious and intelligent white population—German, Swede, Norwegian, and Irish—to buy up every farm which is thrown on the market on which a fair living can be made, as there is in Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Oregon, Kansas, and Nebraska. Moreover, if they lend to the Southern farmer, and things go wrong, they shrink from having trouble of any kind with an angry, unsuccessful Southerner. They do not know what may come of it, but they vaguely fear some "unpleasantness." Agents are not ready to go down South as collectors of unpaid interest in out-of-the-way districts. Every man born in any of the countries which now send emigrants to the United States dreads a region where, if some one should threaten to kill him, the law will do nothing for his protection, and his neighbors will do nothing for his protection, and he will leave his home every morning fearing that he may meet his enemy and return no more.

Southerners may scoff at these fears, and say that such cases are rare. But they occur by the dozen in all parts of the country—or in sufficient numbers to create a sensible risk, that impresses the imagination, which men from countries where the law is all-powerful will not run if they have families, or are not of an adventurous spirit, for any profit which agriculture in the South offers. In short, our belief is that the suppression by law of the practice of "shooting at sight," and the stern punishment of uttering threats to kill, and of carrying deadly weapons, would be worth within the next fifteen years hundreds of millions of money, and many hundreds of thousands of white immigrants to the Southern States—would, in fact, effect a complete transformation of the South from all points of view.

LOUIS BLANC.

THE death of Louis Blanc makes another gap in the now small circle of the survivors of those who saw in the troubles of 1848 the beginning of a regeneration of society. He was one of the band of young writers who came on the stage immediately after the Revolution of 1830, and soon made a very conspicuous figure among the Parisian journalists and authors whose activity was so prominent a characteristic of Louis Philippe's reign. Probably no government ever came so near being newspaper government as that of Louis Philippe was. We do not mean by this, government by public opinion moulded by newspapers, but government under the direct personal influence in the capital of editors of newspapers and contributors to newspapers. Thiers, Guizot, Carrel, Girardin, all became great personages under the régime of 1830, without having anything behind them but articles in the daily press and in magazines.

Louis Blanc was too radical to become a Minister, but he became a power before he was thirty, simply by editing or writing for journals of very small circulation, and for the most part of very brief existence. He started the first periodical, the *Revue du Progrès*, which licked into shape the socialistic ideas that began to show themselves as soon as France got rest from the wars of the Empire, and, indeed, he may be said to have produced the first scheme which attracted general attention for making the state a wholesale employer of labor. The famous formula—"From each according to his capacity, to each according to his wants"—was not original with him, but he brought it into the political forum, and when the Revolution of 1848 came, he had prepared a large proportion of the working population in the great cities to believe in it as a practical basis for the reorganization of society.

His accession to power, when the Moderates helped the Reds to overthrow the Orleans dynasty, was inevitable, and, with him as the strongest man in the Provisional Government, the trial of the famous experiment of the "National Workshops" was also inevitable. It was, of course, an immense failure, and the disappointment it produced brought on the bloody insurrection of June, 1849, and prepared the way for the Man on Horseback. The angry reaction of the property-holders against Socialism compelled Louis Blanc to fly to England, where he remained in honorable exile for twenty-one years, only returning to France in 1870, when she was in the grasp of the Germans. That he believed in the state organization of labor firmly there is no reason to question, and that he ever really changed his belief there is no reason for supposing. His life in London was one of great dignity and literary industry, and he won the respect of a large body of English friends, including men of all parties. His letters to Paris papers on English social and political life, between 1850 and 1870, were so remarkable for their fairness and acumen that he attained to the position, which Englishmen accord to but very few foreigners, that of a critic worth listening to on their own affairs. His opinions on contemporary English politics were constantly quoted by the London press with a good deal of respect.

After his return to political life in France, he connected himself at once with the Extreme Left, and spoke and voted with them on all questions to the last, and was invariably supported by the Communist element in the population, showing the continued faith of his followers in his fidelity. Politics were never to him—and, indeed, are not to any Frenchman of his school—an experimental science. He started out in life with a stock of political principles, as a man starts out with the Ten Commandments, or any other code of morals; and difficulties or failures in the way of carrying them out no more caused him to question their value than ill fortune makes an upright man question the expediency of honesty. But he was among the very last of his kind. The Socialist leaders who have succeeded him have no system; they do not preach his gospel. State Socialism in France may, in fact, be said to have died with him. Those who are coming after have either gone over to co-operation, or have resolved on the total destruction of everything now existing before giving any thought to what is to take its place. He was an interesting and in many ways a noble character, but belonged to a closed era.

TO THE GREAT DISMAL SWAMP.

RICHMOND, November 28, 1882.

THE Great Dismal Swamp boat did not leave till three o'clock in the afternoon. It so happened that her license held good till the 23d of November, inclusive, and here was November 24. It was necessary for her to have a new one before she could sail with the proper consciousness of being able, in case of disaster, to shuffle off the responsibility on some one else. The inspectors did not arrive. The skipper assured me they had been sent for, by buggy, several times, but it was due to their dignity as officials at first not to be found, then not to come until they got ready. Otherwise, we should have been off at 6 A.M. I had had a charming journey in the Old Dominion steamer from New York to Norfolk. Instead of being tempestuous, as might naturally have been expected at this time of the year, both sea and atmosphere took their cue from the South which we approached. The water was as calm as that of the smoothest river; azure blue besides, and covered with a multitude of sails, mostly those of wood and lumber barks going North. At night the moon, exactly full, shone with a milk-like aspect in a faintly misty atmosphere. Having thus arrived at Norfolk under circumstances to soften the temper of the most austere, I was moved to venture southward into the Great Dismal Swamp, concerning which I had had from my earliest days a great curiosity. The large tract in lower Virginia and upper Carolina, dotted with conventional tree marks, and bearing this title in the school geography, seemed full of wonders.

Few Norfolk people have been to the Swamp, and I was advised as to the best means of getting there with that uncertain, deliberative look which it is never safe to trust. A hotel proprietor, after consulting with all his acquaintances, promised with a kind of cheery despair to let me know all about it before morning. An editor advised the taking of a train to Suffolk, with a view of getting down from there by a branch canal which the county map seems to indicate. "But suppose I should find that I could not get down from there?" I said. "Oh, then you could come back, you know," he offered as a happy solution. Some insisted that there was no canal from Suffolk, but that you could drive; others, that there was a canal, but no boats, while the idea of a road was preposterous. However, it does not do to push too far people who are trying to help you, and I trust I left to my informants a share of their self-respect. All agreed that Lake Drummond was the point to be aimed for; that without this—the heart and supply reservoir of the Swamp—its most distinctive feature would be missed. I found that there was a canal in good and regular standing extending through the whole tract to Elizabeth City, on the Pasquotank River, and that the *Thomas Newton*, propeller, was in the habit of making the trip to the terminus one day and returning the next. It did not go to Lake Drummond, it is true, which is three miles distant from the canal at its nearest point, but by degrees it dawned upon the skipper that a small boat might perhaps be obtained at a place he called Dukeses Wharf to complete the connection. The only question was, as the day waned, where I was to be left over night; but we all took the chances on that in the end, and I remained aboard.

The adventures of the long day until the hour of sailing, if set down, would be of the same kind as those in Howells's "A Day's Pleasure." Hope was crushed to earth with the coming of every man not a tatterdemalion, coal-black negro down the wharf, and rose again with his successor. Having no standard of comparison, it was difficult to tell what a Norfolk inspector would be like. We dined on board, and the excellence of the cookery is really worth remarking upon. The good Virginia beef, boiled ham, sweet potatoes, and corn bread, supplied by our grotesque negro cook in his white cap, were of a quality which is by no means surpassed as a rule in the hotels of this section, even at Richmond. We studied the cut and equipment of our boat. She was a double-decker of forty-seven tons burden. She was preposterously high and narrow, being limited as to width by the exigencies of the canal. Her speed was also limited, we found, to four miles an hour, for fear of washing out the canal banks. At length the inspector, a taciturn man with a broad back and a thick lead-pencil, which he often moistened in his mouth, was discovered to have been some time on board, and to be nearly through his labors. Nothing now remained to be secured but the signature of another inspector in another part of the town. This was done within an hour and a half, and we were off.

The canal makes out of the western branch of the Elizabeth River, due south of Norfolk. We steamed past a comfortable-looking marine hospital, backed by a tall grove of pine trees, then past the famous Gosport Navy-yard, evacuated and burned by our own forces a week after the attack on Sumter. General Mahone, since prominent in modern Virginia politics, was at the time President of the Petersburg Railroad. He ran empty trains up and down all night on his road, making the locomotives whistle and scream to the top of their capacity, with the object—in which he succeeded—of making the Union troops believe that the Rebels were mustering in force and thus causing them to leave their work incomplete. At the entrance lock an extremely ragged old negro, the "Uncle Snow" of the minstrel companies, slowly raised the gates for us. The water which came rushing out of them was, underneath the foam, of the color of port. Taken out in a glass it is of a rich amber tone. It is known as "juniper water," and is, as we had found at dinner, the favorite beverage of the section. It is supposed to be strongly impregnated from the juniper trees around the bases of which it flows, and to contain also sarsa-

parilla. An enterprising person is said to have lately begun bottling it for the New York market. It is certain that it contains plenty of vegetable mould of some kind, and that it appears to do the inhabitants no great harm.

On entering the canal there is no overarching of dark foliage with funereal moss depending from it, as might have been expected. On the contrary, at the left there is a considerable dry wide space with a good road upon it, bare of vegetation other than grass and weeds, and interspersed with corn-fields. On the right is a straggling expanse of forest bushes, vines, and reeds; the black gum, now denuded of its foliage, and numerous other trees blasted by fire, jutting out in a mournful way from the green. There are no snakes, no alligators, and few glimpses even of stagnant pools. Surprise continues to grow at the civilized appearance of things. One begins to doubt the existence of a swamp at all. The Great Dismal Swamp has in fact been much reduced in extent. It contains, strange as it may seem, some of the best farming land in either State; a railroad runs across a portion of it, and it is perhaps on its way to final extinction. Still, when one looks out at the impenetrable tangle on shore and learns that he might flounder through it for ten or fifteen miles before striking real terra firma, it is dismal enough. It was a certain Colonel Byrd, it seems, to whom was assigned the task of running a survey across it as far back as the year 1727, and was able to make but a mile a day in his journey, who gave it its name. It covers an extent of about twenty-five miles by twelve. Lake Drummond, in its centre —a sheet of water more than five miles long and three wide, though often estimated of much larger dimensions—is at the top of a knoll higher than any part of the surrounding area. By exhausting this lake, therefore, the swamp could be drained. It is more profitable, however, in its present condition. The great industry of the Swamp is lumbering. It is penetrated by small ditches, in connection with the larger canals, and by rude tram-roads, which haul the juniper, holly, and cypress logs down to be sawed up into shingles, railroad ties, fencing, and telegraph posts by mills conveniently placed. The lumbermen engaged in this work cluster together in temporary huts. If there be other residents of the swamp, successors to the fugitive slaves of whom it used once to be full, they are very few. The real dwellers in it are said never to die, but to dry up, or to be preserved from decay at least by their forests, like clothing contained in a juniper chest.

I had many of these details from a most courteous and kindly old gentleman of the old school. He was going down, with his small family and an orphan girl whom he had had bound out to him from the asylum, to his place at South Mills, on the canal, which he described as a pleasant and thriving village. Before the war he had been the owner of a hundred slaves. He had met no less than six of them employed as waiters at the hotel where we had just been stopping. The elders among them still call him Master, and all pay an extra attention to his wants. He complained of the difficulty of getting labor and of the poor quality of it.

"The young generation," he said, "will not work steadily. They cannot be depended upon. It is all politics, religion, and frolic with them. Their religion has no effect in making them conscientious and reliable. They are the greatest politicians the world ever saw. The only way to get work out of them is to find some old man with a slave bringing-up who has some boys, give him a piece of land and look after him, and he will manage to keep the boys at it."

He was a colonel—that goes without saying The only wonder was, that with a presence of such dignity and an experience of many years, as it appeared, in the North Carolina Legislature, he should not have risen to the grade of general. This was accounted for by the fact that he was one of the few to foresee the horrors of the war and to speak against secession to the last moment, though he ultimately joined the movement. Though a patriotic Confederate when once the die was cast, Jefferson Davis, his President, bearing this in mind, obstinately refused to advance him to higher posts, which I have no doubt he merited.

I did not proceed far enough to see South Mills, but there was another witness on board to testify that it was a place of attractions. This was a young lady who was addressed after the Southern fashion as, let us say, Miz Molly. She was a minister's daughter and had been to Norfolk to attend conference. South Mills, she said, had 250 inhabitants. It was a social, lively place, and she preferred it to any other in the world. Three other girls had come down early in the morning to see her off, but their patience had been exhausted by the inspector. "I am awfully glad to get rid of yo' all," Miss Molly had screamed after them as they went away. Her manners were good, those of the Colonel's lady were even better, and their local accent certainly very agreeable. In short, they were not at all the kind of persons one would naturally expect to describe as his fellow-travellers into the benighted Dismal Swamp. Miss Molly gave me, unsolicited, her opinion of the negro question, and I was not imprudent enough to argue it with her. "I do despise a negro," she said, "more than 'most anything in this world, I reckon. I got no use for 'em anyhow. If one of 'em was to sit down at the same table with me, I'd get up and go hungry. The teacher down our way is almost white, and she's a graduate of Rahleigh College. It don't make any difference. No money would hire me to do it. I'd get up and go hungry."

We passed the village and locks of Deep Creek. Some years ago, when shingles were made by hand, Deep Creek was a flourishing, ambitious settlement, full of money, which was gambled away in great sums at a sitting. Now that the machine has usurped the place of hand labor and its principal industry gone elsewhere, it is a mere knot of houses and a shabby store and bar-room or two, with their shutters principally up. Roper, a Northern man, come in since the war, is doing a prosperous business in cutting up shingles and staves for juniper buckets—"Every clip a shingle," commented our skipper in admiration, as the sharp broken song of the saws rang out upon the air.

The sun set red over the dark forest. Some scattering negro huts with a few cornstalks around them, and a negro with an axe returning from the forest, were seen. Then the perfect full moon came up. The tall narrow *Thomas Newton* plodded steadily onward her four miles an hour, displacing a great deal of water, which rushed backward in a surf-like wave on each side, yet so discreetly as not to harm the banks of the canal. What with natural scenery, and the counsels of the skipper, the Colonel, Miss Molly, and others upon my new situation, it seemed all too soon when eight o'clock arrived and I was set ashore. It had been determined that I had better be left at "Wallace's," a mile this side of Duke's Wharf. At Wallace's accordingly, in the heart of the Great Dismal Swamp, of a bright moonlight night, I was left. There were several of the name, the most well-to-do family in all the section round about, and their white farm-houses, granaries, store, and saw-mill could be seen clustered near together. I made a bargain with a negro boy to have a row-boat ready for me at seven in the morning, to take me to the Feeder, as it is called, and so up into Lake Drummond. It should be explained that Lake Drummond through this feeder furnishes the main water supply for the canal. In the house were found refined and hospitable people, children who had been sent away from home to be educated, the magazines and other good reading matter.

I was awakened out of a sound sleep by a loud knocking at the door below. It was not yet daybreak, and the air was very raw and chilly. I made sure that it was my attendant come to announce the boat as in readiness. It seemed a dismal swamp indeed that required the getting out of bed at that hour to penetrate to its dark lake. Fortunately this proved a false alarm; it was but little past midnight, in fact, and the boatman, with the promptitude of his race, did not arrive till a good hour and a half after the appointed time, when the sun was high and genial in the heavens. His name was David Taylor. He had brought a ponderous old yawl, with a pole and a bit of broken oar as means of propulsion. He at first undertook to scull the boat, while I walked briskly along the tow-path for the exercise, but he made at the rate of hardly more than a mile in two days. Then I took a rope from the bow over my shoulder with the design of pulling him on while he kept the boat off in the stream. This proceeding appeared to impress David Taylor by its vigor, and he inquired if I was not from the North. He was not able to keep the craft from running at every moment into the bushes. This would never do, as I wished to return by noon, in order to get back to Norfolk at night. By my order he abandoned the yawl, and we hurried on to Duke's Wharf, where we were fortunate enough to secure a light skiff with two pairs of oars. Duke's Wharf is simply a store and shipping point for lumber kept by one Duke.

The narrow little feeder, of about the dimensions of a good irrigation canal on the Pacific Slope, was entered soon after this. The wind sprang up dead against us, but the vegetation shielded us from it in the main. There were no great gloomy trees here more than before, but the reeds, vines, and underbrush constituted a maze that seemed hopeless to penetrate. Bunches of gall-berries and the red seed berries of the wild rose were prominent in front. In summer there are said to be plenty of moccasin snakes. When there is a fire in the woods it drives them out, with bears and other denizens of the thickets, in great numbers. Such fires are not infrequent, and they often take a hold that is unknown elsewhere, burning into the very vitals of the ground. There are in places deposits of dry vegetable matter ten and twelve feet deep before any soil is arrived at, and this constitutes inflammable material. It is thought by some that the bed of Lake Drummond itself may have been formed in this way, a vast hole having been burned at the summit of the knoll, and afterward filled by the springs. Through the fires and constant lumbering of a hundred years the great primitive junipers have been destroyed. Those now sought, though of good size, are of hardly more than twelve years' growth. Washington was the owner of a large body of lands in the Swamp, and recommended the cutting of the canal, which was one of the earliest works of its kind in our country. It was navigated in small boats, and shingles and lumber got out to go to the West Indies, before the close of the last century. The latest locks, of the improved and widened system, were put in about 1831. It fell into difficulties of one sort and another after the war, and a work which had cost more than $1,000,000 was sold for $275,000. It is now in the hands of a management which seems able to draw from the transport of the cotton, garden truck,

and other matters, in addition to lumber, which pass up and down on it, a shrewd profit.

We met with some large lumber barges, or lighters, empty and full, going to or returning from a principal camp on the far side of Lake Drummond. The negroes on them seemed of a wilder, more essentially Ethiopian sort than those we are accustomed to at the North. Those having the empty barges in charge propelled them by walking on the slight, swampy tow-path and throwing their weight in a picturesque way on long poles attached to thole-pins on the sides. At a final lock near the lake lived a lonely, spiritless gate-keeper, in a house which had been carried down by the weight of its brick chimney into the spongy ground, and imitated in its poor way the leaning tower of Pisa. By it stood a persimmon tree hanging full of over-ripe fruit, which made the eyes of David Taylor sparkle.

"If it was me," he said in a tone of regret at such shiftless waste, "I would have me some good beer out of it befo' Christmas." "Beer out of persimmons?" "Yes; you get you a good barrel—a flour or cider barrel—put in plenty o' persimmons; then you put you in your water, plenty o' water; then let stand, then I reckon you put you in a little mo' water. In 'bout fo' six weeks you got you some right smart good beer."

The three miles up the narrow feeder, with the wind and current against us, had seemed interminable, but it was over. Beyond the lock was a charming reach of quieter wide canal. It was completely overarched, and the sunshine struck through the foliage, mellowed by the tints of autumn, making a most genial golden-green bower of it. But now was seen a striking and mysterious spectacle. The wind, which was shorn of force in this quiet bower, was driving up the waters of the lake into a powerful surf. The white-capped breakers were running at the edge of the dark blue turbulent expanse in an angry and quite terrifying way. "Better not cross the lake to-day unless you are water-birds!" the lock-keeper had told us, and it was useless indeed to try. We went out a little way, however, till we were pitched and tossed about in lively fashion, and pounded upon one of the stumps hidden like rocks below the surface. Then we made under the lee of a little islet, formed by the knotted roots of a couple of trees growing out of the water, and held fast a while for the view to a tangle of vines twisting about them. If the place were once a haunt of runaway slaves, the condition must have been hard indeed to which this would be preferred. A man might sleep, perchance, by lashing himself securely in among these vines, but he would not have a foot of earth to stand upon. The water is often six feet and more in depth among the trees, but in front of us, amid the dashing waves, rose isolated cypresses, some black, some weather-worn gray, with broad bases, tower-like, with openings between their gnarled roots, and a scanty russet foliage above. Here and there project the fangs of rotted black stumps. The line of distant forest, all around the great expanse, was a line of bare stems taking a faint violet tone in their remoteness across the troubled dark blue. What a *noli me tangere* place! Absolutely not a landing spot in all its margins. It might be a new punishment added to the Inferno to conceive a storm-driven bark seeking haplessly round and round it in search of one.

The return, with everything favoring, was made in very much quicker time. We left our skiff again at Duke's, and I had an opportunity, under the guidance of my hospitable host, of examining the mills and farms by daylight. The whole establishment was like a great piece of Yankee enterprise, and by no means in accord with conventional traditions of the Southern way of doing things. The principal farm building was a real mansion; the smaller, comfortable low cottages, their porches clad with honeysuckle. One would fancy himself among the richest agricultural lands of central New York or the Illinois prairies. Some one thousand acres of land were here under cultivation, carefully drained, and giving a great yield of corn and hay. The raising of hay is a new experiment and has proved very successful. A considerable quantity of rice was also raised, on the dry, instead of the flooded system, as further south, but gave less to the acre, I was told, than at South Mills, nearer Elizabeth City. The land upon which the scattering black gum, useless itself as timber, grows is excellently adapted to agriculture. That which contains juniper, on the other hand, is comparatively worthless when the timber is cut off. Gen. B. F. Butler, whose proceedings in so many ways we have been accustomed to find remarkable, conceived some years ago a notable project with regard to this section. He was a member of Congress at the time, and a bill was introduced to facilitate it. He proposed to make the Dismal Swamp Canal a ship canal, buy up, with the aid of a company, a half mile of land on each side of it, clear it off, and make a truck patch, similar to those about Norfolk, for supplying vegetables to the Northern cities. It was then not too long after the war, and Butler still rested under a peculiar odium from it. He is said to have been jeered at and grievously insulted even by the hackman who drove him out to the site of operations, so that he threw up the project in disgust, and it has never since been revived.

I was driven back to Portsmouth, opposite Norfolk, sixteen miles, in late afternoon, behind a horse whose driver said of him: "I don't reckon there is a more willin' horse anywheres around than this. He'd go till he dropped." And he did indeed show evidences of this peculiar kind of ambition. We passed the sedate *Thomas Newton*, on her return trip, to-day, standing up out of the water like a small light-house, within eight miles, though she had had two hours the start of us. We went over an excellent piece of shell road the last half of the way from Deep Creek. The fields along the way were as green with grass, turnips, and rutabagas as in summer.

W. H. B.

ENGLAND—THE SCHOOL-BOARD ELECTIONS.

LONDON, November 27, 1882.

ONCE in every three years the management of our elementary schools comes up before the people on the occasion of the election of the members to serve on the various School Boards established over England by the Elementary Education Act of 1870. Before that year there was no such thing as public local school administration. Large sums were dispensed by the national exchequer as grants to primary schools, but these schools were private affairs, established by individuals or societies, supported to some extent by their subscriptions, and under state control only in so far as that a Government inspector visited each of them once a year and examined their pupils for the purpose of awarding the grants. The ancient system of local government in parishes and counties had, of course, nothing to do with education. Even at the Reformation it was only by the establishment of endowed schools here and there that anything was done to provide for what we now consider among the first of national needs. For a decade or more before 1870 it had been felt that some general provision of schools for the people was needed; but their establishment was delayed by disputes over what was called "the religious difficulty." A very large number of schools in connection with the Church of England had been set up, partly by private subscriptions, partly by building grants from the state. A considerable number, also founded by subscription with the aid of grants, were in the hands of the Roman Catholics, or of the Wesleyans, or of a powerful association, supported by the Nonconformists, called the British and Foreign School Society. When it was proposed to create public schools under public management everywhere, the friends of denominational schools were up in arms, because they feared the extinction of these existing schools. So also were the clergy of the Established Church and of the Roman Catholic Church, together with the great bulk of the Conservative party, because it was feared that such new schools would have a secular, and therefore an irreligious, character. Was there to be any religious teaching; and if so, what? Could there be any religious teaching except what was definitely denominational? Must not the alternative to such teaching be the total exclusion of the Bible, and would not that be a national misfortune? These were the questions, debated with much earnestness and heat, which impeded the settlement of the question.

However, at last the pressure became too strong to be resisted. The political influence of the Anglican clergy had declined. The Reform Act of 1867 had extended the parliamentary franchise to all rate-paying householders; and Mr. Lowe cried, in words which have become proverbial, "We must educate our masters." Mr. Gladstone's Government carried in 1870 a measure which, though sharply criticised at the time, has been since accepted by all parties as fairly satisfactory. It was to some extent a compromise. It allowed all the existing elementary schools, denominational and others, to subsist, and to receive grants of money from the state as heretofore. But it created also, wherever no adequate provision of primary schools existed, a new local public authority called the School Board, elected by the rate-payers of the district, charged with the duty of establishing primary schools, and empowered to levy a rate on the locality for that purpose. Under this statute a great many School Boards were at once called into existence. In all the larger towns school accommodation was deficient, so that Boards were needed. In country parishes this was less often the case, because the Church of England had been making and made when the act passed considerable effort to provide denominational schools of her own, and so avoid the necessity of the public ones. Still, even in the rural districts, there are a good many School Boards, and the number continues to increase. As respects the so-called religious difficulty, the act of 1870 drew a distinction between School Board schools supported by the rates, and those founded by denominations or individuals, which now usually go by the name of voluntary schools. The former were permitted to give religious instruction, but forbidden to use any catechism, creed, or formulary distinctive of any denomination—*i. e.*, the master might read and explain the Bible and dwell upon any fundamental religious propositions he thought proper, but must do nothing to inculcate the dogmas proper to any one sect, while, of course, any child might at pleasure be withdrawn by its parent from religious instruction altogether. As regards the voluntary schools, they were suffered to retain their denominational character, but in consideration of their continuing to receive an annual grant, it was provided that they should not require any pupil to receive religious instruction if his parent objected. This provision, which goes by the name of the conscience clause, is now, therefore, in force in all state-aided schools.

As the act of 1870 left the voluntary schools on the ground confronting the Board schools, there

was naturally much rivalry between them. The former were the favorites of the Anglican clergy, supported by the Roman Catholic priesthood, the latter of the Radical party, the more extreme section of which had desired to extinguish the voluntary schools altogether and to forbid all religious instruction. Hence, in the first years of the new system the chief question of educational policy which occupied people's minds, and came up at School Board elections, was as to the attitude which School Boards should take up toward voluntary (*i. e.*, denominational) schools. They had no right to extinguish them, but they could practically injure them by starting Board schools in their neighborhood so as to draw away the scholars, and could in other ways interfere with their action. On the other hand, they could also encourage them in a variety of ways which it would take too long to explain. Hence, a considerable difference in the behavior of these new School Boards. In places where, like Birmingham, the Liberal party was in the ascendant, they went on vigorously establishing public schools and almost affecting to ignore the voluntary schools. In such a town as Liverpool, where the Church of England and the Tory party command a majority, the voluntary schools received ample scope and friendly encouragement. This jealousy of the two sets of schools and their respective sympathizers still continues to exist, but in a less pronounced form. Both the extreme clerical and the extreme Liberal party are sensible that neither can gain the ear of the country, which has accepted with satisfaction the middle path indicated by the act of 1870. The denominationalists no longer fear the immediate destruction of their schools. Their opponents see that denominationalism in education is a less formidable influence than they had supposed, and believe that in time it will die out. Nor can there be much doubt that voluntary schools are declining in number, whereas a public school, once established, always holds its ground.

From what I have said, your readers will understand to what extent our School Board elections are fought on party lines. The divisions of educational opinion do not exactly coincide with those of political opinion, but they tend to coincide. A man may be a Liberal yet a denominationalist, or a Conservative and yet (though this is much more rare) in favor of the public-school system. In the main, however, Conservatives support the clergy, and Liberals the extension of School Boards. The chief charge brought against the latter is their cost. Our people have not yet acquired your habit of looking on education as one of the first and most necessary branches of state expenditure, so that there is always some grumbling over the school rate, and many criticisms on the extravagance of School Boards. The denominationalists have always insisted that voluntary schools are far cheaper to the ordinary citizen, because he pays no rate in respect of them, their cost being defrayed partly by subscriptions, partly by fees, partly by the subscriptions of the rich residents. Hence, the Conservatives are in this sphere the party of retrenchment, and while the war cry of the Liberals is "Efficiency," that of the Tories is "Economy." These are the cries that have been most frequently heard during the present electoral contest. The middle classes, and particularly the smaller shopkeepers, feel the pressure of the rates, have no great fondness for education, and as a rule do not send their own children to the rate-supported schools, thinking them somewhat too plebeian. The working classes, on the other hand, are anxious that their children should have the best teaching, and as they pay a much smaller rate, and use the schools themselves for their children, they care less for the expense. Hence, while the shopkeeper clings to the idea of economy, the workingman usually votes for the candidate who promises to make the schools better and have more of them.

Other questions are sometimes mooted, but have less effect upon the result. Such is that of gratuitous education. In our public schools fees are charged, small fees no doubt, ranging generally from two to ten cents per week, but still such fees as the poorest and most unthrifty part of the population declines to pay. It has therefore been found necessary to remit the fees of a certain number of children, and the existence of the charge is made a pretext by many parents for neglecting to send their children to school. A party has, therefore, arisen which seeks to make all public education gratuitous, and which appeals to the example of America as an evidence of the success of that means of bringing all children under instruction, and making the instruction good. The Conservatives resist the proposal because it would destroy the voluntary schools, which could no longer support themselves by fees if their rivals charged nothing. Many Liberals also oppose it on economical grounds, holding that it would make parents value education less than they do now, and relieve them of what is in fact a part of their duty. The question is still in the background of politics, but no one can say when it may come into the foreground. Another point that has been lately canvassed refers to the position of school managers. Every Board school has a small local committee of managers, but while in some towns (Liverpool, for example) the Board allows great power to this committee, in others, as in London, it keeps the control of all its schools in its own hands, and leaves but little to the managers. In this case also the differences of view do not coincide with differences of political opinion.

More important to the successful working of the system than the decision of such questions as the foregoing is the quality of the men who are selected to work it. In small places, where everybody knows everybody else, it is not so hard to choose the best men. But in London, where there is only one School Board for four millions of people, the difficulty is serious. It is surprising that so many good candidates are found, for there is, of course, no salary or other emolument whatever attached to the office —the members even pay out of their own pockets for their five o'clock tea; it does not carry much honor or fame with it; it is, if a member does his duty, extremely laborious, involving attendance not only at the weekly meetings, but at several committees. The prospect of a little power has, however, its attractions for many men and women, while those of a higher stamp find in the office the opportunity of rendering important services to the community. The first London School Board, which sat from 1870 till 1873, contained a good many persons of eminence. At later elections the level sank, though there always remained a sufficiency of able men to do the work in a thorough way. During the present contest a somewhat greater number than usual of good candidates have offered themselves, notwithstanding the serious trouble and expense (amounting, where a candidate stands alone, to from $2,000 to $3,000) which candidature in such vast constituencies as those of the London boroughs involves.

The School Board elections have had an interest for us altogether irrespective of educational affairs as the field in which two experiments have been tried: those of the eligibility of women and of the cumulative vote. In 1870 three ladies stood, and two were returned; and at every succeeding election several have been successful. Seven or eight had seats on the Board which has just expired, and four of these were very prominent members, filling the public eye at least as much as any of the men. I need hardly say that among them there were good and bad members; in fact, with the exception of one, who seems to have raised more opposition than any other member, male or female, they showed just the same merits and the same defects as others. Judicious observers report that if any difference can be discovered between the men and the women, it lies in this, that the women take up personal questions more warmly, and are swayed by feelings of personal aversion more strongly than the men are; but they add that some of the more active women members show a diligence and a mastery of details quite equal to that of the best men. Thus the experiment turns out to have proved only what sensible people predicted, that women can do all kinds of administrative and deliberative work as well as men, but are a little more liable to be led by the keenness of their feelings into more pronounced expressions. It must not be thought that because this criticism is made there is any disposition to discourage female candidates. The services of the better ladies have been sufficient to secure the continuance of a considerable female element on the Board.

The other experiment, that of allowing an elector to accumulate all his votes on one or more of the candidates out of the whole number, has been less successful. It works in this way. If there are five members to be elected, you may give all five votes to A, or three to A and two to B, or two to A and two to B and one to C, or two to A and one each to B, C, and D, or one each to A, B, C, D, and E. The result has been that a candidate supported by a comparatively small section can get in by persuading his friends to cumulate all their votes upon him. Thus a man of no eminence, but favored by one denomination, or faction, or particular local area, secures his seat even though the large majority dislikes him; and the Board, elected after this fashion, is apt to contain too many crotcheteers, or representatives of particular "isms." Hence, when a perverse man gets on the Board, he may defy the censure of his colleagues and the electors generally, so long as his own faction remains faithful to him. From such men several School Boards have suffered, nor is it impossible that this mode of voting may be abolished whenever Parliament has time to return to educational topics.

The result of the elections in London, which has been announced since the above lines were written, tends to confirm this view of the cumulative vote, and shows that the electors are not very careful in marking the services of the best men. One of the most obstructive members of the Board has been returned by a triumphant majority; one of the most capable and industrious has lost his seat, apparently because he relied on his merits, and did not canvass with sufficient vigor. Otherwise these elections leave the balance of parties very much where it was before. The majority, who have pursued in time past what is called the School Board policy of building public schools energetically wherever they were needed, instead of carefully avoiding all interference with existing denominational schools, are the majority still; and the work of the Board will doubtless proceed upon the same lines.

Y.

THE RUINS OF ALEXANDRIA.

ALEXANDRIA, November 18, 1882.

To a resident in Alexandria who left Egypt in May for business or refreshment in England and returned in November, the change in outward things would seem much less than might have been expected. There are the same crowded thoroughfares, the same appearance of active

business, the same intermixture of races, of languages, and of costumes, and the same outward relations between the foreigner and the native. To be sure, the red-coated English soldier is ubiquitous, and whole streets, together with the leading square, are nothing but masses of crumbling ruins. But there is something to compensate even for this. In the square, long rows of really picturesquely-built and gayly-ornamented wooden shops and stores have occupied the spare space within the garden rails surrounding the cultivated portion of the area. These structures (too many of them drink-shops) are decorated with advertisements and the obtrusive display of wares, and thronged in front with venders and customers taking coffee and more mysterious fluids at festive little tables. The bright, or rather dazzling, sun glares down on the scene and prevents a particle of color being lost or overlooked, while it refines even the ruins to a blinding whiteness and renders them almost as picturesque as they are, on a moment's reflection, distressing. Along the side streets, however, where no substituted erections relieve and distract the eye, and where few carriages or passers by are visible, the scene really recalls Livy's graphic description of the *læta mœstitia* and *triste silentium* which hung round the site of Alba after its savage destruction by Rome.

The judicial delays in the matter of compensation account for so little having been done as yet even to clear away the ruins, let alone rebuilding the town. Any proprietor would sacrifice his claim to compensation if he interfered ever so slightly with the débris covering his burnt premises before the official *expertise* which will hereafter be the sole and sufficient evidence of the fact of loss. As to the extent of the loss, of course, no ex-post-facto evidence from without can be worth anything; and it is on this point that the main difficulty in adjusting claims to compensation will arise, and, indeed, is already arising. Of course, where there were fire insurances some check upon fabulous estimates of the amount of loss is forthcoming. It is reported that the smaller claims will be settled first, and this is equitable and wise, because the small loss incurred by small owners is to them out of all proportion in value to the large loss of wealthy capitalists. Without some little money to start with, it is impossible for a returning refugee to set up his little business again, and there is some danger even that money-lenders may be in request and the claims to compensation be trafficked with in an usurious market. The preliminary *expertise* is in all cases a somewhat expensive process, costing £3 sterling at the very least for mere court fees. This initial process is conducted by the machinery of the international courts, but the adjudication upon the claims will be remitted to a Special Commission Court which has not yet been constituted.

The obstacles to a speedy settlement of such matters as these and to the rebuilding of Alexandria are characteristic of the political situation of the country at the present time. In the first place, there are no municipal authorities in Alexandria to undertake the reconstruction of the European portion of the city, which has been almost annihilated. In the second place, the central Government is so weak and dependent on its military supporters that it scarcely ventures to take the initiative in any matter, however pressing, which may financially bind it beyond the very limited reach of time to which the present political prospect extends. A time, however, has been fixed (about a month hence) within which all claims against the Government must be sent in, and in the case of indigent claimants the period for paying judicial fees for an *expertise* can be, on the intervention of their consulate, deferred till the compensation is awarded. So soon as Lord Dufferin has had time to look about him and devise some settled scheme for the administration of Egypt, it may be expected that the Government will feel itself strong enough to entertain some comprehensive plan for the reconstruction of Alexandria. A.

PLON'S 'BENVENUTO CELLINI.'

PARIS, Nov. 22, 1882.

M. PLON is not only a publisher, he is also a writer and a great amateur. He has published 'Thorwaldsen: His Life and Works'; he has written a small volume on the Danish sculptor Bissen; he gives us now a truly magnificent quarto volume on Benvenuto Cellini. The work is really worthy of the great master, from the beauty of its numerous illustrations. M. Plon has not attempted to write a complete biography of the famous Florentine sculptor: have we not the amusing and original 'Vita di Benvenuto Cellini, scritta da lui medesimo'—a book full of lies and boasts, to be sure, of extraordinary confessions, of audacious anecdotes, as romantic as any novel, but bearing in the midst of all its defects the true mark of life, and giving an exact picture of the manners of a time which will always be so interesting to all lovers of art? M. Plon has made it his study to verify the assertions of Cellini, to search in the memoirs of the time whatever could help him to verify or to control them. He has profited by the researches of the Marquis Campori, of Modena; of Bertolotti, of Rome; of Carlo and Gaetano Milanesi, of Florence; of the Marquis de Laborde, of Paris. This work of control and of criticism has been but the beginning of his difficult task; he has been struck by the small number of the really authentic works of Cellini, and at the same time by the immense number of works which are attributed to him. He has therefore made two catalogues, one of the works the authenticity of which he is able to prove from the memoirs of Cellini, by letters, even by inventories, receipts, etc.; he has placed in a second catalogue all the works which are still attributed to Cellini, but which nothing proves to have been his work except their style and their intrinsic beauty; and, in order to help the reader to form an opinion, he has given reproductions of many of these interesting works.

Benvenuto Cellini was born in Florence, on November 1, 1500, in a house on the Via Chiara di San Lorenzo. His father was an architect and a musician. He learned the trade of jeweller with Michelangelo Bandinelli, the father of the famous Baccio Bandinelli. He was very wild and undisciplined, and did not stay long in the same place; he went to Sienna, to Bologna, to Pisa, and always quarrelled with everybody. He felt a great enthusiasm for Michael Angelo, who was twenty-six years older than himself, and who already competed with Leonardo da Vinci. These two famous men represented the taking of Pisa by the Florentines for the Palace of the Signoria. "As long as they existed, these two cartoons," says Benvenuto in his passionate style, "they were the school of the world; and though the divine Michael Angelo afterward built the chapel of Pope Julius, he never approached even half the value of this work, and his genius never found again the vigor of these first studies." Surely, nothing can be finer than the group of soldiers bathing in the Arno. Benvenuto always looked upon Michael Angelo as his great master and inspirer. (The two famous cartoons of the battle of Pisa were destroyed during some civic commotions.)

Benvenuto went on foot to Rome, with one of his friends, at the age of nineteen, and his career is divisible from that time into three parts: first, the time spent in Rome under Clement VII. and Paul III., from 1523 to 1540; secondly, the time spent at the court of Francis I. in France, from 1540 to 1544; then his return to Florence, under Cosmo, where he remained till he died, in 1571. In Rome he was chiefly a jeweller; he became a sculptor in France; and he attained in Florence the highest degree of the noble art of sculpture, though he always kept amusing himself, so to speak, with artistic jewelry.

Everybody knows the part which Benvenuto took in the defence of Rome, when it was attacked by the Constable de Bourbon. He does not boast in his memoirs of having killed the Constable, as is generally said; he only tells us how, with some of his friends, he fired into a group which was very ardent in the attack, and how afterwards the besieging army fell into a great confusion. Rome was taken by storm, notwithstanding the death of Bourbon, and completely sacked. Benvenuto had taken refuge in the Castle of Saint Angelo, along with the Pope, and he took a great delight in becoming there an expert artilleryman. All the researches of M. Plon tend to confirm rather than to invalidate the accounts which Benvenuto gives of his actions. He was of a very fiery character, and did not stop at murder: he killed with his own hand one of the Roman police who had killed his brother. The Pope pardoned him, for he would not deprive himself of such an artist. It was not, alas! his only murder: he used his sword and his stiletto as freely as the too's of his trade. M. Plon enters into very minute details as to the murder of a certain Pompeo, and shows by what circumstance Cellini escaped the punishment which he deserved. It is more agreeable to turn from the man to the artist, though even in his artistic works there always remains a certain sort of violence. The famous "Perseus" may be considered as the finest expression of violence in art.

When he came to France, Francis I. gave him permission to establish his studio in the Petit Nesle, a castle which was on the left bank of the Seine, on the spot where the palace of the Institute now stands. The Pont Neuf did not exist at the time, and it was not always safe to cross the river in the night. Cellini lived there in great style, receiving many pupils and entertaining his compatriots. Francis I. often paid him visits; he employed him for the embellishment of his dear Fontainebleau. Cellini became naturally a rival of Primaticcio; and as the favorite Madame d'Étampes favored his rival, he became disgusted with his French service and returned to Italy. He settled in Florence, and Cosmo immediately gave him a house for his studio and his workshops. In Florence he soon quarrelled with his old enemy Baccio Bandinelli. This artist could not bear the idea that Cellini should have undertaken to become from a mere jeweller a sculptor, and that a man who made medals and figurines should try his hand at giants and colossal statues. The Duke Cosmo had given to Cellini an order for the "Perseus and Medusa," which was to stand before the famous Loggia. One day, in the presence of Cosmo, Cellini said to Baccio, "You had better provide for yourself another world, for I will suppress you in this one." Baccio answered: "Tell me one day before, so that I may confess and make my will and not die like a brute, like you." The Duke reconciled them for the moment by ordering them both to make his bust.

The "Perseus" is certainly one of the most extraordinary and most beautiful statues of modern times. If nothing was left of Florence but this work of Benvenuto, it would give an idea of what Florence was under the golden days of the Renaissance, as a fragment of a marble gives us an insight into the Hellenic civilization. In the

"Perseus" you have a specimen of an art which has borrowed from the old models their idealism, their expression of the pure beauty of humanity; and yet with it there is a movement, a force, a passionate agitation which marks a more intense life than what is found in the calm and almost dreamy gods of antiquity. "Perseus" has an almost savage movement; he looks defiant; he shows proudly the bloody head of Medusa in one hand, and in the other he holds his sword horizontally, as if his hand was not tired, but ready, and almost impatient, to strike again. He stamps on the convulsed Medusa. This is the general impression, but when you begin to look at the details it seems as if your eye could never be tired. Here, in the multitude of things, you find the jeweller. The pedestal is a world in itself; it is a shrine of architecture, with its innumerable ornaments, its admirable little statues, and its extraordinary basso-relievo.

The principal works executed at Florence by Cellini are the incomparable "Perseus," the bronze busts of Cosmo and of Bindo Altoviti, the marble bust of the Duchess Eleonora, the restoration of the Ganymede, the group of Apollo and Hyacinth, the statue of Narcissus, the models of the colossal Neptune, and the marble crucifix which Cellini intended to be placed over his own tomb in Saint Maria Novella, but which is now in the Escurial. Florence still possesses the "Perseus," with the little model of this great work, the magnificent bronze of Cosmo, and the Ganymede. The crucifix was presented to Philip II. by the son of Cosmo. During twenty-five years spent at the Court of Cosmo, Cellini never ceased to work as a sculptor and as a jeweller; the number of jewels, gold and silver plates, and vases which he executed, with the help of his pupils, must be very large indeed; but some of them have been lost, and many cannot be authenticated.

M. Plon has a chapter on the private life of Cellini. His violence, his irascibility, did not fit him for a quiet life. His models, who were chosen solely on account of their beauty, invariably became his mistresses, and it is painful to say that he ill-treated them in the most brutal manner. He was constantly quarrelling with his employers about the payment for his works. When he became old, he was so tired of his life that he thought of taking orders. There is a note in his handwriting, dated June 2, 1558: "Remember that I, Benvenuto Cellini, have taken the tonsure—that is to say, the first order of priesthood—from the hands of the Most Reverend Monsignor de' Serristori, in his house at Borgo Santa Croce, with all the accustomed ceremonies." But after this memorandum comes a note: "In 1560, having a desire to have legitimate children, though secret, I asked to be relieved of these vows, and I recovered my liberty." The Dorothea who had been his model when he made the "Perseus," had two children; he adopted one of them, and assured to him, in his will of December 3, 1560, a sum of 1,000 gold *écus*, which the young man was to receive when eighteen years old, but on condition that he should make himself a sculptor. The year after, he had another son by a model called Piera; he educated him with care, but lost him. Piera gave him a daughter, and finally he married her; he had afterward three more children by her. His adopted son gave him no satisfaction; he quarrelled with him, and the act of adoption was annulled.

When Michael Angelo died, Cellini was one of the four artists chosen by Florence to attend his funeral, which took place in the church of the Medici family, San Lorenzo, a church which Michael Angelo has made more famous than the Medici could have done. Vasari has given an elaborate description of the ceremony. Benvenuto found himself ill on the appointed day, and was wanting in the gorgeous cortège; he suffered from the gout. He kept changing his will during his last years, almost to the eve of his death, which took place on February 14, 1571. He died in the house which is now numbered 59 in the Via Pergola. He had not been allowed to make his tomb in Santa Maria Novella, and he was buried in the convent of the Servi della Nunziata. Like all the artists of the Renaissance, Cellini was a writer; he wrote sonnets, but his immortal work will always be his 'Vita'; for, with all its defects, its insane pride, its lies, it gives the most vivid picture of what might be called the fermentation of the Renaissance; it has the charm of naïveté, if not of sincerity.

Correspondence.

THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since my name has been dragged into the matter, allow me to correct the singularly erroneous and even distorted statements respecting the Naval Observatory, by your correspondent "T. N.," in the last number of the *Nation*.

The professors have no power to turn away young men from the Observatory; this rests alone with the Secretary of the Navy. And, as a matter of fact, no young man has been turned away. All whose names are mentioned by "T. N." have left of their own accord, being attracted elsewhere by more lucrative and conspicuous positions. When I say that one had his salary nearly trebled, all will understand that he needed no more urgent inducement to leave.

Although it is not possible to gauge the innermost thoughts of men, yet, certainly, the professors have small cause to be jealous or envious of the other classes of men attached to the Observatory. Has a gold medal been awarded to anybody at the Observatory, it has always been a professor who received it; has a man been elected as an honorary member of a foreign society, or even into our own National Academy of Sciences, it has still been a professor who obtained the honor. How utterly absurd is the imputation of jealousy or envy to the professors, in regard to the assistants, may be gathered from an incident which fell under my own observation, and which I may be pardoned for relating. One of the assistants whom "T. N." mentions, during his whole stay here, made one of the family of a professor, receiving from the latter almost daily instruction in mathematics; and the relations between them could have been hardly more cordial and affectionate had they been father and son.

It was not Secretary Hunt who ordered the board of examiners mentioned by "T. N.," but Secretary Goff; and the examination occurred during the secretaryship of the latter; but the Hayes Administration coming to its close in the interim, the report was made to Mr. Hunt. It is strange that the existence of this report should be doubted by "T. N.," since the House of Representatives called for it last spring, and it has appeared in print as a House document. The epithet "freeze out," applied to the examination, is calculated to mislead the public as to its true character. Two days out of the five were devoted to astronomy, one to theoretical, the other to practical. The conduct of the whole examination was eminently just and fair; and, that none may say I speak in praise of it because I was successful at it, I may add that two of the unsuccessful candidates have, in my hearing, admitted that it was so.

Nothing can be further from the truth than the statement that, after the examination was over, the members of the Board discouraged the appointment of the two men who passed. On the contrary, it is within my knowledge that one of them, at least, urged upon the Secretary, in the strongest manner, at the last moment, the desirability of appointing these men. But Mr. Hunt chose rather to be guided by the advice of certain line-officers who had a personal interest in promoting the gentlemen at Annapolis; and the result is what we now see.

The statement by "T. N.," that a bill was passed by Congress authorizing the appointments that were actually made, is a mistake, for at the time the Senate alone was in session, for the purpose of confirming President Garfield's nominations. Hence, the course of the Secretary was to send in the nominations on the last day of the session, and they were duly confirmed, subject to an examination, which examination was conducted by a wholly new board, composed of professors having no connection with the Observatory.

The order of Mr. Hunt, that the two appointees should not be examined in mathematics, must be regarded as a naïve confession on his part that it was a solecism to dub these gentlemen professors of mathematics.

Very respectfully, G. W. Hill.

Nautical Almanac Office, Washington, D. C., December 4, 1882.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to your editorial of the 9th ultimo, on the revolution which is taking place in the Naval Observatory, at Washington, as well as to the communication of "T. N." which appeared in your issue of November 30, together with your comments thereon. Your words were well-timed and just. It is hardly to be supposed that men whose training is intended primarily to fit them for sailors could, with no other preparation, take charge of an astronomical institution and accomplish scientific results worthy of consideration.

"T. N." is mistaken in supposing that "there are no persons other than line officers in the Navy to take charge of the instruments." On the other hand, I am reliably informed that it is actually proposed to *dismiss all the civilian astronomers except one* as one of the steps toward transforming the Observatory into a pleasant asylum for line officers on shore duty.

While the astronomical force at the Observatory is not as great as it ought to be, it is not right to suppose that Professors Hall and Eastman are the only experienced observers there. It is hardly just, for instance, to speak of Professor Frisby, who has seen nearly fifteen years of faithful service at the Naval Observatory, as "a new man," "with comparatively little experience as an observer." It must be remembered, too, that besides the professors of mathematics there are also the civilian astronomers already mentioned, all of whom are trained men and some of them of many years' experience.

Replies to the remaining points in "T. N.'s" communication are unnecessary, as they do not touch the question at issue. It would not be difficult, however, to show that the "narrow selfish policy" attributed to the professors is greatly exaggerated, and that the story of the filling of the two vacancies for which Messrs. Hill and Johnson were candidates, as told by "T. N.," places the Observatory professors in a totally false light.

The real question, as you say, is not what the professors want, nor what the line officers want, but what is best for the proper conduct of a Government institution which has contributed

so much to the scientific reputation of our country.

In the light of present and past experience, the first thing to do is to pass a law that shall take the Observatory out of the hands of the Navy, place it where its scientific interests will be properly protected, and require that the Superintendent shall be an astronomer of acknowledged ability and experience.

Very respectfully yours, ORMOND STONE.

LEANDER MCCORMICK OBSERVATORY,
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, Dec 7.

THE ORDERS TO THE *MONITOR*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of November 30, Rear-Admiral John Marston, U. S. N., the senior naval officer at Hampton Roads at the time of the battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* in 1862, calls in question the statement made by me, in a communication published in the *Nation* of November 2, that "Lieutenant Worden acted on his own responsibility in going up to attack the *Merrimac*, for it does not appear that he received any orders, either from Washington or from his superior at Hampton Roads."

In refutation of this, Admiral Marston quotes from an article written by him and published in *Harper's Weekly*, January 25, 1879 (which, by the way, I never saw before), in which he says: "I informed Captain Worden that my orders were very positive to send the *Monitor* to Washington, but that I was going to disobey those orders, at the risk of my commission, and send him up to Newport News to look out for the *Merrimac*."

In reply, I will simply say that I was guided in my remark by the following statement:

"I left the Navy-yard on the morning of March 6, and reached Hampton Roads about 9 o'clock P. M. of March 8, and immediately reported in person to Captain Marston, commanding the *Roanoke*, the senior officer there. In my short interview with him nothing was said by him as to any orders he had received from the Navy Department to send the *Monitor* up the Potomac, and I left his ship with the verbal understanding that I was to go to the assistance of the *Minnesota*, then aground off Newport News; which I did immediately on my return to my ship. (Signed) JOHN L. WORDEN,
"Rear-Admiral, U. S. Navy."

While disclaiming any desire to cast a single reflection upon Admiral Marston, I cannot but believe that I was fully justified in drawing from the above the inference which I did.

I remain, very respectfully yours,
JOHN D. CHAMPLIN, JR.

NEW YORK, December 6, 1882.

THE CASE OF HASTINGS GANTT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of the 23d inst. I find that you have stated some things quite at variance with the facts, and most unjust to an honest man—no doubt quite unwittingly. I presume that you have confused names, or have been misinformed, and that you will be glad to be set right and to do justice in the matter.

Mr. Gantt has never left public life, but has been elected duly, and by large majorities, at every election since the overthrow of the Republican party in this State. He was one of the few Republicans in the Legislature of 1876 who were not either expelled from their seats or intimidated into resigning. He was accused of bribery and taken before the Investigating Committee. He was there advised to resign, but he steadily refused to do so, saying he had never taken a bribe nor sold a vote, and defying any one to bring proof that he had done so.

The Hampton Legislature could bring no proof against him when he was tried before that body, and he was allowed to retain his seat, which he has held ever since with the respect of his constituents, white and black.

He has everywhere a good record as regards honesty; he has been in some posts of great responsibility, and has never incurred reproach, nor failed in faithful discharge of duty.

I have known him well for nearly twenty years, and have employed him in business matters of trust and importance, and have found him a man of uprightness.—Very respectfully,

LAURA M. TOWNE,
Chairman Board School Trustees,
St. Helena Island, S. C.

FROGMORE, BEAUFORT CO., S. C.,
Nov. 29, 1882.

[We subjoin two extracts from the 'Reports and Resolutions of the South Carolina Legislature' of 1877:

"Hastings Gantt testifies that he 'voted for the bill and received a paper calling for seventy-five dollars. Solomons wanted him to take groceries for it, which he refused, but discounted the paper at Mrs. Love's store.'

"Hastings Gantt, being further examined, deposes on oath as follows: 'I was a member of the House of Representatives from the county of Beaufort in the year 1872, when the Blue Ridge Scrip Bill and the Validating and Financial Settlement Bills were passed. Mr. Jno. J. Patterson told me, if I would vote for these measures, he would give me $200. After the passage of them, Mr. Niles G. Parker, then State Treasurer, paid me $100, in the Treasurer's back office, for supporting the measure. I did not receive any more.'"

—ED. NATION.]

GIDDINGS'S 'HISTORY OF THE REBELLION.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your very kind review of my little book, the 'Life of Giddings,' has just come to my notice. Will you permit me to say one word as to the 'History of the Rebellion,' my statement concerning which you naturally call in question? This work was prepared by Mr. Giddings during his later years, after the attack of apoplexy which so nearly proved fatal to him. It was, if my memory serves me, upon the press at the time of his death. A critical examination, after that event, led to the discovery of so many inaccuracies—the result, no doubt, of failing mental powers—that his friends deemed it wise to arrest the issue of the edition. Some copies escaped their vigilance, but the work was never really published. The Hon. George W. Julian then intended to revise and correct the History, but has never done so.

Very truly yours, WALTER BUELL.

CLEVELAND, O., December 6, 1882.

[The work has found a lodgment in a number of public libraries.—ED. NATION.]

ANOTHER VIEW OF THE ART TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Why should foreign books be subject to the heavy duty of twenty-five per cent. without a word of remonstrance from the press, while the lighter duty of ten per cent. upon foreign pictures is denounced as illiberal and oppressive? Is it not because our publishers, with their extensive patronage, have an influence beyond the resources of the artists? Why should art be more free than literature? In the civilization of the country literature has been a much more important factor than art, and as one of the most vital ideas of our country is the greatest good to the greatest number, surely the necessities of the people should not be sacrificed to the interests of the publishers. The most instructive foreign books are not usually reprinted, the reprints being mainly of popular novels. Now, if the pictures that are said to be kept out of the country by the present duty could exert as beneficial an influence as the proscribed foreign books, it would be manifestly unjust to continue the tax; but on the contrary such art (?) is positively debasing in its influence, as it prevents an appreciation of all true and worthy work.

The American artists have never objected to the importation of good foreign pictures; but they do object to the trash with which we are deluged by the foreign picture-dealers. When the effort to change the tariff was made the artists asked that the rate of duty should remain as it then existed on all paintings of a less value than $500—above that, the rate to be reduced; but that every painting should pay at least a duty of $50. Pictures that cannot pay such a duty are not likely to be of a quality to benefit any one except the dealers, and the tax would be comparatively nothing on all meritorious works of art, and would become still lighter in the degree of their superior excellence. Our artists would be willing to have the duty entirely removed from good works of art, and have a rate of duty that would be prohibitory imposed only upon the rubbish that is manufactured and imported by the shipload; but such a law would hardly be practicable, as the dealers would then claim that all of their importations were of sufficient merit to pass upon the free-list, and our Custom-house officials are not the best judges of art in the world.

Let us, then, have a specific duty of, say, from $20 to $50 upon every foreign picture imported. The dealers in cheap pictures would be the only persons injured, and the public and the importers of the better class of works of art would be proportionately benefited. The value of works of art is so uncertain, and varies so much with the artist's reputation, the fashion of the moment, the supply and demand, and the general business condition of the country, that no *ad valorem* duty can be imposed that will not be successfully evaded by the dealers, who think it no sin to get the better of Uncle Sam. In the case of the exhibition of Alma Tadema's pictures, to which reference was made in the *Evening Post* of Saturday by a correspondent, of course the Custom-house regulations bore hardly. Such a case does not often occur, and it would be easy to make a proper and accommodating change in the laws without jeopardizing the art interests of the whole people by an indiscriminate removal of the duties upon all art works.

AMERICAN ARTIST.

NEW YORK, December 9, 1882.

[Yes, but the American artists have never told us who was to judge whether a foreign picture was good enough to be imported or not, or who was to point out to us what was "trash" and what was not. The test our correspondent proposes—the money price—is obviously an unfair and unfit one. The highest-priced pictures are not, as everybody knows, always the best ones. The prices of pictures are, more than the prices of anything else, fancy prices. The larger ones are too often paid by persons whose art judgment is absolutely worthless, and who buy because they have more money than they know what to do with, and desire to have the works of the fashionable painters of the day as furniture. To rate pictures by standards thus created, for the purpose of taxing those to which rich amateurs do not take a fancy, or in which they have discovered no excellence, would be preposterous. The dealers in cheap foreign pictures are, from the artistic point of

view, just as respectable a body of persons as the dealers in cheap American pictures; no better, but no worse. And cheap foreign pictures do no more harm to art than cheap American pictures, if so much. If they are to be taxed at the Custom-house in the interest of the beautiful, then the internal-revenue collector ought to be let loose on the unknown American artist, and he ought to pay $50 to the Treasury for every poor picture he publicly exposes for sale, and $100 for every picture so exposed which, in three months, say, finds no purchaser. If we are going to elevate the artistic taste of the American people through protective taxation, let us do it thoroughly. And, by the by, why has an American who cannot afford dear pictures not a right to purchase cheap and bad ones if he pleases, without consulting the artists whose pictures he does not want to buy? Is not the very proposal to fine him for taking such a liberty what Mr. Squeers called "richness"?—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Specimen sheets of Poole's 'Index to Periodical Literature,' third edition, brought down to January, 1882, are now being sent out by J. R. Osgood & Co., who expect to produce the work complete during the present month. It is well to recall the fact that the two previous editions of 1848 and 1852 are embodied in the one now on the press, and that the alphabetical key is thus offered to no fewer than 240 different periodicals, or 6,205 volumes. It is announced that supplements to this Index will be issued in the same style at stated periods.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. issue this week the 'Life of Ole Bull,' by his wife; 'J. Fenimore Cooper,' by Prof. T. R. Lounsbury; J. W. Mollett's 'Illustrated Dictionary of Words used in Art and Archæology,' an English work; Mr. W. H. Bishop's 'House of a Merchant Prince'; Prof. Anderson's translation of Björnson's 'Magnhild'; and two volumes of poetry: 'Monte Rosa,' by Starr H. Nichols, and 'The Hill of Stones,' by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell.

Funk & Wagnalls have in press Meyer's 'Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Acts of the Apostles,' edited by Dr. William Ormiston.

Mr. R. H. Stoddard has edited the 'Mrs. Browning's Birthday Book' just brought out by James Miller. The chief novelty we remark is that death-dates of eminent persons are noted in addition to the usual birth-dates.

Lee & Shepard have reduced from the rank of books to that of Christmas cards the several poems illustrated for the holiday season by Miss L. B. Humphrey during the past six or eight years. The list includes 'Home, Sweet Home,' 'Ring out, Wild Bells,' 'Nearer, My God, to Thee,' 'Rock of Ages,' 'He Giveth His Beloved Sleep,' 'Abide with Me,' 'O Why should the Spirit of Mortal be Proud?' and 'The Breaking Waves Dashed High.' Each poem has a special illuminated cardboard cover, described as "golden floral, flexible, fringed, gilt edges," and is enclosed in an envelope. In this form there is no reason why the series should not take a new lease of life.

Longfellow's 'Flower de Luce' has been similarly got up by S. E. Cassino, Boston, except that the poem is given in facsimile of the author's MS., and that the illustrations are in color by the deft hand of Mr. Isaac Sprague. A further curiosity is the printing in ordinary type of the two states of the poem, between which any one may choose for himself.

The "æsthetic" devices of tradesmen to attract attention are usually so odious that one is ready to forget the advertising purpose of so pretty, well-chosen, and well-printed a budget of verse as the 'Paradise of Daintie Devices—A Collection of Poems, Songs and Ballads,' distributed by Charles Pratt & Co. The typography and presswork are by Francis Hart & Co.

A facsimile reprint of the rarer kind, in which types for which special punches have been made are used, has been very successfully carried out by T. Fisher Unwin, 17 Holborn Viaduct, London (New York: Scribner & Welford). The copy of George Herbert's 'Temple,' in the British Museum, dating from 1633, has been closely followed in every particular, even to the color of the paper and the binding. The result is highly illusory. The first edition of this reprint was made in 1876. For the present one, the author of 'John Inglesant' has been induced to furnish a preface, and it cannot be said that he underrates the influence of the ritual on the welfare of mankind, or the products of the Church of England—"a culture unequalled in the world beside"; "families—generation after generation—which no other country, and no other class in this country, ever saw."

One of the cleverest mystifications we have ever seen comes to us from the house of Felix Bagel, Düsseldorf (New York: Westermann). A droll artist, C. M. Seyppel, has versified and pictorially illustrated Herodotus's story of King Rhampsinitus and his treasure-house, with such poetic license as not only heightens the fun, but makes the narrative unobjectionable. There is a skilful adherence to the Egypt of the monuments in costume, figure-drawing, symbolism, etc., and at first blush one would readily take the book for what it purports to be—an "ausgegrabenes Buch," the very one dug up by a German archæologist who accompanied Wolseley's late expedition against Arabi Pasha. To carry out the illusion that this is a *unicum*, and has been really buried under ground, the leaves are stained, torn, discolored, soiled in the most realistic fashion; and the purchaser can confidently assert that no other copy of 'Schlau, Schläuer, am Schläusten' exactly resembles his. In spite of all the pains spent on this "Ægyptische Humoreske" (which, by the way, though in German, interprets itself graphically to English eyes), the price is not dear.

At the instance of one of our leading artists, the Heliotype Company, of Boston (J. R. Osgood & Co.), have attempted a reproduction of Bastien-Lepage's painting, familiar to New Yorkers, of "Joan of Arc." The task will be at once recognized as very difficult, and apparently the great size of the canvas compelled the taking of the negative in two parts, so that one sees a joint in the print as in a wood-engraving of which the blocks have sprung. Still, the success has been as great, perhaps, as could be expected; the vision being distinct enough, and the Maid—the first and last object of interest—perfectly so, while the values of the background, notably of the trees, are somewhat lost. The memento is worth having, and will give pleasure.

J. W. Bouton sends us heliogravures of Hans Makart's panel paintings, the "Five Senses," which were exhibited and much talked about in Germany some two years ago. Five nude female figures, drawn with much subtlety, more or less directly symbolize the sense ascribed to each respectively. Touch or Feeling (*Gefühl*), naturally the most difficult to represent, is, in fact, obscurely recognizable; but it is one of the loveliest of these remarkable designs. The heliogravures, which have broad margins, measure about 12x3 inches.

Not less than twenty "University Studies in History and Political Science" are enumerated in the prospectus of the Johns Hopkins University issued by Dr. Herbert B. Adams, the editor of the series. Two of these are already in print separately, and procurable of the Publication Agency (N. Murray) of the University; the rest are in hand, or have appeared in periodicals. They relate, save one, to American institutions, and embrace New England, the Middle States, North and South Carolina, Illinois, Michigan, etc. They are of great promise for the future of historical investigation in this country.

An Early Scottish Text Society has been instituted at Edinburgh. Its publishers will be W. Blackwood & Sons.

The second part of Marquardt's 'Privatleben der Römer' has just appeared, completing the work. It is not materially altered from the original work, part 2 of vol. v. of Becker and Marquardt's 'Römische Alterthümer.' There are about forty more pages, but the original order and arrangement are closely adhered to. A marked improvement is in the Table of Contents, in which every heading is given with exactness, so that it is easy for any person to find whatever subject he is in search of. The topics treated in this division are food, clothing, house, and furniture; professions, education, and sports. This finishes, we suppose, Marquardt's part of the Mommsen and Marquardt's 'Römische Alterthümer' (of which it composes vol. vii.). This great work is now complete, with the exception of vol. iii., 'Bürgerschaft und Senat,' by Mommsen; for this, we suppose, we are fated to wait indefinitely—we are only told that it "is in preparation, and will appear by and by (*später*)."

Prof. Nicola Fornelli's excellent work, 'L'Insegnamento Pubblico ai Tempi Nostri,' noticed in No. 904 of the *Nation*, is being translated into French.

Among the latest announcements of Parisian publishers is 'Démocratie, Roman américan.'

The second performance by the Comédie-Française of Victor Hugo's "Le Roi s'amuse," on the fiftieth anniversary of its first performance, has afforded M. Jehan Valter (the name has a most Romantic flavor) an occasion to publish a little book of a hundred and fifty pages devoted to Hugo's play and its history. 'La Première de "Le Roi s'amuse"' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern) contains facsimiles of a letter of Hugo's, and of three rough sketches made by him to illustrate the scenery.

The library of the late Professor Benfey, the distinguished Sanskritist of Göttingen, has been purchased by Mr. O. Harrassowitz, of Leipsic, who will send catalogues of Benfey's books gratis upon application.

Mr. Wm. Goonetilleke, of the Oriental Library, Kandy, Ceylon, proposes to publish Panini's 'Sanskrit Grammar' in the original text, accompanying it with an English translation and commentary. The editor expects to issue it in monthly parts, and to complete it in two years, and in two volumes. The price to subscribers in advance is 12 rupees a volume. This may be remitted by British Indian postal order for 24 shillings to Mr. Goonetilleke; or subscriptions may be made with Trübner & Co., of London.

—Professors John Trowbridge and Rowland have returned from the official Conference of Electricians in Paris to which they were sent by the United States Government. The session continued from October 16 to October 26, but it did not reach positive results, and adjourned to October 1, 1883. It was evident that no agreement is at the moment obtainable in respect to the value of the ohm, and accordingly measures were taken to secure further researches upon this fundamental point. Five promising methods of inquiry were recommended by the Conference,

and it was decided to seek Government aid in the prosecution of the investigation. The Congress also urged continued observation in respect to safeguards against lightning (*paratonnerres*), and more exact efforts to establish an absolute standard for the measurement of light. The conclusions of the Conference may be found succinctly given in the *Revue Scientifique* for November 4, and a list of the delegates in the *Electrical Review* for October 21. Simultaneously with this conference on electrical units, an international conference on the protection of submarine cables was held in Paris, which was attended chiefly by men engaged in the highest stations of telegraphic administration.

—Illinois has made a valuable contribution to the subject of medical education in America—a theme which more and more demands the attention of thoughtful men. The Board of Health in that State has undertaken to find out how many medical colleges in this country are in "good standing," and, with a great amount of well-directed effort, has made up a directory or descriptive catalogue of existing institutions and of those which have been closed. Ninety-nine medical colleges are recognized as in "good standing," five are accepted conditionally, and eighteen are absolutely rejected. It would be worth while to ask how many said to be in "good standing" would be recognized as such in any other civilized country, and how many prescribe any adequate standard of intellectual attainments as a condition for admission to a course in medicine. The utmost that the Board itself ventures to insist on as essential is "a good English education," which is described as including "mathematics" (without saying whether that means the multiplication table or the calculus), "English composition, and elementary physics." The whole record is not creditable to the profession, nor to the promoters of education in this country; but this presentation of the facts, this diagnosis, if we may call it so, which the Illinois Board has given to the press, is an excellent step toward the discovery of a cure for a disorder which has been persistently chronic, but is not irremediable. With this report, by the way, may be read an extraordinary statement, proceeding from Chicago, of the mode in which the "Bellevue Medical College of Massachusetts" (stealing the good name of a college in New York) bestowed its diploma and certificates of attendance upon two courses of lectures on a fictitious applicant, the reporter of a newspaper, who with laughable ingenuity personified an illiterate candidate engaged in medical practice, and wanting "a Diplomey, cheep." The entire correspondence is printed, and is only equalled in the annals of medical education by the detection and punishment of "Doctor" Buchanan, in Philadelphia, some little time ago, likewise by the tact of one of the newspapers.

—One of the most remarkable examples of contemptuous disregard for the public good is the Congressional action that has placed the National Board of Health in a state, practically, of suspended animation. In 1879 this Board was organized by law, in response to vigorous appeals from sanitarians. It was charged with advisory functions in relation to the public health, and with coöperation, so far as was legal, with local boards against the introduction of foreign disease. This latter duty was required by a special law, known as the Quarantine Act, that expires by limitation in 1883. The dual form of government, the jealousy of State authorities, and the extreme repugnance of commercial communities to restrictive measures that affect their particular interests, made protective expedients very difficult to devise and carry out. And, indeed, it is only through local authority that any positive work can be done. Notwithstanding these obstacles, the National Board succeeded in limiting the spread of epidemic diseases without materially interfering with traffic—notably when yellow fever threatened the Mississippi Valley—as had never before been done. In its advisory capacity it set on foot important investigations as to certain preventable diseases, with very encouraging prospects; it practically suppressed the smallpox of immigration that threatened the Northwest; and it accomplished the whole within the moderate appropriations with which it was endowed. But in some way friction, especially with the Louisiana Board, was generated; an undertone of complaint not yet vented in open charges has been heard in New England; objection was made on the floor of the House to agents of the general Government inquiring into the cause of disease; gross misstatements as to its expenditures were announced in Congress; and that body, repenting the good it had done, or forgetful of the past and unmindful of the future, crippled both the resources and the jurisdiction of the Board. Finally, when $100,000 was placed in the President's hands to use against epidemic disease, he made the Marine Hospital Service his agent, and the National Board found constructive insult added to the injury that, as a scientific body, it had already received. It would be strange if a new organization, with such delicate functions, should not have committed some errors; but it is safe to say that a small non-political council that contained such men as Cabell, of the University of Virginia, Bowditch, of Massachusetts, and Bemiss, of Louisiana, could not go far astray in either aim or method.—A preliminary report on the yellow fever in Texas, by the Supervising Surgeon-General of the Marine Hospital Service, shows that a *cordon sanitaire*, extending for several hundred miles, was the particular and effectual means employed to defend the uninfected regions.

—Bohemia, it is said—the Paris Bohemia—is getting civilized. Gavarni and Mürger would hardly recognize their heroes. But a wild idea does occasionally crop out. The painter, Jules Lévy, has organized as an exhibition a Salon des Arts Incohérents—as one might say, of the Arts of Topsyturvydom. The portraits, for instance, instead of the usual sketch of a head, represented the feet alone. If any full length was shown, the subject must have been taken standing on his head. Then there were shown the works of not celebrated artists, but noted authors—very remarkable canvases from the hands of the poet François Coppée, the dramatist Monselet, who exhibited an Ascension, in which at the very top of the paper were the toes of the vanishing Christ, the rest of the field being blank. To crown all, the verdicts of the jury were drawn by lot.

—The Greek Government has finally awakened to the importance of pushing on the excavations at Eleusis. A certain part of the sacred peribolos has been cleared of the huts that obstructed it, the owners receiving compensation from the public treasury, and investigations have been proceeding for some months already under the direction of the Athenian Archæological Society. The results obtained are not as yet of much importance. The ruins of the great Temple, or Megaron, of Demeter and Kora have been laid bare, as have been those of a stoa (in the northeast corner of the peribolos), and, in part, those of a building—perhaps the ancient entrance to the sacred precinct—of which the object has not been fully made out. A few statues, coins, and vases of small value have been found, and about forty inscriptions—among them, two psephisms and a catalogue of objects belonging to the Temple. Most of these inscriptions are more or less mutilated. Among those which are perfect the most interesting is a psephism to the hierophant Chairetios, a Sacred Herald and Eumolpid.

—The New York Chorus Society opened their second season on the 6th instant with a successful performance of Gounod's new oratorio, "The Redemption," which was first produced a few months ago at the Birmingham festival in England, under the composer's personal direction, and subsequently repeated at Bristol and London. The performance at Steinway Hall was the first outside of England, although the work is in preparation in a dozen Continental cities. The hall was full, and the applause after each act genuine and hearty. To be listening to a "sacred" work by Gounod probably appeared paradoxical to many who know him only as the composer of "Faust," "Romeo and Juliet," and a few other operas. But Gounod has always had a natural inclination toward sacred subjects. He studied theology for two years, and barely escaped becoming a priest. Among his earliest compositions were two masses. At Rome he carefully studied Palestrina, and on returning to Paris accepted a position as organist. In one of Fanny Hensel's letters, dated Berlin, 1843, occurs this passage: "We talked much, too, about his own future, and I think I was not wrong in putting oratorio before him as likely to take the first place in music in France. He entered so fully into my views that he set to work at once on the libretto; 'Judith' is the subject he has chosen." These facts show that he has not gone out of his way very far in producing such a work as the "Redemption." We doubt, however, if it will help to secure for oratorio the "first place in music in France" or elsewhere. It suffers from the general fault of all oratorios—the fault of being a hybrid in form: half lyric, half dramatic or quasi-dramatic. To listen to such a work for three hours produces a feeling of monotony which it would take scenery, action, and costume to overcome. A scarcity of ideas is another fault of the "Redemption." It does not contain a single immortal number. The "Creation" prelude, with its weird harmonies, is not equal to the "Faust" prelude; the March to Calvary is far inferior to the "Faust" march; and the same could be said of most of the other parts as compared with corresponding earlier compositions of Gounod's.

—It follows from this that the "Redemption" is not a great work; but it is nevertheless an interesting one, full of fascinating details which repeated hearings will endear to all hearers, and destined to occupy a prominent place in the repertory of chorus societies for years to come. Like Wagner, Gounod has in this case written his own libretto, and he has done so with considerable skill, although with more poetic license than occurs in the texts of the great oratorio composers of the past. The scope of the "Redemption" is thus expressed in his own words: "This work is a lyrical setting forth of the three great facts on which depends the existence of the Christian Church. These facts are: I. The passion and the death of the Saviour. II. His glorious life on earth from his resurrection to his ascension. III. The spread of Christianity in the world through the mission of the Apostles. These three parts of the present trilogy are preceded by a Prologue on the Creation, the Fall of our First Parents, and the promise of a Redeemer." The oratorio was conceived in 1867 and only completed a few years ago, the author having at various times returned to his task, which, when completed, he stamped as "*opus vitæ meæ*." He calls it a

"sacred trilogy," but there is no reason why it should not be called an oratorio, considering how great are the differences between the various kinds of stage plays classed together as "operas." From the older oratorio the "Redemption" differs chiefly by the omission of arias, and the transference of the melody from the vocal parts to the orchestra, which in Gounod's hands often becomes a vivid mass of rich or delicate colors. In these features it is easy to recognize the influence of Wagner; but Gounod has neither Wagner's inexhaustible wealth of *melos*, which is required to sustain the symphonic interest in the orchestra, nor has he in banishing the aria from the oratorio correctly applied Wagner's ideas. An aria is out of place in an opera because it arrests the action; but an oratorio has no action, hence it is the very place where an aria is called for. The declamation indulged in by the soloists would be eminently proper on the operatic stage, whereas on the concert stage it becomes monotonous. The frequent use of chromatic harmonies, as well as passages on pp. 28, 48, 135, etc., of the vocal score, shows that Gounod is familiar with the scores of "Siegfried," "Lohengrin," "Götterdämmerung," and "Carmen." A "typical melody" or leading motive of the Redeemer occurs frequently, but it is always in the same form and not subjected to the rhythmic and harmonic changes of Wagner's leading motives. Several of the choruses, including the chorales, are of great beauty; but in all of them except the last the absence of all attempts at polyphonic writing is noticeable, while in the orchestra it is frequently employed.

—About a year ago Brahms's second pianoforte concerto was for the first time played by the composer himself at one of the Philharmonic concerts in Vienna. It was subsequently incorporated into the repertory of Dr. von Bülow's travelling Meiningen orchestra, with which Bülow made such curious experiments. At one of his concerts, for example, Bülow played Beethoven's Ninth Symphony twice in succession, while at others all the musicians were called upon to play a symphony from memory. Brahms's concerto, too, was presented in an original fashion. First, it was played by Brahms while Bülow conducted, and then Brahms assigned the piano to Bülow, and himself took up the bâton. Such odd but interesting experiments we have to dispense with in this country; but that we have all the requisites for giving a perfect performance of such a work as the new concerto was proved at the Academy of Music on Saturday evening, when it was one of the features of the second Philharmonic concert. The orchestra was in one of its best moods, and by giving due emphasis and expression to each part enabled the hearer to follow readily the details of the very intricate score. Mr. Joseffy, who interpreted the piano part, and who, as usual, was obliged to add a piece of his own after the performance, astonished even his greatest admirers by the manner in which he performed his task. There is in this concerto but little of the light, graceful, and dainty, of which Mr. Joseffy has made a special study: it calls for sustained power, breadth of execution, and deep expression; and all these qualities Mr. Joseffy added to his easy mastery of the enormous difficulties which abound in the score. With pianists who only care to astonish the audience with tricks of virtuosity, the Brahms concerto will never become popular, because in it the piano does not appear as a sort of lyric prima donna, but merely as a component part of the orchestra. A Vienna critic has called it a symphony with piano obbligato; and this title is borne out by the fact that it consists of the four movements of a symphony—a fourth movement, which may be called a scherzo, although it is marked allegro appassionato, having been added to the usual three movements of a concerto. It is, however, the least successful part of the work, recalling the gambols of bears and elephants rather than fairy movements; for Brahms is anything but lively and graceful. The andante can be readily appreciated at a first hearing, and it is only surpassed in beauty of treatment by the final movement, which also contains several of those pregnant ideas which, though not of frequent occurrence, mark the originality of Brahms's genius. Dr. Hanslick, who is Brahms's high-priest, justly says that this concerto is related to the first as his clear, intelligible, and richly-colored second symphony is to the sultry, mysterious first. There is no excess of clearness, however, nor of spontaneity either in the second symphony or the second concerto. Erudition always prevails over imagination, and our feelings are rarely swayed by that irresistible force of genius which characterizes the works of Rubinstein, who will be placed high above Brahms by the verdict of posterity as the champion of absolute music in our period. It is true of all Brahms's works that they improve on closer acquaintance; but it is equally true that in his most inspired compositions—the sextet, one trio, the Rhapsodie, etc.—the beauty does not play at hide-and-seek with the audience, but becomes manifest at a first hearing. The other pieces on the programme, Mozart's "Jupiter" Symphony and Raff's "Im Walde" or Forest Symphony, are too familiar to call for comment.

HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Mr. Charles Yriarte's 'Florence' (Scribner & Welford) will not, we incline to think, be found so readable as his 'Venice,' which appeared in an English translation just three years ago. But no one who owns the earlier work, or the intervening volume on 'Rimini,' will miss adding this to the series, which in its progress southward from city to city reminds one of the triumphant conquests of the Gauls. The superabundance of material and the largeness of his scheme seem to have hampered the author, and reduced him against his will nearly to the condition of a cataloguer. His endeavor, too, to give representations of Florentine works of art either less familiar or absolutely unpictured, has not, we infer, been as successful as he intended. There is a large number of unauthenticated sketchy portraits of artists which can but excite distrust, and even the copies of rare and unique engravings, like the Petrarch portrait, add little to the collector's store. Still, the number of illustrations of all kinds is very great, and the photogravures of sculptured works, particularly of funeral monuments, are a decided accession. So, too, are the curious facsimiles of contemporary engravings of the fêtes attending the nuptials of Bianca Capello. The divisions of the work embrace a specially full account of the Medici family; a short chapter on Florence's lead in the Renaissance; biographical notices of illustrious Florentines, which M. Yriarte considers the most novel feature; a glance at Etruscan art; the architectural monuments of Florence; sculpture, and painting. The volume, in size a quarto, is beautifully printed, solidly bound, and decorated externally in excellent taste.

'The Highways and Byways' of Mr. W. Hamilton Gibson (Harper & Bros.) is a permanent reproduction of articles that have appeared in the publishers' *Magazine*. That is to say, the text is the same, and the illustrations are identical; but the quarto page demanded a more generous letter, and in respect of paper and binding the volume is a worthy companion of the same author's 'Pastoral Days.' Mr. Gibson's designs continue to be as delicate and poetic as hitherto, and some of his landscapes strike us as among his very best. In representations of the wayside tangle of weeds, and of all the neglected forms of humble or mischievous vegetation, he is without a rival. Excellent, too, is the drawing of the surprised old fisherman on the rail fence (p. 88); and the frontispiece of maiden reverie is interesting, even if the girl's figure is a little less robust than so sweet a face deserved. The book is divided into four chapters—"Along the Road," "The Squirrel's Highway," "Across Lots," "Among Our Footprints." All of them proceed from a deep love of nature and an intimate acquaintance with the New England country. The native inhabitants are typically hit off with great fidelity and much humor, and the animal creation of squirrel and bird and creeping thing is comprehended with both artistic and scientific insight. A literary flavor pervades the whole, and gives Mr. Gibson an unquestioned place among New England writers of out-of-doors, if we may coin and be permitted the expression; while his gift with the pencil, which, as we have before intimated, is the higher of the two, makes his position unique.

Mr. W. J. Linton could hardly have rendered his adopted country a greater service than by writing his 'History of Wood Engraving in America,' a labor of love which first saw the light in the *American Art Review*, and is now handsomely brought out by Estes & Lauriat. Mr. Linton both rescues from oblivion the pioneers, with Alexander Anderson at their head, and passes judgment on the "New School" and its representatives, with whom, it is well known, he is not in perfect sympathy. His criticisms, however they may be regarded, have the weight of expertness, and cannot fail of instruction when accompanied, as they often are, by the cuts under review. In a new chapter (ix.), which concludes the work, Mr. Linton extends his criticism, with the aid of several large engravings, including some of his own, and no one can mistake his standpoint or impugn the consistency of his argument. On the whole, we think the critical value of this work, for all who are interested in the art of engraving as amateurs or as practitioners, must be pronounced not inferior to the historical. We should add that the volume is provided with blank pages for the insertion of proofs illustrative of the subject, and that as no plates have been made, the edition (limited to 1,026 copies) is definitive.

In eight chapters and a few more than two hundred pages Mr. George E. Woodberry's 'History of Wood-Engraving' (Harpers) satisfactorily fulfils its purpose. Though some portions of it appeared in *Harper's Magazine*, it is not, strictly speaking, a popular history. It has avowedly a philosophic character, and is not content with a simple presentation of the successive phases of the art; the author's aim being to illustrate the value of wood-engraving as "a fine art practised for its own sake, as a trustworthy contemporary record of popular customs, ideas, and taste, and as an element of considerable power in the advancement of modern civilization." The details which make Jackson and Chatto's 'History' so valuable for reference and so difficult to digest, have been sparingly used by Mr. Woodberry, whether drawing from that or from other sources; and it is quite easy to grasp the lines of progress and the epochs of development and decay as indicated in his brief but orderly review. Like Mr. Linton, he ends with criticism of certain American engravings of recent date, which accompany the text, though, again like the English expert, he concedes that no engraver can be fairly judged without knowing what the draughtsman set before him. The tendency is to exact of the former

a higher artistic capacity than the latter possesses: that he should supplement the defects of the designer—put texture into his vague hints of surface, and bone and muscle into his mushy anatomy, fill his meaningless background with incident, correct his drawing and his perspective—in short, be the real artist, creating and not copying or literally interpreting. It is not hard to see the unreasonableness of this, and we should, in Mr. Woodberry's place, have felt safer in confining ourselves to praise of well-selected examples of the best work of the time. In one or two other particulars, of small importance, we should dissent from his statements or his views; for instance, we think he underrates the best achievements of modern German xylography, while giving as favorable specimens of it two charming woodcuts, to be sure, but a reversion to the facsimile and copperplate mode of engraving whose day is past for our author. The book is very fresh in its illustrations, and the cover is a remarkable success—none more elegant has come to our table this year.

There can be nothing new to say of Doré's illustrations of Dante's 'Inferno,' of which Cassell & Co. send us a new imprint from the plates (4to, pp. 183). The translation is Cary's.

Since the first appearance of Mr. Dana's 'Book of Household Poetry' (Appletons), in 1857, many similar collections have been put upon the market, but none has supplanted it. A new edition, revised a second time and enlarged, is now offered to the public in fresh type and in a shape designated as royal octavo. A convenient summary furnished by the publishers enables us to see at a glance who are the new-comers, and what is the best they bring with them. Some pieces that have taken a strong hold on popular favor—like Edwin Arnold's "He who Died at Azan," Sarah Flower Adams's "Nearer, my God, to Thee," William Knox's "O Why should the Spirit of Mortal be Proud?" (impliedly admitted because it was Lincoln's favorite poem), together with Bret Harte's "Plain Language from Truthful James" and C. G. Leland's "Hans Breitmann's Party"—have doubtless on this account obtained the editorial passport. Others, again, like Clough's "Where Lies the Land," Lowell's "Without and Within," Emerson's "Woodnotes," Pierpont's "Pilgrim Fathers," and perhaps George Eliot's "O may I join the Choir Invisible," may be regarded as afterthoughts of Mr. Dana's critical judgment. That six poems are admitted from Walt Whitman, and three from Rennell Rodd (his sponsor, Mr. Oscar Wilde, is allowed but a single representative, though long enough), strikes one as a whimsical deference to the fashion of the hour. Christina Rossetti, hitherto neglected, has but one poem allowed her, while Dante Rossetti is still "out in the cold." Yet we feel sure that the "catholic as well as severe taste" which the editor has sought to exercise would have been better manifested by a sample of this poet-painter than by either one, say, of Mr. J. T. Trowbridge's newly admitted verses, or by a large number of others now first included by Mr. Dana. However, the collection is still a fine one, and one of its great merits is the accuracy of the text. We will call the publishers' attention to an error on page 457, by which "Thomas Dibdin" is printed for Charles Dibdin—not quite so ludicrous an exchange, by the way, as that we once saw, at the foot of a stanza on Longfellow, of "Austin Corbin" for Austin Dobson.

A number of single poems illustrated and otherwise fitted to become books hardly call for more than bare mention. If there be any choice amid a general mediocrity and feebleness of design, perhaps we should name first 'Bells Across the Snow,' by Frances Ridley Havergal (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The rest are Tennyson's 'Ring Out, Wild Bells' (Lee & Shepard), the designs by Miss L. B. Humphrey; 'Rock Me to Sleep, Mother,' and Schiller's 'Song of the Bell' (Estes & Lauriat); Buchanan Read's 'Christine,' illustrated by F. Dielman (Lippincott); and George Eliot's 'How Lisa Loved the King' (Claxton & Co.). With the foregoing may be classed Mrs. May Riley Smith's 'Gift of Gentians, and Other Poems' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), in which the verses are mostly on domestic themes, and especially are calculated for the consolation of mothers. They could not be very inspiring to the artist, for they are unpretentious and not highly original; and in fact but one or two of the designs will delay him who turns the leaves critically.

Better than the "gift of gentians" we must esteem Amanda B. Harris's 'Wild Flowers, and Where They Grow' (D. Lothrop & Co.); but for the text rather than for Miss Humphrey's designs, though we prefer these to her imaginative work. The book is such pleasant and sympathetic gossip about the humbler growths of wood and pasture that it merited congenial and masterly illustration like that which Mr. Gibson might have given it.

Mr. Blackmore's fortunate novel, 'Lorna Doone,' celebrates its twentieth edition in fine linen and gilt, with the help of many illustrations. Those which represent the landscape of Devonshire, the scene of the story, heighten considerably the value of this edition for American admirers. It is issued in this country with the imprint of Jansen, McClurg & Co., and is altogether very comely.

We have searched in vain for a clew to the date of the six months' sojourn which prompted the Rev. Joseph Cross, D.D., to write, from his teeming note-books, his 'Edens of Italy' (T. Whittaker). Nothing in his unrelieved guide-book discourse points to any familiarity with the results of the recent excavations in Rome, for example, and there is no more freshness in his book as a whole than in the pictures, which surely are from forty to fifty years old. The excuse for such a compilation is accordingly not very apparent. The publisher's part has been executed in good taste.

R. Worthington has assumed a work originally produced in Philadelphia, 'The Legendary History of Rome,' from Baker's translation of Livy. The make-up of this large quarto is peculiar. A heterogeneous mass of illustrations, not one expressly prepared for this edition, unless the photogravure of Glaize's "Conjuration" be an exception, and none among the wood-engravings being recent, are distributed through the text, and even through the notes when these consist of apposite selections from Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome.' The result is not a beautiful book, but the illustrations are generally of a helpful kind, and the print is excellent. Children, at least, may be trusted to make their way through the volume.

If we should be told that Dr. Andrew Wilson's 'Wild Animals and Birds, their Haunts and Habits' (Cassell & Co.) might properly be classed with juvenile works, we should not dissent. Any child would be interested by it, and would find a large part of it intelligible. Still, the style is evidently adapted for adults. The author, an evolutionist, is an instructor in biology and speaks by the card, but in a popular manner, with many pleasant anecdotes. As the engravings are also both large and good, the volume may be commended for the Christmas season or for any other.

The same publishers issue 'The Changing Year,' chiefly interesting to Americans as making them acquainted with numerous minor English poets, designers, and engravers; and 'Sea-Pictures, Drawn with Pen and Pencil,' by Dr. James Macaulay. This treats of the Sea in Poetry, the Physical Geography of the Sea, the Harvest of the Sea, and the Sea in History—all in a manner to instruct measurably, if not highly. We miss from the first chapter such poets of the sea as Wordsworth and Clough could be, on occasion.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—IV.

BESIDES Mr. Greey's 'Tokio,' already noticed, there is a remarkably large assortment this season of books of travel for children. In all respects Part iv. of Mr. T. W. Knox's 'Boy Travellers'—"Egypt and the Holy Land"—published by the Harpers, deserves to be named first, and stands least in need of being described, because the rest of the series have found such wide acceptance. Colonel Knox has the great advantage of a world-tourist, and is consequently able not only to check the works he draws upon to fill up his narrative, but to select wisely and to assimilate thoroughly. Hence, considering the mass of information he imparts—too great, at best, we are inclined to think—he is singularly successful in not fatiguing his readers. His humor has much to do with his success. An occasional touch like this (p. 73) does wonders. The duty of beating down prices in Egypt had been enforced:

"Frank profited by the advice, but carried the lesson too far. When he went the next day to the post-office to send some letters to America, the clerk weighed the letters, and told him the postage amounted to two francs and a half. The youth offered one franc and a half, and on the clerk refusing to accept it, he turned to walk away. Suddenly realizing the mistake he had made, he returned," etc.

The account of the Boulak Museum is made very interesting, and the discovery of the royal mummies last year is described at length. Zagazig, Tantah, Alexandria, and other names familiar since the late war occur, but the "Boy Travellers" had passed on to Syria before the outbreak. The illustrations are abundant, but some depicting Eastern costumes and character should have been discarded as never true, and as having no relation to Egypt.

Not a particle of humor entered into the production of 'Rip Van Winkle's Travels in Asia' (T. Y. Crowell), another "sequel" to a book published last year. Partly it covers the ground covered by the 'Boy Travellers,' and no better comparison of the methods of the two authors could be obtained than "Rupert Van Wert's" description of bathing in the Dead Sea (p. 181) affords. Here an authority, "a New York clergyman," is quoted direct; whereas Colonel Knox borrows from the same source, but in his own words, and with all the air of relating his personal experience. "Rip Van Winkle," a schoolmaster, sends letters home from a large part of creation, including Zanzibar, Madagascar, and India; but he was so little abreast of the times that he stopped at Pergamos without learning anything of the great sculptural find which is now the pride of the Berlin Museum. The book is very superficial

The height of the improbable is reached in 'Our Young Folks in Africa,' by James D. McCabe (Lippincott). Ninety-four of its 312 pages are devoted to Algeria, and contain many solid chunks of history separated by pictures which seldom have any reference to the immediate text. The rest of the book is based upon Serpa Pinto's 'How I Crossed Africa.' Now, it would have been worth while openly to condense that florid work for youthful reading; and why should it not have been just as interesting as to introduce four preposterous, fine, manly, typical, wealthy young Americans and their professor, and to pretend that they had only to plan such a journey to find it feasible and secure parental con-

sent to it? We should have been spared seeing the Portuguese explorer's portrait figuring as "Professor Moreton," and his benefactors, the Coillards, portrayed as the Gaillard family. Mr. McCabe does indeed leave the native African names untouched. One high-handed piece of international robbery he has been guilty of: the cuts on pp. 103, 104, 111 really relate to the French possessions in Senegambia, but are here transferred to Portugal, so that, for example, a view of St. Louis of Senegal does duty for St. Philip of Benguela. But most of the non-Algerian cuts are from Serpa Pinto's book.

We shall not discuss the merits of Mr. C. A. Stephens's 'The Knockabout Club Along Shore' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat). It opens with an hysterical defence of the defunct "Woodruff Expedition" and its plan, and we shall dismiss the book after making three quotations from pages which, if not addressed to children, are meant to be placed in their hands:

"Year by year the conviction deepens among Americans, that to plant a boy for four years in some dull little college town is not the most profitable way for him to spend those four of his best years. Surprisingly little comes of it in the way either of general culture or special fitting for the business of life" (p. 12).

"Twenty-three millions of dollars in club-houses and sumptuous *maisons de joie!*—tasteful beastliness. . . . But not a dollar for the Steamship College.

"The money of the country tends now more and more to run together into those chance pools termed great fortunes. . . . There will follow a stern and terrible (to the rich) commune, which will level all present laws of inheritance. Justly. . . . No child of a millionaire can deservedly inherit more than ten thousand dollars" (p. 14).

Mr. Hezekiah Butterworth's 'Zigzag Journeys in the Occident' (Estes & Lauriat) is avowedly a *Tendenz* work. "It is the purpose," says the preface, "of this story-telling volume to explain homesteading, and to give a glance at the resources of the great Northwest and its opportunities for the emigrant." This seems rather singular food for babes, but Mr. Butterworth's truly zigzag method explains the mystery. He begins with an absurd conversation between the lads who are bent on journeying across the continent, and then launches into his usual medley of stories and original and selected verse, in which the thread of adventure is lost out of sight a hundred times. This, he admits, is "open to objection," but asks if it has not "proved popular," judging by sales?—a question more proper for a dime-novelist than for the maker of holiday books. It is enough to give as a sample of the information about "homesteading" that Garfield's career is lugged in, and his shooting by Guiteau depicted in a woodcut. The disorder of the text attends the cuts also, which in some places are shovelled in rather than inserted. Such slovenly book-making is ruinous to the literary taste of the young.

The fair look of Mr. William H. Rideing's 'Boys in the Mountains' (of Colorado, namely), of which the Appletons are the publishers, together with his known skill as a magazine writer, led us to expect a good result. But his forte is evidently not story-telling, as it is not of most of the authors mentioned above, and he hardly struggles to keep up the pretext. The *dramatis personæ* are first introduced to us, and then the author enters upon the scene with long descriptions of the country and accounts of his own adventures. By and by he remembers that the young gentlemen should have the floor, and retires for a while in their favor; but he cannot stay away long, and so the see-saw goes on. Moreover, Mr. Rideing's style is not accommodated to his supposed readers. Hear him:

"Where these odd formations exist, fertility is usually absent, and the former seem like the offspring of some abnormal mood, some vindictive bit of coquetry on Nature's part, or some incomprehensible ambition in the direction of artifice" (p. 14).

The sincere self-depreciation of the author of 'Picturesque Journeys in America by the Junior United Tourist Club' (Worthington) disarms criticism. His scheme is not bad, but he has lacked the skill to carry it out. His children do not talk like children, and his language is too elevated for the majority. If it were necessary to go into details, we should question the accuracy of some of his Adirondack views and statistics.

No doubt there is much information conveyed in Mr. Harry W. French's 'Our Boys in India' (Lee & Shepard), but we cannot praise his choice of a sensational adventure—a Charlie Ross abduction—as a thread for his narrative. The conversation of the kidnappers is not edifying, and too much slang is put in the mouth of the boy in quest of his lost brother. He ends by pledging himself to turn missionary, and the friend who has inspired him to be a true hero applauds his resolution with "Go it, Scott. You're on the right track." The Indian illustrations, mostly from photographs, are the best things in the book.

Something of England was shown in a pretty way, by means of colored prints, in 'At Home,' published last year by Marcus Ward & Co. A companion book, 'Abroad,' now gives some idea of France, and of Normandy in particular. The story is told in rhyme constructed for the infant intellect, and serves well enough to explain foreign ways and scenes. In the interest of truth, however, we must object to the poetic license which accounts for the flag-women on the Continental railroads by assuming laziness and wilful neglect of duty on the part of their husbands.

Harper & Brothers publish an octavo volume, 'Building the Nation,' by Charles C. Coffin, intended to attract children to a study of the political and economical growth of the United States. The historical student might take exceptions to many of the writer's most unqualified assertions, and to his generally summary decisions upon points which are still debatable; but from the boy's point of view there is very little to criticise. The principal attraction is the illustrations, about 350 in number. Some of these are old acquaintances, having figured long ago in Abbott's 'Life of Napoleon' and elsewhere in the *Magazine* of the publishers. Others, such as the "Scene in Tangiers" and "The Desert," are thrust in without any very evident excuse; but the great mass are useful and attractive, and make up a satisfactory holiday book.

Mr. Charles Henry Hanson's 'Homer's Stories Simply Told' (T. Nelson & Sons) is a fairly good abstract of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey,' but derives no beauty from the author's phraseology. Much better work is the Rev. Alfred J. Church's 'Stories from the Greek Tragedians' (Dodd & Mead), in which the flavor of the original is skilfully retained by often very close paraphrases. Mr. Hanson, on the other hand, depends too much on long versified extracts. Both of these books have Flaxman's illustrations.

Two story-books from Macmillan, 'When Papa Comes Home,' by the clever author of 'When I was a Little Girl,' and Mrs. Molesworth's 'Rosy,' have in common the merit of good English and refined sentiment, and are both interesting, though in different ways. 'Tip, Tap, Toe,' as the first story is also called, has no plot, and just tells the doings from day to day and from week to week of a harmonious household, to whose complete happiness papa alone is wanting till the last page is reached. There is more humor in it than in 'Rosy,' which relates the chastening of a little girl dissatisfied with her "environment." Of 'A Moonbeam Tangle' (Cassell) what need be said except that it is a flat and distant echo of 'Alice in Wonderland'?

Dr. True's 'Life of John Smith' (Phillips & Hunt) is well fitted to interest boys in the early history of their country, and may be recommended to those who wish this best class of books for boys—heroic biography. It is got up in a less elegant style than most boys' books at the present day, but it is in good plain type. The story of Smith and Pocahontas, we notice, is told in the old way, with no intimation that it is a fable. It is all right to relate such stories, but the reader should be cautioned about them in a note.

In 'Facts and Phases of Animal Life,' by Vernon S. Morwood (Appletons), we have certainly a remarkable production for this era of scientific activity. "The following pages," says the preface, "have been written chiefly for the young"; "several amusing and useful anecdotes, many of which are original," "have likewise been introduced, which may help the reader to form a proper estimate of the animals to which they refer." In the first chapter it is truly stated that "the following estimate of the number and classification of animals is both curious and wonderful." The estimate records the number of species of mammals as 1,658; of birds, 6,266; of snakes, 657; turtles, 8; sea-snakes, 7; insects, 550,000. The existence of other groups of animals is not even hinted at, though to the above, in a "classification of animals," p. 12, *fish* are added and defined as "the natives of our seas, rivers, lakes, and ponds," while insects are described as "all those creatures which come to a perfect state of existence by a metamorphosis process." In chapter ii. we are told that "the majority of the inhabitants of the great deep belong to the vertebrata, or to the finny tribes possessing a spine or backbone. From the tiny whitebait to the huge whale, every kind of fish is adapted," etc. Then follows an "amusing and useful anecdote," probably "original," about a codfish which "blew with great force" (!), and the author sagely remarks that "when we consider that naturalists have discovered 13,000 species of fish, one might almost suppose that this planet had been created purposely for them. The sea is indeed wonderful to contemplate." It would be useless to multiply extracts to show how worse than worthless is this miserable compilation. The "anecdotes" consist largely of obnoxious stories conspicuously silly, teeming with errors of fact, often superstitious or ludicrously credulous. It is a book which should not be put into the hands of any child. The illustrations are mostly old, worn cuts, which seem in part to have been taken from spelling-books of a past generation. The press-work and binding are good, and are the only good things about this publication, though the author is styled on the title-page "Lecturer to the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals."

In refreshing contrast to the preceding appears Miss Arabella Buckley's 'Winners in Life's Race' (Appletons), a neat volume devoted to the vertebrates, which are denominated the "great backboned family." This book, though complete in itself, forms a natural successor to the same author's 'Life and Her Children,' which treated of invertebrates, and carries the reader through the vertebrate series from *Amphioxus* to the apes. A careful examination has revealed no serious errors, and from incidental remarks it is evident that the author has resorted to recent and eminent authorities for the facts which are marshalled with praiseworthy clearness in orderly succession. The illustrations, though a trifle coarse in execution, are fresh, sufficiently accurate, and in a majority of cases original. There is little poetry, no cant, and no objectionable sentimentality. The paper and typography are

good, and there is an excellent index. But one criticism suggests itself: the clearness of the narrative is somewhat impaired and the style encumbered by the attempt to carry to completeness a substitution of colloquial for technical terms. "Feeding-tube," "backboned family," "milk-givers," "line of nerve telegraph" seem weak and unnecessary equivalents for "œsophagus," "vertebrata," "mammalia," and "nervous system." These terms are practically part of the language, and have, in this country at least, long passed out of the technical stage. In a work of this sort they strike one much as "blazer," "beamer," and "twinklers" would, in an elementary astronomy, as equivalent terms for sun, moon, and stars. This, however, is a comparatively small matter. The book is to be heartily recommended.

A Group of Etchers. With Text. By S. G. W. Benjamin. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1882.

THIS collection of twenty etchings includes plates by some of the best modern etchers—Haden, Herkomer, Rajon, Hamerton, and Whistler among them. They are bound up in a handsome folio, with text accompanying each plate, and the whole is in good taste, with exception of some showy and meaningless gilt ornamentation on the cover.

Mr. Seymour Haden's plate, "Twickenham Church," the first one in the series, is by a widely-known and appreciated artist. What Mr. Haden does is done—so far as concerns the technical processes of etching—in a masterful way. There is neither timidity, correction, nor technical fault in his lines or touches, but they are, on the other hand, by no means of such character and significance as to justify the freedom with which they are executed. Mr. Haden is an artist of much natural feeling and power, but his work often shows the want of thorough discipline in the very elements of graphic design. He seldom grasps the character and beauty of natural lines. His trees and herbage are inorganic and often meaningless; and his rendering of the forms of earth, sky, and water is equally inexpressive. Moreover, he seldom shows a fine sense of proportion or design in the general construction of a subject. These defects are illustrated in the plate under consideration. The great mass of foliage on the left is not simply sketchy, as it might be generally considered, but it is without suggestion of form. The lines and touches in it do not indicate thought and purpose: they are not graphic. Regarded simply as a mass of shade, it is equally unhappy, being at once heavy, unbalanced, and unconnected with other parts, save with the dark grasses, which are led out across the foreground with a downward inclination that gives an unpleasant slanting impulse to the design. In his great plate etched from Turner's "Calais Pier" such defects do not appear. Here the composition and the leading lines were already prepared by a great designer, and on this basis his own skill as an etcher could work with good effect. We by no means mean to imply that Mr. Haden supplied nothing beyond his mere technical skill in translating the design into the terms of etching, though to do that well would be in itself worthy of high praise. We think he did much more than this. He entered with sympathy into the spirit of the work, and found his own best artistic powers quickened by it, so that the result is a great deal more than a mere abstract of Turner. It is, in some sense, an original and a great creation.

"Words of Comfort," by Mr. Hubert Herkomer, represents a peasant-girl reading from the Bible to an aged woman. The form and pose of the girl—especially of the arms, one of which supports the book while with the hand of the other she is about to turn a leaf—are graceful and true beyond what is common in modern art. But there is a want of harmony in the outlines which injures the effect of the work. This is shown in the unduly thick line of the girl's upper arm, and the very thin ones of the sleeve just above it. There is also a want of harmony between the thick outline of the face and the very delicate shading within it. We do not mean that outlines ought always to be of precisely the same strength. But, as a general principle, they should, for good effect, be at least approximately so. The drawing of the drapery and the other subordinate parts of this subject is too vague and inaccurate in suggestion.

The example by Rajon, after a picture called "Prayer," by Chalmers, is a poor specimen of this artist's work, which has occasionally been of the highest excellence. The defect of overshading is very marked, and is not atoned for by qualities like those of his expressive and masterly portraits of Darwin and Mill.

Mr. Hamerton's plate, "Moonrise on the Ternin," though suggestive of a pleasing sentiment, is very imperfect in expression of the facts of nature which are treated. The full moon is rising into a sky mostly covered with bars of dark cloud, deepening gradually toward the zenith. Under such a sky nothing could exhibit the strong light (the untouched white paper) which Mr. Hamerton has given to his foreground water, and even to the banks on either side of it. The whole chiaroscuro—and the subject is one in which true suggestion of chiaroscuro would be nearly everything—is thus false and disagreeable. In point of drawing, the masses are hard and edgy, though there is evidence of effort to be truthful in form, especially in the trees. The design evinces little sense or power of composition. It is simply a commonplace actual scene ungrammatically rendered; and it does not fairly represent Mr. Hamerton's abilities as an artist and etcher.

"Billingsgate," by Whistler, is one of this artist's rough sketches on copper. It shows his limitations as regards delineation and design more fully than it does his good and subtle qualities. Little detailed remark is necessary upon the other plates of this series. The frontispiece, "In Summer Woods," by C. P. Slocombe, contains some fairly good tree drawing, but it is scattered and spotty in light and shade. There is not enough middle-tint. The darks are over-bitten and are too equally black; and in the shading of the principal tree-trunk the reflected light contends too strongly with the high light. In Mr. Frederick Slocombe's "Winter Evening" the composition is good, and the naked tree forms are well outlined against the bright sky; but the chiaroscuro is in some minor respects faulty. The roadway ought to reflect more light from so bright a sky, and the figures would certainly tell more as strong darks against it. We have before in these columns expressed our conviction that the method of producing tints by *retroussage* is a bad one when pushed too far, because its results are largely a matter of chance. The effect in this plate is got by this method, and we think that had it been produced by the artist's own work on the metal the faults we have just noticed might not have existed. The "Rood-Screen in the Church of St.-Étienne du Mont," by H. Toussaint, is a skilful though a somewhat mechanical and overwrought piece of etching. "The Vanguard," by Murray, after a picture by MacWhirter, is a clever rendering of a vigorous piece of naturalistic painting. The worst plate in the book is "The Wayfarer," a dry-point by Legros. It seems to us utterly bad in all points of design and execution, with the one exception that it, more than any other in the series, conforms to the essential principle of etching as a process of frank delineation rather than of elaborate rendering of tones. In nearly all the rest there is evidence of more or less misunderstanding of this principle. The limitations of etching are, like those of all other processes, such as grow out of the nature and capabilities of the materials employed. When these are understood etching is seen to be, first, a method of pure delineation, as in the plates of the "Liber Studiorum," and, second, of suggestion, though never of full realization, of tonic values.

John Randolph. By Henry Adams. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

WE already have a larger and more complete life of Randolph, by Hugh A. Garland, but it has left full room for Mr. Adams's biography. The two sketch the Virginian from altogether different standpoints. His pride of ancestry, his arrogance and self-sufficiency, his contempt for all law except individual will and power, his greed for land, his thriftlessness, even his bad personal habits, are conscientiously detailed by both; but the ingenuous and unconscious sympathy of Garland, and the evident antipathy of Adams, make them almost biographers of their sections as well as of their subjects, and will in conjunction give the reader a stereoscopic view of John Randolph in his round (or linear) entirety.

The different attitude of Garland gives his work, viewed as a biography, the greater value, for Randolph was to him a man, with all the affections, purposes, and disappointments of a man. To Mr. Adams, Randolph is, if not quite a lay figure on which to hang historical drapery, at least a cadaver, to be curiously dissected for the instruction of an interested class. However this may detract from the interest of the book as a biography, it very much increases its value to the political student. From no other source can he get such clear light upon the nature and influence of the decade, beginning with the annexation of Louisiana in 1803 and ending with the declaration of war against Great Britain in 1812, which sealed the death-warrant of State sovereignty, and changed the whole current of the country's history. It found the United States theoretically a congeries of sovereign States, and when the wave had passed it left behind it a nation. It found Randolph at the head of State Sovereignty Democrats; it left him stranded and helpless amid a new order of things, out of sympathy with his State, with his party, with the Administration, with the country, and with his whole political environment. It ruined his career, as it did that of every other leader who was not careful, while maintaining State sovereignty in words, to respect the national sovereignty in fact. Randolph, almost alone, endeavored to practise as well as preach the ancient theory, and he was as out of place in the Congresses of 1812-30 as a survivor of the Tertiary period would have been in Barnum's "happy family." In presenting to view this change in the national life, Mr. Adams has done a distinct and excellent piece of work, and has given us in one small volume more of general, if less of special, interest than is contained in the two larger volumes of his predecessor.

Egypt under its Khedives; or, The Old House of Bondage under New Masters. By Edwin De Leon, ex-Agent and Consul-General in Egypt. Harper & Bros.

MR. DE LEON'S account of 'Egypt under its Khedives' is a timely republication, with additions, of a well-known work he wrote some years ago, in Ismail's time, known as 'The Khedive's Egypt.' The present treatise brings the modern

history of Egypt up to the summer of the present year by means of a prefatory chapter on "the rise of Arabi Pasha and the Egyptian Revolt." Certainly, in respect of some of the purely military aspects of the revolt, Mr. De Leon, writing before the active English intervention, showed remarkable prescience. He says:

"Both Arabi and his 'National party' will collapse, like pricked balloons, should the threats of England be followed up by deeds, and the forts of Alexandria be knocked about his ears, with a respectable force landed at Abukir, Port Saïd, Ismailia, and Suez. That he would make fight is probable, but that fight could neither be bloody nor protracted, and his own courage and resolution would not be imitated by his army, now being reinforced by raw levies, picked up starving in the streets of Alexandria and Cairo."

Our author ventures on another chapter of prophecy, which events also seem in the course of fulfilling. He anticipates that the result of the revolt will be to weaken the connection between Egypt and Turkey. He says:

"The march of events has also strengthened the opinion expressed five years ago, that the Siamese ligature which has so long united the Arab to the Turk ought to be cut away, and Egypt form the nucleus of an Arabic-speaking Empire, independent of the Porte. It would indeed be a sad commentary on the morals of Christendom if Christian hands are again to rivet Turkish chains on a country from which a potent genius and patriotism freed it more than a century ago."

The work before us is a most readable history of modern Egypt, beginning with the establishment of the present dynasty under Mohammed Ali. The account of the last Khedive, Ismaïl, is a little too much *couleur de rose*, as might be expected from an author who was in diplomatic relations of a friendly kind with Ismaïl's Government. The more favorable side of Ismaïl's rule, which chiefly related to the public improvements, often of a most extravagant kind, is done more than justice to by Mr. De Leon, while the profligacy of the Court and the corruption of the whole Administration are passed over with too light a hand. However, there is scarcely a subject, social or political, relating to the present condition of Egypt which does not find a place in Mr. De Leon's book; and on some of these subjects, such as the history of the Suez Canal, and the different schemes originally devised for the International Tribunals, it is not always easy to obtain elsewhere full and generally correct information.

A question is suggested by comparing the new prefatory chapter with the substantial part of the book, as to how far the recent military movement conducted by Arabi was an organic sequence of earlier events and how far it was an exceptional and, as it were, isolated catastrophe. Writing at the time of the Conference at Constantinople, Mr. De Leon was scarcely in a position to contemplate the events as a whole, and in relation to what had gone before; and even now it is somewhat premature to be philosophical. But one thing is perfectly clear, that the complicated international arrangements, including the Anglo-French Financial Control, had the effect of making the civil administration in Egypt dangerously weak—so weak that a moderately well-organized army, under a united body of officers, must have in any case competed closely with it, even if there had been no real grounds of disaffection to the dynasty of Mohammed Ali on which a popular revolt might be ostensibly built. That there were such grounds it needs only the account of Ismaïl's indebtedness and oppression, as told in Mr. De Leon's pages, to establish. The misfortune was that, through unscrupulous military ambition, the people were induced to try and shake themselves free from that European intervention which, with all its faults, had alone stood between them and their profligate and avaricious despots.

My Portfolio: A Collection of Essays. By Austin Phelps, D.D., late Professor in Andover Theological Seminary. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882.

A SON of Erin, attacked upon his travels by a ferocious dog, gave him a disabling blow with the big end of his stick. The owner of the dog expostulated with him, and suggested that he might at least have used the little end. To which Pat replied: "Why didn't he come at me with his little end?" This fable teaches that Dr. Phelps would have done well, perhaps, to have inverted the order of his recent publications. He came first with his 'Theory of Preaching'; next, he published his 'Men and Books,' a much lighter performance; and now we have his 'Portfolio,' which is lighter still, and more engaging. Beginning with this the reader would have been more likely to go on to the others than, beginning with 'The Theory of Preaching,' to arrive at this. The papers printed here may meet with various objections, but we can hardly imagine that any one should find them dull. They are too combative, too positive, too dogmatic to be amenable to the charge of "dear, sacred dulness." The most if not all of them have appeared before in various weekly papers. The first three are a warm and loving portraiture of Dr. Eliakim Phelps, the father of the writer. Two papers follow on "The Rights of Believers in Ancient Creeds." Some of the rights contended for will be allowed by all fair-minded persons. Others will not—for example: "The right to subscribe a confession as a whole without being held to endorsement of its every detail." These papers have an obvious and interesting bearing on the Dr. Newman Smyth controversy. But though Dr. Phelps is disposed to ameliorate to some extent the harshness of the ancient creeds, he has his fundamentals, and he insists upon them frankly, as in the article on "The Biblical Doctrine of Retribution." Chapters on "The Puritan and Christian Theories of Sunday" and on "Sunday Cars" have at the present moment a timeliness which they had not a few months ago. Concerning these matters Dr. Phelps is a strict-constructionist, for reasons clearly stated. Other subjects treated are "Woman Suffrage," which is tried in the balances with negro suffrage and found wanting, and "The Length of Sermons." The wisdom of the Doctor on the latter topic is that of the farmer who insisted that you couldn't plant potatoes too deep unless you planted them a little deeper than you ought to.

Natural History and Sport in Moray. By Charles St. John, author of 'Wild Sports of the Highlands,' 'Tour in Sutherland,' etc. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1882. Large 8vo.

CHARLES ST. JOHN was evidently born a naturalist and sportsman, but appears to have had authorship thrust upon him. The thrust has been so effectual that he has taken permanent place in the literature of his favorite and lifelong pursuits, and seems not unlikely to become a modern Gilbert White. The editor of this latest, but doubtless not last, edition of his principal work gives some hints of its development into its present shape; but to trace its history satisfactorily we have been obliged to look elsewhere. St. John probably first appeared in print in 1845, in the *Edinburgh Quarterly*, when J. Lockhart was editor of that review. This was through the services of his friend C. Innes, then Sheriff of Moray, his present editor. "At that time I was in the habit," says Mr. Innes, "of writing an article occasionally for the *Quarterly*, and I put together one on Scotch sport, using as my material some of St. John's chapters. . . . The paper pleased Mr. Lockhart. 'It would be sufficient,' he said, 'to float any number.' . . ." In 1846 or 1847 (probably the former year*) was published a small volume entitled 'Short Sketches of Wild Sports and Natural History of the Highlands,' from the journals of St. John. This either appeared originally in, or was subsequently incorporated with, the series known as "Murray's Home and Colonial Library." This was followed in 1849 by 'A Tour in Sutherland,' 2 vols., containing his 'Field Notes of a Naturalist.' The latter work, for some reason, was not successful. The preface to the first edition of the present work, dated July 6, 1863, states that it was made up of entries in St. John's journals and note-books, incidents related in letters to his friends, and a careful description of the birds of Moray; with which new materials were incorporated the substance of the 'Field Notes' published in 1849. The author was born Dec. 3, 1809, and died July 12, 1856. The sumptuous, almost luxurious, volume before us is thus seen to be a second edition of that published in 1863, which itself consisted in part of matter from the 'Tour in Sutherland,' 1849, and was intimately related to the 'Wild Sports' of 1846 or 1847.

Such is a bibliographical outline of these 'Notes on Moray,' "which were at once welcomed by all lovers of nature, 'like the scent of heather bells or breezes freshened from the wave,'" and made Charles St. John's "a name dear to lovers of nature and manly sport." The editorship is the same, after a lapse of nearly twenty years, Sheriff Innes apparently inditing the note which prefaces the volume, in which he states that he has not thought it necessary to add anything beyond a few foot-notes to the text as approved by friends of the author in 1862.

The feature of the present edition is the series of forty beautiful sketches made specially for this volume by Mr. George Reid, R.S.A., and Mr. J. Wycliffe Taylor, reproduced by heliogravure, and printed by A. Durand, of Paris; together with numberless pieces from St. John's own sketch-book, introduced into the text. "It was somewhat puzzling," says the editor, "to know how to treat Mr. St. John's very vigorous pen-and-ink jottings—whether to have them prettily copied and 'improved' by a trained draughtsman, or reproduced in all their roughnesses by photography. A few experiments made it clear that the latter was the proper course, and these very graphic sketches have thus been given precisely as the author carelessly touched them off, while the impression was fresh upon his own mind." "Roughness" they certainly possess, almost as if St. John had thrown the inkstand at the paper, but withal a spirit of suggestiveness which makes them well-nigh unique among portraits of birds and other animals; and we cannot be too grateful to the editor for presenting them in this form.

St. John, like many another ardent sportsman and true naturalist whose works are treasures in the literary storehouse of natural history, seems to have been a thoroughly "unbookish" man, and a volume further from suspicion of mere bookmaking than this one would be far to seek. It smells of the woods and fields and streams, and their varied inhabitants; of the gun and rod, too, though not reeking with gunpowder, like the South African hunting-scenes of the author's most intimate friend, Gordon Cumming, who so tenderly cared for the closing scenes of his life. How much is owed to the editor respecting the final form the author's manuscripts acquired, we cannot say; but a more agreeable and appropriate style of narrative than that of many of the passages in this work is seldom to be found. The author appears to have paid

* See *Zoölogist*, first series, v., 1847, pp. 1596–1600, where appears a long editorial notice, doubtless by "Rusticus" (Edward Newman).

more attention to birds than to any other animals, and the volume is chiefly ornithological in the best sense of that term. His qualities as a close and accurate observer and scrupulously accurate recorder render his work a rich mine of information respecting the habits of birds, down to the ultimate details of their lives. Witness the directness and point of the opening paragraph:

"During the month of January, the wood-pigeons (*Columba palumbus*) commence feeding greedily upon the turnips. They do not, in my opinion, dig into the roots with their bills unless rabbits or rooks have been there before them to break the skin of the turnip. In fact, the wood-pigeon's bill is not at all adapted for cutting into a frozen and unbroken turnip. The crops of those which I kill at this season are full of the leaf of the turnip; and they appear not to attack the centre or heart of the green leaf, but to eat only the thin part of it. The wood-pigeon feeds more particularly on the leaf of the Swedish turnip, which is more succulent."

And so on, from beginning *in medias res*, through a chapter or two for every month in the year, to *l'envoy*, printed at the end, and breathing the very spirit of the book:

"In conclusion, I may say I have aimed neither at bookmaking nor at giving a scientific description or arrangement of birds and other animals. All I wish is, that my rough and irregularly put together notes may afford a few moments of amusement to the old, and to the young not amusement only, but perhaps an incitement to them to increase their knowledge of natural history, the study of which in all its branches renders interesting and full of enjoyment many a ramble and many an hour in the country which might otherwise be passed tediously and unprofitably. We all know that there is scarcely a foot of ground that is not tenanted by some living creature, which, though it may offer itself to our observation in the lowly shape of an insect or even a minute shell, is as perfect in all its features and parts, in its habits and instincts, and as demonstrative of the surpassing wisdom and power and goodness of the Creator, as the most gigantic quadruped which walks the earth."

The appreciative and feeling memoir of the author is by Mr. Innes; and the admirable piece of story-telling about the Muckle Hart of Benmore—apparently that which occasioned Lockhart's encomium in 1845—seems to have been finished by the same hand. Mr. Archibald Young, Commissioner of the Scotch Salmon Fisheries, contributes a valuable appendix on the herring. The well-known and perfectly competent ornithologist, Mr. J. A. Harvie-Brown, furnishes a systematic or classified index to the birds, with the most approved modern nomenclature. Mr. Douglas has evidently spared nothing to perfect the making of an elegant volume in every detail of mechanical execution.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Elizabeth Akers. Rock Me to Sleep, Mother. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 50.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone: a Romance of Exmoor. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.
Brinton, D. G. The Maya Chronicles. Library of Aboriginal American Literature. No. 1. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton.
Bull, Sara C. Ole Bull: a Memoir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Cross, Rev. J. Edens of Italy. With numerous illustrations, map, and index. T. Whittaker. $5.
Cunningham, Mrs. B. Sim. In Sancho Panza's Pit. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Dies Iræ. Erinnerungen eines französischen Offiziers an die Tage von Sedan. Stuttgart: Carl Krubbe; New York: Westermann.
E. A. M., Mrs. Nonpareil Practical Cook-Book. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 50.
Eliot, George. How Lisa Loved the King. Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co. $1 50.
Everett, J. D. Vibratory Motion and Sound. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Forbes, R. B. Personal Reminiscences. Second edition, revised. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Francillon, R. E. Quits at Last: an Account in Seven Items. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Gibbons, Phebe Earle. Pennsylvania Dutch, and other Essays. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.
Gibson, W. H. Highways and Byways; or, Saunterings in New England. Harper & Brothers.
Lewis, Ion. The Poetical Works of Alonzo Lewis. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Linton, W. J. The History of Wood Engraving in America. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Little Sister. No-Name Series. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Lowell, Mrs. Anna C. Posies for Children. Selected. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
McCabe, J. D. Our Young Folks in Africa. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 75.
Macdonald, G. Weighed and Wanting. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Macdonald, R. From Day to Day; or, Helpful Words for Christian Life. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $2.
Morwood, V. S. Facts and Phases of Animal Life. D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
New Arabian Nights. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.
Newell, W. Discourses and Poems. A Memorial Volume. Boston: George H. Ellis. $1 50.
Newell, W. W. Revivals: How and When? A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 25.
O'Donovan, E. The Merv Oasis: Travels and Adventures East of the Caspian in 1879-80-81. In two vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $7.
Parkman, F. Les Jésuites dans l'Amérique du Nord. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Poole, R. S. and others. Lectures on Art. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.
Read, T. B. Christine. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.

Fine Arts.

THE FIFTH ANNUAL BLACK AND WHITE EXHIBITION.

THERE is hardly any better work done by our artists at the present time than that which is designed for the publishers of books and periodicals, to be engraved on wood. In the pages of the *Century* and of *Harper's Magazine* one may find material for a tolerably fair estimate of what is best in American art, as regards power of drawing and design. The present exhibition in the galleries of the Academy is largely composed of works thus executed for reproduction; and this object gives the practice of elaborating designs in black and white a *raison d'être* which it would not otherwise have.

Among the 491 pictures now hung in the galleries there is nothing of remarkable character; but there is a good deal that is worthy of praise in one respect or another, and not a little which indicates possibilities much beyond anything that is actually attained. No. 22, "A Pioneer House, Kentucky," by W. H. Drake, is a suggestive pen-sketch showing good feeling for the picturesque qualities of a simple subject, and considerable power of drawing. But it has the very common fault of being too unequal in strength of line and touch, and unequal in a meaningless way. For instance, the trees and buildings are drawn in with firm and black lines, while the group of figures and the roadway, in the nearer foreground, are rendered in pale lines. It would be better if the conditions were reversed; for distant things may, with more reason, be delineated in pale lines, although in pure line work like this, where tones are not expressed, very little if any difference ought to be made between near and distant things as regards strength of execution. That is to say, in delineation we should, as a rule, have delineation pure and simple, according to the method of Holbein, Titian, Turner, and all other excellent workmen. No. 26, "Down by the Shore," by Arthur Quartley, is a good arrangement of light and dark; but the drawing is indeterminate, and, in the water, it is wholly characterless. It is not essential, indeed, that drawing should be very determinate in mere sketches of light and shade like this, but it ought not to be wholly without character. No. 150, "Dawn," by the same artist, is a good effect of morning twilight. The design is injured, however, by the long wooden building with a painfully rigid roof-line. Such buildings constantly occur in our American landscape, it is true; but an artist of feeling will generally avoid them, especially where they form so conspicuous a feature in a subject. In the boats moored against the wharf, in this design, the rigging is too pale, and is executed with too soft and crumbling a line. In nature, these ropes would appear clear and dark against the bright sky. No 32, "A Twilight," by Bruce Crane, contains so much unmodified black that its value in setting off the other tones is largely lost. Too much of the subject is thrown into deep shade. Even under those effects of nature where there is least light, as in moonlight, the deepest shades occur in points rather than in extensive masses.

No. 35, by Mr. E. Blashfield, represents a child seated before a piano, and a young lady placing its hand upon the keys. Variously disposed about the room are some glazed jars, and on the piano is a dark, shiny bust. The execution of the whole subject is skilful, but far too much is made of the sharp lights on the varnished wood of the piano-case, on the glazed jars, and on the salient parts of the bust. A sparkling effect results from this which destroys quietness and truth. No. 39, "Zephyr," by George W. Maynard, together with the six other contributions by this artist, while showing a degree of power that might be turned to good account, is a most ungraceful and even a repulsive thing, in every quality of form and composition. Not only is the figure an extremely ugly one, but there is not a true nor a finely sweeping line in all the fluttering drapery which partially enwraps it. In point of execution, also, these drawings of Mr. Maynard's may be taken as examples of all that is vicious. No. 54, "Looking up the Arno," by Walter Shirlaw, affords illustration of the inadequacy of the rough popular modes of conception and treatment in charcoal drawing, when dealing with subjects in which grace of line and fineness of proportion are leading elements. The Ponte Vecchio in Florence is extremely fine in the proportions of its piers and arches; and the picturesque old buildings along the shores of Arno exhibit many graceful roof lines against the sky caused by settlement of time, and variety of inclination and altitude. These characteristics constitute the essential charm of such a subject. They constitute, in fact, nearly all that makes it worth drawing. But Mr. Shirlaw gives not the slightest expression of them. His Ponte Vecchio and his Arno houses do not differ in these respects from the most commonplace objects of this sort. Nor can we commend more highly his other contributions in charcoal. His "Washing at Roman Well," No. 59, is an ill-composed and ill-drawn group of figures. They are falsely conceived in chiaroscuro—not telling against the bright sky in the darkness of mass that each figure would have under that effect in nature. The circular marble basin, too, around which these figures are gathered, is drawn incorrectly. His "Italia (Panel Design)," No. 142, is the largest and most conspicuous example in the exhibition. It shows more excellence of drawing than any of his other works in this collection. But it is a spotty piece of design, and it bears, in parts, considerable likeness to the work of the English painter, Burne Jones, although it possesses none of the beauty of that master's work.

No. 86, "French Fishing-Smack," by Mr. Harry Chase, is good in expression of movement, in waves and sails, and the boat is buoyant and well poised. More middle tint, set off by smaller points of extreme shade, would improve the design, however, which is otherwise very good in point of chiaroscuro and in composition of lines. "An Old-Time Melody," No. 115, by Mr. Percy Moran, is a pretty subject, executed with much apparent facility, and with a good deal of power as regards general drawing, though it nowhere reaches any subtle qualities. The chiaroscuro is not well studied. It has the look of being made up in a conventional manner. One cannot tell for certain where the light comes from. The strong light on the young lady's arm and sleeve would indicate that it came from the window which she is facing, but the head, which is more exposed to that light—the arm being below the top of the up-

right piano which comes between the window and the figure—is very slightly, if at all, influenced by light from that quarter. We would not say positively that this is wrong—chiaroscuro depending upon so many conditions that may not be known—but it has a wrong look to us; more especially since the general light and shade of the picture has a conventional and uncertain appearance. This is most marked, perhaps, in the apparently forced suppression of the various subordinate objects, particularly the arm-chair in the background. No. 120, "Over the Roots (China-town, San Francisco)", by Julian Rix, is effective in execution, and has a strong look of nature, though the subject is unworthy of an artist's skill. The picturesqueness of interesting or noble things—like rural cottages or architectural ruins—may supply material for beautiful art; but the roofs of China-town, in San Francisco, possess no elements of beauty or pathos which should commend them to the artist as subjects for painting. A pencil head, No. 199, by J. Symington, shows uncommon power of drawing. The outline of the top of the head is remarkable for sureness and freedom. In the shades, however, there is too much uncertainty and confusion. Photographs from the drawings of the old Florentine masters illustrate what is best in work of this kind. They not only teach a true and tranquil manner of outline and simple shade, but they show also that drapery may be executed with freedom, and at the same time with accuracy. Mr. Symington's drapery is unnecessarily loose and inaccurate. We are glad to see a drawing of this kind, and we think that excellent results would follow if our artists should form the habit of working more in this way. Mr. George H. Smillie exhibits a considerable number of lead-pencil sketches of landscape subjects. They are pleasant things, somewhat in the manner of Harding's lithographs, though lacking the truth and variety as well as the power of Harding.

In the Northwest Gallery are hung a number of etchings and engravings of varying interest and merit. Of these No. 277, "A Corner of Portland," by C. A. Platt, is a clever etching in Whistler's vein, and with some approach to Whistler's skill. No. 281, "Public Garden, Venice," by H. M. Rosenberg, has some gondolas in the foreground which quite miss the subtle beauty of form that is characteristic of the Venetian gondola. No. 285, "Old Welland Canal," by Edith Cooper, is a delicate and unaffected etching, though the artist could, we think, by resolute effort, express distance with more truth and mystery. Her "Mother and Child," No. 289, is too much elaborated, and it is ill drawn in parts. The hair of the figures and the surfaces and folds of the draperies are not well studied. No. 286, a portrait by Léon Richeton, shows some beautiful work with the needle in the development of the profile edges, and in modelling of masses. His portrait of Dean Stanley, No. 301, is also a good quiet piece of work. No. 311, a portrait of Carlyle, is less excellent. Mr. Henry Farrer's "East River Sunset," No. 291, is by no means up to his best mark. The principal boat is very badly drawn, and the whole execution is mannered and wanting in graphic significance. Indeed, we regret to see this mannerism growing upon Mr. Farrer; for he is an artist of excellent native capacity, and his large plate here, No. 322, is, in spite of this tendency, a very beautiful work. It is a quiet passage of familiar autumn landscape. A stream of water crosses the foreground with partly denuded trees rising out of the opposite bank, and a level stretch of meadow land with more distant trees beyond. The trees are all drawn with feeling and character, and the large one on the right is a masterly piece of delineation. Mr. Farrer's etching always conforms to what may be called the normal characteristics of the process. Mr. Seymour Haden's two plates, Nos. 303 and 313, convey a very inadequate idea of his best powers as an etcher. They are over-shaded and heavy, with little expression of feeling for the visual facts of nature. No. 335, "Giant Goatsucker," by Frank French, is a highly-skilful piece of work. It possesses qualities akin to those of Bewick, save that it lacks Bewick's appreciation and truthful drawing of the order and flow of the plumage.

On the south wall of the corridor is hung a group of drawings by some of the foremost of our rising artists. Among these are three by F. Dielman, William M. Chase, and J. Alden Weir respectively. No. 478, "A Girl I Know," by Dielman, has none of the ragged and sketchy execution which is now so common. But it is so smoothly wrought, and the edges of all objects represented are so equally softened, that the character of the work verges on mere prettiness, and gives it somewhat the aspect of an over-elaborated photograph. It has, also, the further defect of faultful tonic relations, the lighted portions of the face, and those of the white kerchief folded across the breast, being of precisely the same value. The shaded side of this white kerchief, and the dark sleeve just below it, have also the same value. There is no justification for this in a drawing which is so fully shaded, and the defect, together with that first mentioned, detracts greatly from the merits of an otherwise beautiful drawing. Mr. Chase's "Burgomaster," No. 485, is comparatively rough in execution, but it is similarly incorrect in its rendering of related values. There is also an unquietness of the masses which destroys breadth and unity. The shaded side of the face is full of scattered light spots, and the light side is similarly disturbed by dark spots. That is to say, the details of modelling and marking are not enough subordinated to the general effect. The same remarks may apply to the other parts: into the white shirt dark patches of shade are carried which rival the depth of the dark outer garment, and the background is broken and unquiet like the rest. Mr. Weir's figure, No. 486, is like a study of an indifferent model. It is without grace of pose or strict veracity of drawing or tone. Yet it has qualities which make us feel that the artist might, if he would, do excellent work. Nearly all our rising artists need, we are convinced, more than anything else, to subject themselves to courses of discipline of a kind which cannot be had in Parisian schools or studios, but only in the galleries and churches of Italy, and especially of Venice, where all the fundamental qualities of painting are to be found in balanced perfection. In closing our remarks on this exhibition we must say that the catalogue is disfigured by a title-page of pretentious ugliness, the influence of which cannot be otherwise than pernicious. The illustrations, also, are without exception about as bad as they could be. A cleanly-printed catalogue, without any decorations or illustrations whatever, would be vastly preferable.

There is little that need be said of the exhibition of the Brooklyn Art Association, which opened to the public on the 4th instant. It is largely made up of pictures from the fall exhibition of the Academy. Among those which did not appear at the Academy, and deserving of high praise, is a picture by Mr. Gilbert Gaul, No. 184. It represents a soldier reclining in bivouac, on frozen ground, with a fire of a few sticks at his feet, while a comrade approaches from the distance with an armful of fresh fuel. The truth and pathos of the conception are in all respects admirable, and the execution shows a power over form and color hitherto hardly equalled in American art. There is a portrait by Mr. A. F. Bellows, No. 199, also, which seems very much in advance of Mr. Bellows's average painting. But with these, and perhaps a few other exceptions, the collection is a most feeble one.

At Knoedler's Gallery there is a collection of portraits, in water-color and oil, together with a number of etchings and engravings in mezzotint, by the English artist, Mr. Hubert Herkomer, which are of far higher character than anything that we habitually see in New York. Among them is a portrait of Mr. Ruskin, in water-colors, which, for beauty of color and subtlety of drawing, may be justly ranked with the best art of any time or country. It is good, also, as a likeness—better, a great deal, in this respect, than the mezzotint engraving made from it which was exhibited here some time ago. The oil work of Mr. Herkomer is strong and manly, but it lacks something in refinement, and it has not the living variety and beauty of color for which the Ruskin portrait is so remarkable. The least excellent in the series is, we think, the portrait of Mr. Lowell. This is comparatively foul in color and slovenly in execution. Indeed, Mr. Herkomer, in his oil work, leans rather too much toward the loose and sloppy modern methods of execution. But he is a true artist, and every piece of his work bears more or less impress of earnest purpose and high capacity. In his etchings and mezzotints there is much beauty; but in these, as in the oil portraits, we detect more of the coarse modern methods than is compatible with the just expression of Mr. Herkomer's refined artistic powers.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 21, 1882.

The Week.

EX-SENATOR DORSEY is making a desperate effort to divert attention from his participation in the Star-route swindles by entertaining the public about his share in the management of the Presidential campaign of 1880, General Garfield's appreciation of his efforts, his friendly correspondence with the President-elect, and the advice he gave the latter with regard to the formation of the Cabinet. This correspondence, interspersed with oral remarks from Mr. Dorsey, who recently asked the court for an adjournment of the Star-route trial on account of his physical sufferings rendering him unable to attend the court, but who now proves a very ready talker, fills nearly two pages of last Monday's *Herald*. From the letters printed it appears that General Garfield had a high opinion of Mr. Dorsey as a campaign manager, and expressed himself as much gratified by his skill, energy, and success. It appears also that he, after the election, invited Dorsey's opinion and advice with regard to the manner in which his Administration should be organized. But it is an historical fact that while Garfield invited and received Dorsey's advice, he failed to do the things Dorsey most earnestly urged him to do, and he did the things Dorsey most vehemently protested against. The statement that Garfield offered to Dorsey the Secretaryship of the Interior so far rests upon Mr. Dorsey's own assertion, and we see good reason to disbelieve it until it is supported by documentary evidence or other indisputable testimony. But whatever light this correspondence may throw upon Mr. Dorsey's political activity, or upon Garfield's way of treating people, or upon his character generally, the question which Mr. Dorsey just now has to answer, and from which the public should not permit their attention to be diverted, has nothing at all to do with these things. It is simply whether Mr. Dorsey is a thief; or, in other words, whether he has conspired with others to rob the Government. This question is to be decided after a fair trial by a competent jury. And if the jury finds that Mr. Dorsey has done the things for which he stands indicted, then his management of the campaign of 1880, or General Garfield's confidence, or the weaknesses of Garfield's character that may have been disclosed in this correspondence, should not, and, we trust, will not, stand in the way of his being punished like any other person convicted of an infamous crime.

A point of striking interest in Mr. Dorsey's correspondence with General Garfield is the extremely poor opinion Mr. Dorsey entertained of Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, and of Independent Republicans and reformers generally. There is no meanness and villany he did not think them capable of. The excessive virulence of his language with regard to Mr. MacVeagh seems almost to indicate very gloomy forebodings on his part as to what might be in store for him in case Mr. MacVeagh should occupy a seat in President Garfield's Cabinet. In that respect he was not disappointed. His remark in one of his letters to Garfield, that he would much rather see a representative Democrat than an Independent Republican in a Republican Cabinet, is thoroughly characteristic of the Machine politician. Far more than the "common enemy" he hates and fears men in the ranks of his own party who are hostile to Machine methods. With a Democrat who is a thorough partisan, a Republican Machine man can strike hands; with him he can come to an understanding; with him he has sympathies, views, and objects in common; with him he can coöperate—with an anti-Machine man never. Dorsey's wish to have a good Democratic partisan in Garfield's Cabinet in preference to an anti-Machine Republican, is therefore perfectly logical and intelligible. We have had similar things in this city quite frequently, and invariably the co-operation of the two machines was an expensive luxury to the public.

The chief difference between the decision in the Curtis case by the Circuit Court and that rendered on Monday by the Supreme Court is, that the latter places the legal and constitutional objections to political assessments on a broader and clearer basis than the former. It will be remembered that the act under which General Curtis was indicted only prohibits certain classes of officers and employees from receiving or soliciting money from one another. Had the Curtis litigation never taken place, it might with some plausibility still be contended that, while Congress might prevent this, it could not prohibit assessments by or payments to volunteer committees, or, in other words, that by a slight change of machinery the system of collecting a percentage on salaries might be kept up. But no one can read the opinion of the Court carefully without seeing that, while its actual effect is only to affirm the constitutionality of the present act, the grounds on which the opinion is rested are such as to imply that Congress has all the powers that the most extreme reformer can ask. The object of the existing statute, the Court says, is clearly to protect employees from extortion under threats of dismissal. But this is only a small exercise of the authority vested by the Constitution in Congress. A "voluntary" payment to Jay Hubbell is a piece of extortion on the one side, but it is a bribe on the other, or, as the Court says: "If persons in public employ may be called on by those in authority to contribute from their personal income to the expenses of political campaigns, and a refusal may lead to putting good men out of the service, liberal payments may be made the ground for keeping poor ones in." Again, if part of the compensation received for public services must be contributed for political purposes, "it is easy to see that an increase of compensation may be required to provide the means to make the contribution, and that in this way the Government itself may be made to furnish indirectly the money to defray the expenses of keeping the political party in power that happens to have for the time being the control of the public patronage."

This reasoning, of course, applies to the whole system of political assessments, whether it is carried on by Executive officers, or Congressmen, or anybody else. It means that Congress can legislate on the subject so as to prevent all interference with Treasury clerks and letter-carriers, all attempts to wring money out of them, or to cajole them into paying a bribe to keep themselves in office, no matter what cloak is thrown over the abuse. The system, if carried on by volunteer committees of ministers of the Gospel, will be no more sacred than if it is in the hands of office-holders. Congress can protect the service from outside interference in any quarter just as it can protect the voter at the polls. This is what the Curtis decision means, and the public has every reason to be grateful to the General and the "boys" who have helped on his litigation for the valuable contribution they have made to the cause of reform.

The examination of Mr. William H. Vanderbilt and of Mr. Rufus Hatch by the Committee of the Legislature which is trying to find out whether there is anything wrong in "grain corners," and, if so, what is the best means of preventing them, was interesting as showing how little about corners those know who are popularly suspected of making them. Mr. Vanderbilt was apparently almost as ignorant of their working, except in so far as they sometimes kept long lines of his cars standing filled with cornered grain, as the Rev. Dr. Crosby, who knew nothing about them except what he saw in the newspapers. He made no corners himself, he said, and he hardly speculated in stocks, or, if he did, it was on a large margin. In a general way he thought ill of corners, and so did Mr. Rufus Hatch. Mr. Vanderbilt disclaimed, and doubtless with much truth, a large part of the activity which "newspaper men" ascribe to him, and insinuated that they kept him constantly cornering and speculating, as part of their "business." One cannot help hoping that these investigations of corners and stock-gambling, if they do not reveal the true nature and cause of corners, will at least make somewhat clearer the futility of trying to prevent them by legislation. The belief that speculation can be stopped by statute is centuries old. The English statutes against "regrating and forestalling" were attempts to prevent speculation in produce; they seldom succeeded, and when they did they made produce dearer than it would have been if they had not been executed. The great check on speculation in Wall Street, or in any other street, is to be found in Mr. Vanderbilt's assertion that "not one man in ten goes into Wall Street but he is sure to be a loser in the long run." This is doubtless true, and it constitutes a penalty of the most tremendous kind, which is self-inflicting.

It may be said that this argument, if good for anything, is good against interference with gambling-houses by the police, because nearly everybody who goes to a gambling-house loses his money. But then what goes on in gambling-houses is not the excess or perversion of a good thing. If playing three-card monte and throwing dice were up to a certain point useful occupations, as the buying and selling of stocks are, and became injurious only when carried to excess, it would be terribly difficult for us to suppress gambling. Gold and silver mining is another example, besides stock and grain dealing, of a useful occupation out of which much gambling excitement may be and is got; but who would or could forbid mining simply because nineteen-twentieths of those who put money into mining lose it, or because there is vast speculation in mining prospects? "Selling what you have not got," which is most condemned in all these inquiries, is immoral, if done for immoral ends, but it is one of the commonest and oldest and most useful of human transactions. Everybody who promises to do anything at some future time for a consideration, even to pay a debt, sells what he has not got. It might be a very good and beautiful world in which nobody sold anything which he could not deliver on the spot, or promised anything which he could not instantly perform, but it would be a world so different from this that but few of this generation would want to live in it.

The prevailing opinion as to the good management of the New York Post-office is confirmed by the report of the commission of inquiry appointed by the Postmaster-General. What is said of the manner of making appointments is especially deserving of attention: "All applicants are treated alike, no matter who recommends them or to what political organization the applicant may belong." This impartiality of treatment is what real civil-service reform would secure in all departments of the Government. Its practice in our Post-office has not proved destructive of patriotism. It has not established an offensive officeholding class. The applicants for places are examined "in penmanship, in arithmetic, in geography, in English grammar, in the history of the United States," and in such public matters as may be necessary "to test general capacity or special fitness for the postal service." This certainly is "practical." It does not require familiarity with Sanskrit, or Greek, or abstruse astronomical problems. It does not restrict competition to college graduates, as some of our old-fashioned statesmen have feared competitive examinations would do. It is precisely a practical test such as this that real civil-service reform would secure in all departments of the Government. Objection to this reform is sometimes founded on the assertion that it is merely theoretical. The New York Post-office, however, has made an earnest experiment with the principle, and, as these objectors lay such stress on the value of facts as compared with arguments, the results of the experiment ought to be conclusive with them.

The proposal of the Joint Committee on Shipping to pay a cash bounty to shipbuilders on the materials of home production used by them equal to what the duty would have been if the same materials had been imported from abroad, is a dangerous one from many points of view. In the first place, it will kill the wooden shipbuilding trade, which is really in a flourishing condition notwithstanding the outcry raised on the subject. We have seen a statement published to the effect that more ships were built this year at Bath, Maine—the principal centre of the industry on the Atlantic coast—than in any previous year. We have made some inquiries of our own upon this point which lead to the conclusion that the trade is really in a prosperous condition. Now, even if it be adjudged deserving of death, we submit that Congress ought not to destroy it by offering a premium to iron shipbuilders—a premium collected from the whole body of the people, including the builders of wooden ships. Iron ships are better than wooden ones, and they earn more money for a given amount of freight transported. The difference between the two is so marked that it is quite within the range of possibilities that iron may supersede wood in our own shipyards for ocean-going vessels within the next ten years, even without the intervention of a bounty from the Treasury. But let us have fair play, at all events. If bounties are to be paid, let them be paid on tonnage, and not on materials. The Maine shipbuilders are as good protectionists as the Pennsylvania shipbuilders, and have equal rights to put their hands in the Treasury. Another point of danger is that the annual appropriation of money by Congress, to pay shipbuilders for the supposed losses incurred in their trade, will attract so much criticism and shed so much light on the tariff policy of the country, as to put the whole protectionist system in peril.

The Keely stockholders were cheered on Wednesday by the report of Mr. Boekel, the engineer appointed by the court as custodian of the Secret. The report shows the Secret to be in very fine condition, notwithstanding its long keeping; but what it is Mr. Boekel declares that it would be improper for him to explain, beyond the fact that the Keely engine "disintegrates" water so that its "molecular structure is broken up," and "there is evolved therefrom a permanent expansive gas, vapor, or ether, which result is produced by mechanical action." Mr. Keely, he says, will soon have an engine completed, and it is his purpose to call the attention of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company to the matter. We trust, however, that if that company persists in continuing to use steam, some rival trunk line will be given an opportunity to try the new motor, for the public has the right to the best motor known.

Thomas Crittenden, of Anchorage, Kentucky, has committed a business homicide on a negro named Rose Moseley, for testifying against him in a lawsuit. We have no doubt that, although Moseley was a negro, this occurrence will produce "gloom" in Anchorage and a general wish that Crittenden had let Moseley alone. It may even lead to a trial of Crittenden, in which there will be considerable weeping; but the sympathies of the jury will probably be rather with the wounded spirit of a man who has been testified against by a negro than with the Commonwealth or the dead negro. There will not be any weeping over the scandal which the affair brings on the community and its administration of justice. Some one wittily said of the South after the war, in the Ku-klux period, that if Southerners would only raise more cotton and less "hell," all would be well. It may now be said that if Southern towns would indulge in less "gloom," and spend more on halters and hangmen, it would work an enormous improvement in their condition. We firmly believe that $5,000 spent in hanging man-slayers would yield richer returns than $25,000,000 spent on river and harbor improvements. In Opelika, Ala., the other day, "every doctor in the city," we are told, "was engaged in extracting buckshot from the bodies of the wounded, and Mr. Maloney lies dangerously, and it is feared mortally, wounded." "How came it?" asks the local chronicler. Well, there were some special causes at work in this case, but the main reason why "it came" that there was so much buckshot in the bodies of the wounded, and that Mr. Maloney is in such a sad state, is probably that several of the wounded were not executed years ago for some of their previous frays.

Governor Stephens of Georgia says he has pardoned Cox on "numerous petitions, numbering hundreds in all, embracing many eminent citizens, lawyers, jurists, merchants, bankers, ministers of the Gospel, journalists, mechanics, and farmers, and including a majority of the House of Representatives and two-thirds of the Senate, of the present General Assembly, asking Executive clemency in his behalf." He ought to publish their names and reasons, those of "the ministers of the Gospel" especially. According to every account of the affair in the local papers, the killing of Alston was as brutal a homicide as ever was perpetrated; and if the eminent citizens of Georgia—lawyers, jurists, merchants, bankers, and divines—think three years' imprisonment sufficient punishment for it, they must have highly original notions about the duty of the State in the matter of protecting life.

The homicide question had begun to attract attention abroad before we took it up. Dr. von Holtzendorff, of Munich, one of the foremost of European jurists, had an article on American homicide in a recent number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*. The subject had arrested his attention before we began to discuss it. In fact, foreign jurists, and divines, and penologists who wish to study homicide in all its phases, will begin to come to this country, as fifty years ago they used to come to study our prison system. Medical authors of works on 'Gunshot Wounds, their Diagnosis and Treatment,' will also begin to appear in the Southern States before long in large numbers, because there are in no other part of the world

the same opportunities for studying the action of buckshot on the human frame. The effect of the single bullet is well known, but hardly any foreign surgeon has had an opportunity of observing the results of a good charge of buckshot from a shotgun. A paper, for instance, from an Opelika doctor, who has spent a day or two extracting buckshot, would excite great interest in foreign medical societies.

The Spanish-claims naturalization question has been finally decided, as it was plain to be seen it must be decided, by the adoption of all of Mr. Frelinghuysen's suggestions. That is to say—claimants must prove their citizenship exactly as they must prove any other fact; the judgments of our naturalization courts are to be taken as conclusive except in cases of actual fraud, or of want of jurisdiction, or where they conflict with some treaty stipulation or rule of international law. This disposition of the matter is exactly what Mr. Blaine wanted to secure, and could have secured had he clearly defined what the question at issue was. But, funnily enough, he wrote a paper on the subject, in which he appeared to take the ground that the United States insisted that naturalization papers fraudulently obtained were just as good in an international court as any others—a position about which the Commission naturally thought there was a good deal of doubt. Had Mr. Blaine been a lawyer his mistake would have been impossible.

A large number of well-known clergymen have issued an address to the ladies of New York, urging them to "put no wine or strong drink upon their tables" on New Year's Day, and calling attention to the fact that in past years "this course has been very largely followed in the best social circles." That there has been an enormous falling off in the consumption of wine at New Year's receptions in the past fifty years no one will be likely to dispute, and the "best social circles" are entitled to the credit of the improvement. They may indeed point with pride to their record in this respect. The reform has been the result of voluntary social action, unassisted by penal machinery, such as the Prohibitionists insist is necessary to restrain intemperance. One fact, however, the clergymen who sign the address seem to have overlooked—that the best social circles have, within the past few years, taken a more effective way of guarding against their guests becoming intemperate, by not having any guests at all. Providing tea and coffee is, after all, only a palliative, for guests who insist on making an "old-fashioned" festival of the day, will always find means of getting fuddled during their round of visits, while the simple device of shutting up the house and leaving town for the day, which has got to be so common of late, goes to the root of the matter, and leaves both host and guest in a state of security which under the old system it was impossible to attain. The abandonment of New Year's receptions is clearly the true way to effect a complete and permanent reform, and now that a distinct move in this direction is being made by society, clergymen and moralists have a weapon ready to their hands far more effective than tea or coffee.

It appears that there is a hitch about getting Sir Charles Dilke into the Cabinet. He first appeared in political life in 1868 as a Republican, and made his début in politics by several fierce attacks on the Queen's civil list, which he denounced as extravagant, and accused her of not paying the income tax. He fell into many mistakes in matters of fact about which it is difficult for an outsider to get information, and the general effect of his crusade on his political prospects was supposed, as far as office is concerned, to be fatal. But hardly any mistake is fatal to a man who is young, rich, accomplished, and clever; and all of these Dilke was. In the House of Commons he learned rapidly that even young men are not omniscient, began to cultivate silence, and grew a little more conservative, distinguished himself as a debater and man of business while the Liberals were out of office, and got over the social discredit brought on him by his Republicanism and his criticism of the Queen so far as to become even hand in glove with the Prince of Wales. Consequently, when Gladstone came back to power, he was one of the rising men who had to have something, and he got a post for which he was admirably fitted—the Under-Secretaryship of Foreign Affairs—for he is a remarkable linguist, has travelled much, and made a close study of foreign politics. The time has now come for him to go into the Cabinet, but it appears he cannot get the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster, which Mr. Bright held, because the revenues of the Duchy are part of the civil list, and have to be paid over to the Queen, and she is not so forgiving as the Prince of Wales, and would probably not care to have any part of her income managed by a gentleman who had criticised the whole of it so severely. The Duchy of Lancaster is an old principality which has been merged in the Crown, but still has its revenues kept separate from those of the Crown, amounting, net, to about $200,000 a year.

Lord Derby is objected to as a member of the Cabinet on the ground that his desire to cut loose from Egypt altogether makes him, if not a bad Whig, a bad Gladstonian. But his attitude on the Irish question is far more objectionable, from the Gladstonian point of view, than his attitude on the Egyptian question, for he apparently declares himself opposed to Home Rule in any shape, or to doing or saying anything about it that will make it a practical question. His theory about Ireland is that Irish hatred of England must be recognized and treated as a permanent and ineradicable evil, and met by dull, steady resistance as in the past. These views are the product of his temperament rather than of his intellect. He sees so well the difficulties of all action that he would avoid action wherever avoidable, and where he had to act would act to-day as he acted yesterday.

The definitive rejection by the German Bundesrath of a motion favoring the abolition of "compulsory civil marriage" has a significance going beyond the merits of the question itself. The law making the celebration of marriage by a civil magistrate compulsory was one of the fruits of Bismarck's "liberal" period, and of the beginning of the *Kulturkampf*. Civil marriage, especially compulsory civil marriage, has always been one of the greatest eyesores to the Catholic Church. The Clerical party, supported in this instance by a considerable number of the Protestant clergy, have, therefore, spared no effort to compass the repeal of the act. The secret sympathy of the Emperor and the Empress was counted upon by them in this respect. They hoped that compulsory civil marriage would be sacrificed by way of concession to the Vatican, when it seemed to be Prince Bismarck's policy to conciliate the Church and the political party attached to it, at any price. The decisive step taken by the Bundesrath, which would not have been taken without the consent of the Chancellor, seems to indicate that the limit of concession has been reached, for the time being at least.

The periodical Russian scare seems to have broken out once more in the European press. We are told that Russia is strengthening her western frontier by fortifications in a most extraordinary manner; that no less than seven railroads, for which no commercial necessity exists, have been built in that quarter, evidently for military purposes, and that large bodies of troops have been concentrated near the Galician line. All these things are interpreted as indicating hostile intentions on the part of Russia against Austria and Germany. Then, again, we are assured that the mission of Mr. Giers to Berlin is of the most pacific character, that the diplomatic relations between the three emperors are very satisfactory, and that the movements of troops on the Galician frontier mean nothing but the "ordinary annual regimental changes." But the scare has had the effect of greatly unsettling commercial relations between Russia and Germany, and of seriously depressing the value of Russian securities and the Russian paper currency at Berlin and Vienna. We learn also that Prince Bismarck, through his organs in the press, while not denying the existence of any danger, gives the world in general and the German people in particular to understand that he has amply provided for the emergency by renewing the alliance between Germany and Austria. This circumstance throws some light upon the character of the whole excitement. Prince Bismarck is fond of having a little diplomatic byplay when he gets seriously embarrassed in his home policy. He loves to remind the German people that they are surrounded by very dangerous neighbors, but that he is still there to keep those neighbors at bay. He delights in the rôle of the "necessary man," who must be humored. But when he says that by the Austro-German alliance all international emergencies are sufficiently provided for, he is undoubtedly right. The military power of Germany and Austria combined is so colossal that no one of the hostile neighbors will, single-handed, dare to defy it; and even a combination of enemies such as Russia and France would have a very hard task on its hands in attacking it.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 13, to TUESDAY, December 19, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Monday the Supreme Court rendered a decision in the political-assessment case of N. M. Curtis. The constitutionality of the law under which General Curtis was convicted is affirmed, and the petition for a writ of habeas corpus denied. Chief-Justice Waite delivered the opinion of the Court, Justice Bradley dissenting.

In the Senate, on Wednesday, Senator Hawley delivered a speech in support of the Pendleton Civil-Service Bill, and several amendments to the bill were adopted, including that offered by Senator Logan, requiring the examination to be practical in character, and such as to test fairly the relative capacity and fitness of the persons examined to discharge the duties of the service into which they seek to be appointed. Senator Beck's resolution for an investigation of political assessments, and Senator Hale's substitute therefor, were referred to the Judiciary Committee. On Thursday, Senator Brown, of Georgia, did what he called "some very plain talking to Democrats" on the question of civil-service reform, the substance of which was that the Republicans have had the offices for twenty-two years, and, if the Civil-Service Bill is passed, will continue to have them, a fact which will take all the "energy and zeal" out of the Democrats in the Presidential campaign of 1884. Therefore, Mr. Brown advised his Democratic colleagues to oppose the bill. In the afternoon Senator Miller, of New York, began a strong speech in favor of the Pendleton bill, which he concluded on Friday morning. Senator George, of Mississippi (Dem.), also spoke in favor of the bill. Senator Pendleton moved that the first section of the bill be amended so as to require the Civil-Service Commissioners to be confirmed by the Senate, which was agreed to. On Saturday the debate was continued. Senator Ingalls characterized the bill as a cheat designed by either party to defraud the other, and Senators Voorhees and Plumb spoke in opposition to it. On Saturday the bill for the ascertainment of claims of American citizens for French spoliation eighty years ago was passed.

In the House, on Wednesday, the West Point Military Appropriation Bill was passed, the Agricultural Appropriation Bill discussed, and the Congressional Library Bill recommitted, with instructions to the Committee to report a bill for the erection of a library on ground belonging to the United States in Washington. On Thursday, the whole day was devoted to the discussion of the Post-office Appropriation Bill. On Friday, James H. McLean was admitted as a member of the House from the Second Missouri District. The Secretary of State of Missouri had refused to give McLean a certificate, on the ground that the Second District had been legislated out of existence. The discussion of the Post-office Appropriation Bill was resumed. On Saturday, the fast-mail item of the bill was defeated by a vote of 91 to 29.

On Monday the House voted not to take the usual holiday recess, and adopted a resolution fining any member absent during the holiday week without leave or reasonable excuse $50. On Tuesday, however, it voted, by a majority of 26, to take a recess from December 22 to January 2. It is said the Republican Senators have reached an informal understanding among themselves that they will oppose any resolution for an adjournment over the holiday recess. This will make it impossible for the House to adjourn for more than three days without violating the Constitution.

On Tuesday the Senate passed the Indian Appropriation Bill, with several amendments, among which was one requiring the Secretary of the Interior to have the approval of the President in setting aside bids detrimental to the interests of the Government.

The Judiciary Committee of the Senate finished the consideration of the Bankruptcy Bill on Monday, and in the afternoon Mr. Hoar reported the Lowell bill with a few amendments which do not change its essential features. It contains, however, an amendment providing that insolvent persons who shall "sell or buy, or agree to sell or buy, for delivery at a future period longer than three days from the date of such sale or purchase, any stocks, bonds, or other securities, or any grain, food, provisions, etc., without such vender being at the time of making such contract the owner or assignee or trustee of the property sold, or agreed to be sold, or the authorized agent of such owner," shall be deemed to have committed an act of bankruptcy.

The House Committee on the Judiciary, after three days' discussion, came to a vote, on Thursday morning, on the bill for the relief of the Supreme Court, and adopted the Davis bill, creating nine intermediate courts. The vote was two to one, the Republicans voting for and the Democrats against the adoption of the Davis bill. The Chairman was instructed to report the bill to the House, and ask its consideration under suspension of the rules at some future day at his discretion.

The Democratic Senators held a caucus on Thursday morning. The principal subject for consideration was the bill for the admission of Dakota to the Union. It was decided to oppose it, and the plan of cutting up the Territory into several States was condemned, partly on the ground that it would make too many Republican States. The Civil-Service Bill was also discussed, but, owing to the differences of opinion on the question of supporting the measure, no conclusion was reached. It is understood that Senators Brown and Voorhees said it would be impolitic for the Democrats to support it. The question of the tariff was discussed, but no conclusion reached. Except on the matter of civil-service reform, the caucus was harmonious. A committee of five Senators was appointed to confer with a similar committee of the House on matters of general party policy.

The Republican Senators met in caucus to discuss the Civil-Service Reform Bill on Saturday. The pending amendments were considered and criticised. The general sentiment was one of approval of all the amendments which have been offered by the Republican Senators. No vote was taken at the caucus, and no effort was made to bind Senators to any particular course, but it is understood that all the Republican Senators, with perhaps one or two exceptions, will vote for the Pendleton bill.

Godlove S. Orth, formerly member of Congress from Indiana and ex-Minister to Austria, died at his home in Lafayette, Ind., on Saturday night. On Sunday, Speaker Keifer designated a committee to attend the funeral, and on Monday the Senate adjourned early in the afternoon as a mark of respect to the dead Congressman.

The report of the committee appointed to examine the methods and results of the management of the New York Post-office says that the postal service in that city is "nearer perfection, all the details being considered, than in any other city in this country."

The President has nominated for Commissioner of the District of Columbia Mr. John F. Olmstead, a real-estate agent, for many years associated with a real-estate firm of which the leading member was Hallet Kilbourn. The nomination is severely criticised in Washington.

A list of Representatives in the next House has been prepared by Mr. Edward McPherson, classifying them as follows: Democrats, 191; Republicans, 119; Readjusters, 6; Independents, 5; and Greenbackers, 2. According to this classification, the Democrats will have a majority of 59.

In answer to a request from Pittsburgh, the Secretary of the Treasury has decided that a Chinaman, now residing in that city, cannot bring into this country, under the Chinese restriction, from China, a wife that he intends to marry, although if he were already married and his wife were in China she could come.

The jury in the new Star-route trial was completed on Thursday, and Mr. Bliss opened the case for the prosecution.

The building in Washington in which is the office of Richard T. Merrick, Government counsel in the Star-route case, was damaged on Saturday evening by an incendiary fire. It is conjectured that the fire was set with the hope of destroying evidence against the Star-route men.

On Monday certain New York papers published the correspondence between James A. Garfield and ex-Senator Dorsey, Secretary of the Republican National Committee, during the campaign which ended in the election of Garfield. From these letters Garfield seems to have reposed great confidence in Dorsey as a campaign manager, and to have asked and received advice from him in regard to the formation of his Cabinet. They are believed to have been given to the press by Dorsey with the object of influencing the course of the Star-route trial.

Representatives of State and other Boards of Health, who have come to Washington to impress upon the National Board of Health the importance of continuing the sanitary inspection of immigrants for the purpose of preventing the introduction and dissemination of contagious diseases throughout the country, held a meeting on Thursday and elected Dr. W. M. Smith, Health Officer of the Port of New York, Chairman. Congress is to be asked for an appropriation of $25,000 for the present year.

There was a special meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of New York on Monday afternoon to consider the subject of reviving the American merchant marine, and resolutions in favor of free ships were offered and referred to the Committee on Commerce.

About 240 Southern matrimonial and natal associations have been placed on the black list of the Post-office Department by order of the Postmaster-General, and the postmasters at the places where the societies exist have been instructed to return to the senders money-orders addressed to the associations.

Henry James, senior, the well-known author, died in Boston on Monday afternoon, at the age of seventy-two.

FOREIGN

Wednesday being the fiftieth anniversary of Mr. Gladstone's entrance into public life, most of the English newspapers printed articles on his career. Many political associations, and the Khedive of Egypt and the Greek Government, sent messages of congratulation to Mr. Gladstone.

On Thursday the *Pall Mall Gazette* said that it was authorized to state that Mr. Gladstone had resigned the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, and that the Right Hon. Hugh C. Childers, Secretary of State for War, had been appointed his successor, and on Saturday it was announced that the changes in the Cabinet had been completed and that the new Ministers had taken the oaths before the Queen in Council. They are as follows: Lord Derby, Secretary of State for the Colonies; Lord Kimberley, Secretary of State for India; and Lord Hartington, to succeed Mr. Childers as Secretary of State for War. It is understood that it was intended to make Sir Charles Dilke Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, but that the idea was abandoned on account of the difficulty of conferring an office so closely connected with the Court upon one entertaining such views concerning the civil list as those which have been expressed by Sir Charles. It is said to be certain, however, that he will soon enter

the Cabinet in some capacity. On Monday the London *Times* said that obstacles had been raised to Lord Derby's appointment to the India Office, owing to the views he expressed in his speech at Manchester in relation to Egypt.

In the above-mentioned speech, which was made on Wednesday, Lord Derby rejected the idea of a protectorate for Egypt. England ought not to remain in Egypt longer than was absolutely necessary to restore order. English influence in Egypt should preponderate, but it was not necessary to exercise it in an offensive spirit, nor to exclude free and friendly consultation with France.

In the same speech, Lord Derby, touching upon the Irish question, gave it as his personal opinion that several millions spent in promoting emigration from Ireland would be a profitable expenditure. He believed that in a few years, despite the Land Act, small tenants in Ireland would be just as dependent as ever on the forbearance of landlords. He thought the Government should abstain from encouraging fresh large proposals for legislation in regard to Irish land, and should refuse to listen to the claim for Irish nationality in whatever disguise it should be presented. An Irish Parliament would certainly lead to a separation.

On Thursday morning two important arrests were made in Dublin in connection with the murder of Lord Cavendish and Under-Secretary Burke. They were made on the evidence of informers, and one of the prisoners has been identified by persons who were in Phœnix Park on the night of the murder as one of the men seen on the car on which the assassins rode. The detectives believe that they have got a direct chain of information in regard to the murderers. This was the news on Friday, but on Saturday the despatches said that although the authorities were in possession of valuable information in regard to the existence of secret organizations, they had not got a step nearer to the conviction of the Phœnix Park murderers. The two men arrested on Thursday have not been identified as the assassins. On Saturday evening Earl Spencer issued three new proclamations offering rewards for information relative to the Phœnix Park murders, including one of £5,000 for information leading to the conviction of the assassins, the authorities promising to insure that the names of the informants shall not be divulged.

On Friday, Patrick and Myles Joyce and Patrick Casey were hung for participation in the murder of the Joyce family at Maamtrasna on the 17th of August last.

On Monday Mr. Parnell opened a branch of the Irish National League at Cork. In his speech on the occasion he said the purpose of the League was not to serve any one class, but that its efforts would be devoted to national objects and the advancement of the Irish people of every class. A banquet was given to Mr. Parnell at Cork on Sunday, at which Mr. Parnell said he would always oppose any attempt of the Government to land emigrants in a helpless and penniless condition on the shores of the Eastern States of America. If England desired to promote the emigration of Irishmen, let them be placed on land in America, provided with homes and means to raise a crop the first year of their residence. He advocated relief for the crowded districts by purchasing for the people vast tracts of grazing lands in Ireland which were peopled before the famine. There was no reason, he said, why they should not be peopled again. He estimated that £3,000,000 arrears of rent would be wiped out by the Arrears of Rent Act, and believed that since the commencement of the agitation £3,000,000 reduction of rent had been obtained for the people. The Land Courts, under the present system, would take twenty-five years to settle rents. Such a settlement, he said, could never go to the root of the question, which could only be settled by the establishment of a peasant proprietary. The claims of the laborers required immediate attention, which must be brought about by agitation and organization.

At a meeting of the Organizing Committee of the Irish National League, held at Dublin on Friday, it was decided to merge the Home-Rule Association in the National League.

The correspondent of the London *Times* at Berlin said on Tuesday that the relations between Germany and Russia were the absorbing topic of discussion there. Russian exchange on the Berlin Bourse is lower than it has been since the battle of Plevna. There is a general feeling of uneasiness, although no good cause is assigned for it.

The Cologne *Gazette* states, on what it alleges to be good authority, that the Austro-German alliance, which was originally concluded for a period of five years, and which expires on October 15, 1884, will be prolonged because it has already proved of great advantage and furnishes a strong guarantee for the maintenance of peace. The *Gazette* says that the terms of the alliance are that if either empire is attacked from two sides, the other shall render assistance.

The Austro-German alliance meets with the unmixed approval of the entire German press. The *Germania* says the prolongation of the treaty will effectually bar Panslavist intrigues, Russia's expansion aspirations, and French plans for revenge.

In the German Reichstag on Wednesday the Imperial Minister of the Interior in reply to a question by Herr Windthorst, the Ultramontane leader, said the Bundesrath had decided not to give effect to the decision of the Reichstag in favor of the abolition of the law upon unauthorized exercise of ecclesiastical functions. The Government, he said, could not explain the reasons for the refusal, and declined on principle to give the Reichstag reasons for their decisions. Herr Vollmar, Socialist, offered a motion declaring that no sufficient grounds had been shown by the Government for prolonging the minor state of siege in Berlin, Hamburg, and Leipsic. He said that trifling concessions would make the Socialists abate nothing of their total demands. They had been made revolutionists by repressive laws, which, however, had given them cohesive strength and discipline. The motion was negatived, and the House resolved to take cognizance of the report submitted by the Government concerning the carrying out of the laws against the Socialists. The Reichstag has adjourned till January 9.

A despatch from Berlin says that a committee of merchants has decided to convoke a conference of delegates from all German chambers of commerce, for the purpose of organizing united action against the taxation of Bourse transactions.

A despatch from Berlin says the preliminary preparations for rendering the Weser River navigable for sea-going vessels from Bremerhaven to Bremen have been finished. It is estimated that the work will take six years, and will cost 30,000,000 marks. When completed it will give a great impetus to trade between Bremen and New York.

In the French Chamber of Deputies, on Thursday, M. Tirard, Minister of Finance, stated that the amount of the public debt redeemed in 1882 was 104,000,000 francs. On Saturday the Chamber adopted the extraordinary budget without modification. The Cabinet has decided to postpone bringing forward a credit bill for the Tonquin expedition for the present, but the report of the abandonment of the expedition is said to be without foundation. President Grévy and Admiral Jauréguiberry are reported to have had a difference on the question of who shall be intrusted with the expedition, the former wishing to intrust it to a civil commissioner, while the latter objects to the interference of a civilian in a military enterprise.

The French Budget Committee has decided to vote 23,000,000 francs to maintain the army of occupation in Tunis. In the debate on the budget in the Senate on Tuesday M. Léon Say said he hoped and believed that the state of the finances was more favorable than M. Ribot supposed. He said it behooved statesmen to place the finances on a sound basis in order to prepare the country for a renewal of the powers of the Chambers in 1885, as it was especially desirable not to accumulate difficulties for that period.

The Paris *Temps* has officially announced the refusal of France to accept the Presidency of the Egyptian Public Debt Commission, and says that France has formulated no counter proposal, but has given England a better idea of the political interests which France intends to uphold in Egypt side by side with the financial interests of her subjects.

News from Madagascar says the announcement of the murder of two Americans on the island has been confirmed. The London *Daily News* says that steps have been taken to call the attention of the United States Government to the facts of the case, and that the murder of the Americans is believed to have been due to the measures taken by the French representatives in Madagascar to prevent the Malagassy Government from exercising authority on the west coast of Madagascar. At a banquet given to the Malagassy Envoys, at present in London, on Thursday, the principal Envoy, replying to a toast, said he wished that right-dealing men from Europe and America would go to his country, taking there commerce and everything which would advance the people. He said that Madagascar did not wish to quarrel with France. It is stated that if Germany declines to make a treaty with Madagascar, the Envoys will visit the United States after completing the revision of the treaty with Great Britain.

At a meeting of the Geographical Society in Paris, on Sunday, M. de Lesseps promised that the Panama Canal would be ready to be opened in 1888. He said the health of the employees was satisfactory, and stated that the rate of mortality in Panama did not exceed that in France, and maintained that the fears that the canal would be liable to destruction by earthquakes were quite unfounded.

A despatch from Cairo on Thursday said that the Government had requested Arabi and the other prisoners sentenced to exile to be ready to start within ten days. Allowances have been granted them from their properties which were confiscated. The property belonging to their wives was not confiscated. The leniency shown to the prisoners is said to have produced a good effect upon the Arabs. Lord Dufferin has submitted to the Egyptian Government a scheme to reform the native courts of justice. He proposes that the tribunals shall be presided over by European judges, and that the code be, as far as possible, similar to that of the international tribunals.

It is stated that the Sultan of Turkey is becoming deranged. He has had built for himself an armored carriage, bullet and grenade proof. He is in constant fear of assassination, and the palace is practically in a state of siege, no one being allowed to enter unless summoned.

The Spanish Government proposes to settle the Parliamentary oath question by admitting either an oath or affirmation, and on condition of a promise of fidelity to Alfonso to omit the words "legitimate King of Spain." On Thursday, Señor Rivas, a leading supporter of Marshal Serrano, made a declaration that all the members of the Dynastic Left would accept the Constitution of 1876, and if called to power would reform it in a liberal sense on the lines of the Constitution of 1869. This is a complete abandonment of Marshal Serrano's original programme, and is practically the programme defended by Señor Sagasta in the Senate last week. The declaration caused great excitement in the Chamber.

TAX REDUCTION AND DEBT REDUCTION.

Among the popular fallacies now in circulation is one brought forward to sustain the free-tobacco bill, and to justify the repeal of the internal-revenue system generally. It is that since the national debt, or a large part of it, draws only three per cent. interest, while money is worth seven per cent. to the taxpayers, it is unwise to pay off the debt so rapidly—that we ought to reduce the revenue to the lowest point possible, and "let the money fructify in the pockets of the people." If this is a good argument against paying the debt rapidly, it is good against paying the principal at all. It is like saying that we should be better off if no part of it had ever been paid—that is, if it were about $1,000,000,000 greater than it is—for in that case we should have been earning seven per cent. with the money all the time, whereas, the debt has always been running at a less rate, and generally at a much less rate; and in short, that the national debt is a national blessing. It is assumed that the whole $1,000,000,000 would have been saved by the taxpayers and converted into capital—not spent unproductively, not lost, but saved and invested in such manner as to yield at least seven per cent. per annum. Otherwise there would be neither force nor pertinence in the argument.

The confusion of ideas which all this implies arises from the habit of looking only at the money which passes from the taxpayer to the bondholder—looking at the sign instead of the thing signified. As money is only the vehicle by which the real operation is facilitated, we must look deeper to find out the essence of the transaction. The operation of paying either principal or interest of the public debt is an operation of distributing the national earnings among the various members of the community by law. The national earnings consist of wheat, cloth, iron, fuel, and whatever we produce by our labor. In the absence of any debt, it would not be considered desirable for Government to take a portion of these products every year and hand them over to a particular class who are not rendering a corresponding service. So long as the debt continues, this is unavoidable, but the question how long the debt ought to continue is to be answered by a simple arithmetical computation. There are, say, $350,000,000 of three per cent. bonds outstanding, which the Government has the right to redeem. If they are redeemed at the end of three years, this arbitrary distribution of the national earnings will amount to $350,000,000 principal, plus $31,500,000 interest, total, $381,500,000. If the payment is prolonged to ten years, the total will reach $455,000,000; if to twenty years, $560,000,000.

The fact that the people can earn six or seven per cent. with their money does not affect the case at all. There are no presumptions to show that they would make better investments than the persons to whom it is paid—namely, the bondholders. In fact, the presumptions are the other way. The bonds represent capital in the hands of the holders; and when they are paid off, the sums they receive will in ninety-nine cases out of every hundred be reinvested as capital and not squandered. There is no reason to suppose that anything like the same percentage would be laid aside and converted into capital if the money were left, as the saying is, "to fructify in the pockets of the people," especially when we consider the countless driblets in which it reaches the Treasury. As a general thing, when a tax is removed from an article, the consumer will buy and consume more of it, instead of putting the difference into the savings bank. This would undoubtedly be the case if the tobacco tax were repealed. The assumption that the money, if not taken, will "fructify in the pockets of the people" is without any substantial foundation. It is much more likely to fructify if it goes to somebody who has already saved up the equivalent of it in a Government bond, and who depends upon the interest, that is, upon the usefulness of it, for his living.

We have, therefore, nothing left to consider but the question whether, in the case mentioned, it is better to discharge a given debt by paying $381,500,000 or by paying $455,000,000, or by paying $560,000,000. It may be asked whether it would not be better to pay the whole $350,000,000 now, and thus save all the interest. It would be better if it were convenient, but it happens to be inconvenient to pay so much at one time. The whole question of national-debt paying is one of convenience. If those who argue for a less rapid reduction can show that it is inconvenient to those who pay—not to those who receive—and more inconvenient than prolonged interest payments, they may make out a case. But to do so, they must prove that a forced distribution of the national earnings is a good policy *per se*, and ought to be perpetuated.

THE "CORNER" AND "FUTURE" INQUIRY.

The inquiry into the effect of "corners" and "futures" on public morality which a committee of the Legislature is carrying on, has assumed a distinctly bouffe character and reflects but little credit on all concerned. Indeed, it is enough to make a New Yorker hang his head for shame to have an official investigation of this kind pending in one of the leading commercial cities of the world. The appearance of the clergy in it is particularly regretable. Every man cuts a somewhat ridiculous figure who undertakes to throw light on a subject of which he confesses he knows nothing, and in this position the ministers summoned by the Committee seem to place themselves with a certain solemnity when beginning their testimony. The effect of their testimony is to make them a laughing-stock to the profane, and especially to the dealers in "futures," and to diffuse an uncomfortable suspicion that the Committee called them in order to diminish popular respect for their office.

The Rev. John J. Reed's testimony, in the course of which he quoted Proverbs against "withholding" corn, and in favor of prompt sales, and Amos against false weights and measures in the grain trade, was a melancholy example of the way in which a simple-minded clergyman may sometimes be betrayed into providing popular entertainment by the injudicious use of his professional lore. He had prefaced these citations first by acknowledging that he had no practical knowledge of his subject, and then by some politico-economical utterances which it is to be hoped have been jumbled by the reporters. If he is correctly reported, one does not know what comment to make on the dicta that "prices should be made to depend as far as possible upon the law of supply and demand," and that "other influences affecting prices should be looked on with suspicion," and that "there was a temptation to commit fraud where the right to property, and not the property itself, was transferred." Mr. Reed laid down these doctrines, he said, as a "teacher of morals"; but no one is fit to be a teacher of morals in our day, at least to business men, who has not some little knowledge of jurisprudence, of political economy, and of the casuistry of trade. It is to be hoped the theological seminaries have found this out.

The two witnesses who have up to this time distinctively made their mark in the proceedings are Henry Ward Beecher and Jay Gould. Mr. Beecher took in the farcical side of the inquiry at a glance, as proved by confessing himself a dealer in "futures" by profession. But in answering the numerous silly questions which were afterward put him, he gave the Committee some very valuable, though very elementary, lessons, both in political economy and applied morality. That these lessons were much needed may be inferred from the fact that he was asked "how he would regulate the standard of prices for commodities"; "whether nature does not contribute something to the value of the necessaries of life"; whether the prices of breadstuffs are not affected by "the laws regulating climate, the atmosphere, and various other causes controlled by the Deity"; what his opinion was of "the natural value of a field of wheat"; "what is illegitimate speculation"; and what was "his opinion of a man who does not try to cultivate Christian principles by controlling his temper."

Jay Gould showed himself a complete master of the whole subject, and his evidence might really be called a useful little lecture on speculation in produce and stocks. He holds, as everybody must hold who knows anything of the history of speculation, that the great check, and the only practical and effective check, on speculation in anything, is the great losses sustained by the vast majority of those who speculate. No legislation can provide a substitute for this. He holds, too, that corners in grain almost always result in giving higher prices to the producer, and thus stimulating production, while the losses fall on those who make the corners; that the less we interfere with traders, and the more we leave their rewards and punishments to the operation of natural laws, the better we make our market and the more capital we draw hither from all parts of the world; and the more capital there is, the more difficult "corners" and all other illegitimate transactions on a great scale become. Congress was, during the war, very much annoyed by "corners" and "futures" in gold, which it held were got up by the enemies of the country, and other wicked persons, to discredit the Government. Under the lead of

Thaddeus Stevens, it passed an act forbidding speculation in gold. Gold instantly rose higher than ever, and the act was soon repealed. The lesson ought not to be forgotten by this time, and yet this very foolish inquiry makes it seem as if it had been forgotten by the politicians, and as if some of our ministers had never heard of it.

There is one species of speculation to which inquiry ought to be directed, and which is as much within the purview of legislation as any other breach of trust, and now constitutes one of the crying scandals of American finance, and that is the speculation of railroad officers in their own stocks. Much of this is as fraudulent as any confidence operation, and much of it, though perhaps not all, could be reached by criminal justice, or by State supervision. State supervision, at all events, could prevent to a considerable degree the management of roads in support of a "short" interest in the stock on the part of the officers, or, in other words, the plunder of the stockholders in aid of the speculations of their agents.

THE BRITISH MINISTERIAL CHANGES.

Mr. Childers, who is to take Mr. Gladstone's place as Chancellor of the Exchequer, is the second person who has under him held that position after receiving his political training in Australia—a curious illustration of the reflex influence of the colonies on English social and political life. The career of Mr. Lowe, now Lord Sherbrooke, who was the first, in fact remarkably resembles Mr. Childers's. Both are sons of clergymen, both graduated with honors at Cambridge, and both went to Australia as soon as they left college. Mr. Lowe, however, practised successfully at the colonial bar, while Mr. Childers went at once into colonial politics, and rapidly became a leading man under the then newly-established government of Victoria, devoting himself mainly to questions of trade and finance. Both stayed in Australia seven years, and both then came back to England, and entered Parliament, and rapidly got into office, and both finally became Chancellors of the Exchequer under Mr. Gladstone. It is to be said, however, that Mr. Lowe did not fill the place successfully, and his mistakes had much to do with bringing about the defeat of the Liberals in 1874, although his unfitness had been recognized in the previous year by his transfer to the Home Office. It was his breakdown, too, which first led Mr. Gladstone to assume the double duty of First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, from which Mr. Childers's appointment relieves him.

Mr. Childers was First Lord of the Admiralty under Mr. Gladstone's first Ministry in 1868, but had to resign in 1871 from ill health. His strength lies mainly in his organizing power, of which he gave striking proof while in the Admiralty, and still more striking proof recently in charge of the War Office, in which it has fallen to his lot to carry to completion and improve upon Lord Cardwell's great scheme of army reorganization. His experience in financial and mercantile affairs, owing partly to natural taste and partly to the possession of a large private fortune, is very great, and he has from time to time issued pamphlets on financial topics which, though not popular in the ordinary sense of the word, are considered weighty in "the City." He differs from his prototype, Lord Sherbrooke, also in believing in popular government, or, at all events, not fearing it, and in feeling that the best days of the human race are not yet over.

Lord Derby, who is said to be coming into the Cabinet too, but whose views, if this be true, about Irish Home Rule appear to differ curiously from Mr. Gladstone's, is the great English apostle of common sense. He forms a striking contrast in temperament to his father, who used to be called the "Rupert of debate" by his Tory contemporaries, and whose fervid genius and habit of dealing with questions offhand used to scandalize his painstaking and unimaginative son when he came into public life, and furnished at least a foundation for the story that the son observed, half in despair, "that if his father would only work he might come to something." Lord Derby really belongs to a very large type of Englishmen in whose lives the imagination plays little part, and who are always standing on guard with a kind of heroism against the illusions created by the feelings, and who make "seeing things as they are" the great business of man on earth. If it was not for a dogged courage which nothing can dismay or dishearten, and an endless capacity for toil, the type, which is a very large one, would long ago have arrested the stream of English progress, and given the state a distinctly Chinese civilization.

No public man now living can equal Lord Derby in seeing both sides of any question. Of this his dealings with Russia when he was the Foreign Secretary of the Beaconsfield Cabinet furnished an almost comic illustration. He used to furnish the deputations who came up to see him about the Russians or about the Turks with such excellent summaries of the reasons both for action and inaction, that he dumbfounded and reduced them to silence. He can talk common sense, too, on any subject by the hour, and is for this reason particularly happy as a popular lecturer on wages, or thrift, or land-tenure. In discoursing on themes like these to plain people, he has all the air of a man who is constantly trying to get the very most out of life, on an income of about $1,000 a year.

Lord Hartington's transfer to the War Office has no special significance, nor has Lord Kimberley's to the Indian Affairs. Lord Hartington has the Derby temperament, but with much less capacity for work. In fact, he is supposed to carry on a perennial and almost desperate conflict with constitutional indolence; but he has steadily grown during the last ten years in the House of Commons, speaking little, though always with force. Though the heir of a great dukedom, he shows, in the fidelity with which he follows the explorations of Gladstone's daring political imagination, that he has not only the traditional courage of his order, but that unquenchable faith in English political ideas and in the destinies of the English people which has always saved the English aristocracy from drifting into the attitude of sulky and alarmed isolation, of which the French nobility furnishes such a melancholy example.

FRENCH COLONIZATION.

The French Government has within two or three years been displaying an extraordinary eagerness to plant colonies and acquire dependencies in semi-barbarous countries. The same spirit showed itself during the latter part of the seventeenth century and the early part of the eighteenth, under the old monarchy. Extensive territories were seized in America, and a very large emigration for those days was poured into them, and settlements were made in India which seemed to promise at one time the rise of a French empire in that region to compensate France, as England was afterward compensated, for the loss of her possessions in America. Under the Empire, however, all colonial aspirations were utterly abandoned, and whatever spirit of adventure there was in the people was absorbed by European wars and attempts at European domination.

The Monarchy of the Restoration, to which the field of European conquest was necessarily closed, tried to revive the Bourbon traditions by the seizure of Algiers, now nearly fifty years ago, but there the matter ended. The Algerian colony has not succeeded. It has not yet got beyond the garrison stage. Few Frenchmen go there, and, when they go, show but little ability to get on without Government supervision or protection. Of late years there has been somewhat more progress, but it is slow and sickly. After the Algerian conquest, too, the great fact began to show itself that French population was stationary, and likely to remain stationary. This, when it first became apparent, about forty years ago, startled French politicians and surprised economists everywhere. During the early part of the present century it was the fixed belief of this latter class that, peace being restored, the French people would multiply enormously, as the Irish had multiplied. One English economist predicted that by our time France would be "the great pauper warren of Europe," and would furnish hewers of wood and drawers of water to all other countries. The French, however, refused to multiply, and, under the new social régime, began to display that deeply-rooted love of home and preference for thrift to adventure as a means of growing rich which are now such potent factors in French politics.

This killed all colonizing schemes on the part of the Government, and led the Second Empire to take up once more the rôle of an arbiter in European politics, and to attempt extensions of the French territory in Europe. It recognized the fact that, as the London *Economist* recently remarked, the French people have never supported their Government in schemes of distant aggrandizement; that nothing beyond the seas touches the French popular imagination. In fact, the French mind has always refused to take in the geography of the globe, and remains in much the same condition about the earth, in spite of all the schools and colleges can do, as that of the ancients in the days of Herodotus. The world for it contains France and two or three adjacent countries, all flat, and beyond them there is the "ocean stream" and Cimmerian darkness. In one of the recent

French opéra-bouffes one of the characters describes foreign parts generally as consisting of "le Canada, les Canaries, les Colonies, et cetera," which is probably as near as most Frenchmen come to realizing the world outside France. Hamerton, in his charming book on French home life, describes a French lady living quite near the Swiss border as being under the impression that Switzerland was further off than England, probably because she saw more Englishmen than Swiss.

The Republican Government is now turning to the foreign-colony enterprise for the same reason that the Restoration conquered Algiers, because it is cut off from republican adventures nearer home. The seizure of Tunis after the absurd campaign against the Krumirs would have been followed by interference in Egypt if that had not seemed to threaten European complications. But it has been followed by an attempt to establish a protectorate over the western and northwestern coasts of the island of Madagascar, against which the Malagassy Government has sent an embassy to Europe to protest, and by a similar attempt to establish one over the Anamese province of Tonquin, over which the Chinese now exercise some kind of sovereignty which they threaten to defend in arms. Finally, M. de Brazza's somewhat ridiculous treaty with King Makoko on the Congo has been submitted to the Chambers, and ratified with amusing haste and solemnity, as if it was a great thing which would make the British pale with envy.

It is pretty certain, however, that the French people will not support these schemes with anything like popular interest and attention, and, when once the novelty has worn off, these colonies will simply prove expensive garrisons, and not homes for French settlers. The reason is not wholly to be found in the absence of a superabundant population such as Great Britain and Germany possess. It is safe to say that distant conquests will never be popular in a country which raises its armies by conscription. Conscription is only tolerable when the troops are not likely to be taken far from home. It would be intolerable if they were much drawn on for service in distant and unhealthy climes. One of the great reasons why Englishmen have always so much enjoyed their wars at the far ends of the earth is that they are carried on by volunteers. In other words, the British foreign and colonial empire has been founded and is defended by men who soldier because they like it, and whose departure for the wars, therefore, sends none of the tremor of anxiety through the community which is produced in the Continental states by a scheme of military ambition.

THE DECLINE OF HOSPITALITY.

THERE exists an impression that American hospitality is in a bad way. To a certain extent the foreboding justifies itself. Any one can see that the lavish, unquestioning welcome of a primitive community to all claimants has well-nigh vanished; it lingers only on the frontiers; it is disappearing even from the South. In the cities, we keep our houses for ourselves and for our friends, especially our previously-invited friends. Nevertheless, among one class of Americans the tendency is for hospitality to grow freer and more diffuse. Nowhere is there a readier or—if one may so express it—more luxuriant hospitality than among very rich Americans. They fill their country-houses every summer. The travelling foreigner has some ado to save his digestion from their multitude of dinners. And the fashionable custom of always laying extra covers at luncheon for possible guests, speaks loudly for their ever-ready cordiality. Nowhere, too, is the entertaining more genuine, cheerful, or informal. Unhappily this charming hospitality stops with the very rich. They, truly enough, open their houses to their friends. The rest of us are apt rather to bar them, taking down the bars only on special occasions and with due formality. We still have to give the members of our own and our husband's immediate families bread and lodging, though no invitation have summoned them. But other people we keep civilly at arm's length. Our transient hospitality is as rigid. We do not like to have guests on the spur of the moment. How many husbands, for instance, venture to bring a friend home with them as often as inclination prompts? Men are hospitable by nature. They enjoy unceremonious entertaining. It pleases them to display their wives and children and houses. But, commonly, their wives are of quite another mind. The luckless husband is apt to run full tilt against some sacred household ordinance of washing, or ironing, or baking, with the saddest results to the family peace. His rash and ignorant good feeling hurries him into invitations and makes him forget that the day is Monday, a solemn occasion of purification, a day fittingly observed by a semi-fast, or that it is Tuesday, when we iron, or that a dressmaker is in the house, and all the week must be spared. But enlightenment comes soon. A succession of catastrophes teaches him a wise timidity. He grows wary through tribulation. The chances are so much against his hospitality hitting a day when no harm will be done, that he gives up asking his friends to risk them. Instead, if he lives in a large city and can in any wise afford it, he joins a club and takes his friends there. If he lives in the smaller towns, he can only gratify his sense of the obligations of good-fellowship, in a saloon, by "setting up the drinks." Neither of these alternatives is to most wives' taste; but they are the popular alternatives just the same.

Hospitality, then, would not appear to have waned among men; it has merely changed its form—and its place. The real decline has been among women. Yet very rich women are indefatigably hospitable; to be a delightful hostess is part of every "great lady's" social equipment. Behold a mystery. Here is one class of women actively promoting hospitality, and another class—many of them the equals of the first in everything save money—stubbornly though silently narrowing its limits. The mystery, however, is shallow. When all is said, hospitality is a sort of barbaric virtue only half acclimated in civilized climes, and thriving best among the class that has the nearest approach to the barbaric leisure and recklessness.

The barbaric welcome is fascinating, but, after all, it costs the barbarian little. The coming of a stranger is a pleasant break in a monotonous life. The barbarian has plenty of time on his hands; generally he has a rude plenty of provision and service; when he has not, he is too reckless of the morrow to be troubled, and shares his last crust with a stranger without dread of future hunger. Just how much improvidence has to do with generosity one does not venture to say; but, certainly, most of the hospitable races have been improvident—which holds true with the civilized as well as the barbarians. Take the Scotch Highlander, or the Irish peasant, for example. Now, the whole tendency of industrial civilization is to make men more provident. At the same time life constantly becomes more crowded; compared with an Arab sheik, all we civilized people are in a hurry. So it happens that we are at once too prudent and too busy to be barbarously hospitable. The single class possessing the barbaric requisites for hospitality—recklessness and leisure—is the very rich: they *are* hospitable.

There is another reason, possibly going deeper. One result of the generally diffused ambition of Americans is a general pretence. We all hope for better things than we enjoy, and meanwhile most of us try to seem to have captured more of them than we have. This pretence is a very deadly foe to hospitality. Barbarians are comparatively free from it; ignorant savages that they are, they have no "company dishes" or "company manners." The very rich resemble the barbarians, making little change in their manner of living for ordinary guests. But the average American woman is always struggling to live better before the outside world than she can before her own household. She "makes a difference" for "company." Hence these tears. As a rule she has too few servants for the work of her house; and "making a difference" involves additional work, which, flung on already overburdened shoulders, reacts on the servant's temper much as it would on that of any one else. Thus she comes to dread her husband's thoughtless hospitality, liable to light on Mondays, Tuesdays, or that awful season when the house is, as it were, recreated and goes into a preliminary chaos. In truth it is her lack of service, not her lack of kindliness, which makes her less hospitable than her rich acquaintance with the extra covers at luncheon. She has no leisure, because she tries to live outwardly as well with her three or two or one servant as does a woman with six. The disproportion, often, between the house, the dress, the table, and the service of an American family, especially outside the great cities, is something appalling. All over the land are women with large houses and a single maid-servant. The woman's husband is not poor, and the house is expensively furnished. Perhaps there are three or four children. By economy and clever observation, and doing dreadful things to her back over a sewing-machine, she contrives to dress her children and herself as "stylishly" as does her richest neighbor. This is a triumph. A triumph, also, is her little feast when she opens her doors to invited friends. But at other times the labor of the household is so ingeniously parcelled out that there are no spare chinks of time or thought for idle, aimless, unrequited hospitality.

Doubtless there is much to be said for this hard-working creature's refusal to do more than she does. Indeed, how can she?

JOTTINGS IN VIRGINIA.

NOVEMBER, 1882.

THERE are great new piers, storehouses, and coal-dumps at Newport News, and around them the dwellings of the workmen, with plenty more going up. The place has become a railway terminus, and, having deep water for ships without the annoyance of a bar for them to pass over, is to be made a great port. It is no longer an argument for not making a place a port that it is not one already. The age of short lines to tide-water and quick seizure of points of vantage on all our coasts has arrived. The stir at Newport News recalls that going on contemporaneously at San Diego, at the other extreme of the continent, though the enterprise there is at present not quite in the same hands. The Chesapeake & Ohio is a "Huntington line," just as

there are elsewhere Gould lines and Vanderbilt lines. Huntington, President already of the Central Pacific and Southern Pacific Roads, is anxious to have a transcontinental line. This is his ambition in life. Well, building here, buying and leasing there, and *en route* establishing a thriving city named after himself on the Ohio River, he bids fair to accomplish it, and that very briefly. He will make complete connections across the Southwest, running by way of Richmond, Louisville, Memphis, and Little Rock, with his Southern Pacific Road in Texas. Newport News will be the eastern terminus at tide-water of his new short line, and, as things have gone in the past, it is difficult to see how a city can fail to spring up there. And later on, if this should be accomplished, with so flourishing a city as Norfolk on the opposite side of the wide mouth of the James, and the favorable anchorage and climate, it will be according to all precedent if many important settlements should arise all round the circle of these waters.

Our train follows nearly the line of Keyes's advance, when he moved out in command of McClellan's left wing, keeping near to the bank of the James, ten months after Butler's repulse. It was my first visit to the country, and I confess that these war memories interested me more than anything else. There is very little actual provender for them along the way at this distance of time. I found a one-armed Virginia colonel in the train who was willing to talk a little about them, and I carried a copy of Webb's 'Peninsula' in my satchel, but they proved equally uninteresting. Here and there, as at Lee Hall, was a slight vestige of earthworks, gloomy mounds like beaver-dams, set between the trees of the forest along some brook or depression in the ground. It is at such points—a ravine, a morass, or petty bridge—that men die in war, filling up with their bodies the inequality of surface, as in a circuit of electricity the deadly spark of havoc leaps forth most fiercely where the direct way of communication is interrupted.

At quaint old Williamsburg, the seat of royal power in the colony of Virginia, is another trace of earthworks. Here Hooker lost 2,200 men. There is an attractive glimpse of sundry steeples and gambrel roofs, some of which seem green with moss. The railroad does not take pains to go too close to its curiosities, but, after the manner of the Levite more than the good Samaritan, passes them by on the other side. It is said that the Williamsburgers, content with their traditions of two hundred and fifty years, at first objected to the railroad, but they are now highly reconciled to it. The face of the country cannot have changed a great deal since the war. The railroad has some new stations, endowed with such names as Argenta and Oreana, which seem quite in the forest primeval. The Peninsula, in fact, has been more shunned by immigrants than some other parts of Virginia, on account of its having been early made an especial rendezvous and paradise of the colored people. They flocked into it when Butler held command at Fortress Monroe, and have never since gone away. They fish and take oysters a little in the rivers on either side, scratch the ground for some small corn-patches on the large, unimproved estates, and principally, if their white neighbors may be believed, "trifle" and "frolic."

We met the Chickahominy, in a lake-like bend partly veiled by pine-trees, at a station called Lanexa; then were presently crossing the battle-field of Seven Pines, at Fort Lee. It is a good fighting country this, for the tactics of regular warfare—level and clear but for a short scrub growth which must have come up since. There is a redoubt of red earth and the stylish new station of the railway to look at. Whoever would have realizations of the carnage of the Titanic contests hereabout, must draw them principally from his own imagination.

I advanced upon Richmond with much greater ease than the predecessors we have been considering, yet I cannot honestly call it a great prize to enter into the possession of. It does not correspond with preconceived ideas of the capital of a great State for which so much blood and treasure were poured out. I should call Richmond at present a rather shabby-genteel place, though it must be remembered that a part of it was burned and rebuilt. The best hotel is a very poor one; there are no large trees in the streets, and there is an absence in the dwellings, even those of the better class along the fashionable thoroughfares of Franklin and Grace Streets, of that air of genial breadth and comfort which has been supposed to be characteristically Southern. It is surpassed even by Norfolk in this respect. On the other hand, the modernness by which this is replaced is of the most cold and tasteless pattern. Rents are high in Richmond, I was told; it has now its eighty thousand people, and it presents along the James River a scene of active manufacturing in the departments of iron, of flour milling and warehousing, but it needs nothing so much as either a going back to old Southern traditions in the matter of building, or a start in that modern architectural and decorative movement which has taken possession of so much of the rest of the country.

I went to see Libby Prison. It is a fertilizer factory now, with an undesirable odor. There is no dungeon air about it. It is a long, stout brick building, once used as a tobacco factory, and rows of stout square posts uphold its three floors. It was only necessary to clap gratings over its windows, and there was a prison ready-made. One could camp out there for a night or two with a pallet, or even a blanket, comfortably enough. The hardship would be in the duration of it. There are some rude checker-boards marked out on the floors on which the captives cast themselves down, and vestiges of a tunnel through which eighty of them made their way out, coming up through a horse-stable and taking to the fields. The visitor need not fear to intrude. The place has become, in connection with the fertilizer industry, one of the few show places in this poor modern America of ours, and there is a talkative young cicerone to show you through. Every few days, he says, some old inmate comes back to muse again upon the scene of his incarceration. They tell him all sorts of anecdotes, and he writes them down in a book, which he says he intends to have published. I resisted the temptation to represent myself as a returned veteran, but endeavored to ingratiate myself in the next most effectual way by purchasing for an exorbitant price a good-for-nothing lithograph, with which a splinter of the floor was thrown in. Belle Isle, again, is a mere bare islet in the river, with a knoll in the centre and the pier of a railroad bridge resting upon it.

Hollywood Cemetery looks down upon Belle Isle. In this cemetery one of the most dignified monuments I ever saw has been erected by simply piling up a great pyramid of rough, uncemented stones, and training ivy upon it. It is to the memory of the Confederate dead. A great Confederate lies buried elsewhere, at the top of the principal slope of the place. A careful hand keeps his grave yet rounded and flowers lying upon it. "Maj.-Gen. J. E. B. Stuart," the lettering reads on the granite shaft, "Confederate States Cavalry, Wounded May 11, died May 12, 1864. Aged 31 years." The oak leaves were drifting down, and thick under foot; there were red holly berries to be seen among their glossy dark-green leaves; a Jacqueminot rose or two was yet in bloom, and it was very quiet there. Such fire and dash lying so still and unresisting under that bit of mound! The select club of Richmond is the Westmoreland, which occupies one of the few large old houses, and manages to keep up a certain stately air, while some one or two others have but a poor existence. There is to be seen on the walls of the club a portrait of this "Jeb" Stuart, which represents him with a long sandy beard, costumed in gray, with a peculiar kind of backwoods' dash, not unlike our own Custer in effect. The fashionable drive of the Richmondites is a bit of level road, by a reservoir, with white fences around it, and a race-track at one side for extra fast going. People go up one side of the short boulevard and down the other, and repeat. There are said to be more teams, in proportion to the population, in the place than almost anywhere else, but they are not often elegant, and the roads are very dusty.

I went from Richmond to Charlottesville. There had been a spatter of snow and hail in the afternoon; and though it passed over, so that we saw Louisa Court-House and other small stations, of which Gordonsville is the largest, and the pleasant-looking country about them, by moonlight, it was still cold. The old negro who showed me to my room at the hotel spoke of it as a good night to sleep in a feather-bed, calling my attention to the fact that I had one. I walked all over Charlottesville at once, stretching my legs before retiring, as, I make no doubt, is the way of many other travellers. It was sunk in profound slumber at half-past nine, the hour of arriving. Only a light or two burned in some of the large brick houses which looked imposing in the dark. They were less imposing by daylight, but still comfortable. Charlottesville has made a good deal of money in its time from tobacco. It is doing something now, also, in wine-growing. There is at one part of the town a sort of little plaza containing a rusty old yellow-washed court-house, with a classic portico and a Dutch cupola painted green. The shabby brick buildings around it had their shutters up for the most part, and seemed to be in the occupation of negroes. Jefferson once practised in the court-house. Saddle-horses were tied to the fence-posts, and rusty country lawyers with a self-satisfied air were seen going in and out of the offices.

Charlottesville contains the University of Virginia, a really charming place, without reservation, which I am glad to have seen. It is a little out of the town, and stands on a rise which makes the outer face of the buildings a story higher than the inner. They are in red brick, profusely colonnaded with white columns, and date from 1825. The main interior quadrangle is particularly attractive. I know of no other educational institution that has so genial a feature. A one-story colonnade, with students' rooms behind it, broken from space to space by professors' houses with classic porticos, borders each of two sides of a long level lawn. A third side is stopped by a great porticoed edifice, containing among other things the library, a round-domed room within, on the principle of the British Museum. The fourth side is open, looking off upon a pleasant country and blue hills. Toward this a student was seen stealing off now and then with his gun. The university, it will be remembered, was the last pet of Jefferson in his old age. Assisted by his accomplished daughter, Mrs. Randolph, he had the professors and students to dine with him regularly, taking them in turn, over at his seat of Monticello near by. I learn from a printed copy of some reminiscences with which an old alumnus favored the last Commencement that he made it a point to put each young man at his ease, finding some subject, as perhaps a person

of importance or a family from the part of the State from which he came, about which he could talk with confidence. It is a pity that such kindly and admirable manners are not more extensively imitated. This institution of learning prides itself on having been established on the eclectic or voluntary system of studies at the very first. The usual four years' curriculum and all "the old unmeaning titles," as they were called, were swept away. The student was to finish his course soon or late, and he was to be simply "Graduate." These were among the minor innovations of a man who was never afraid of anything new, who had more than anybody else to do with the abolition of primogeniture and entail and the separation of Church and State, and was once looked upon as a very dangerous radical indeed. The title Graduate was in time found not wholly to serve, and later there have been established Proficient; Graduate (of a school); Doctor of Philosophy (in a number of varied departments); Bachelor of Arts, and Master of Arts, the last two not differing greatly in significance from those to which we are used. In the library hung portraits of the same Jeb Stuart I had seen at Richmond, and of Lee. "You have heard of them," said the custodian, pointing with a thumb turned back. "Well, rather," I could afford to reply. It is fortunate that we can both have our side in the little joke. They fought magnificently, and gave us a world of trouble, but we beat them.

Mrs. Jeb Stuart, I may mention, keeps a school at Staunton—a notable place for select young ladies' schools, said to be chosen for the purpose on account of its healthful, mountainous situation. The lions of Staunton in "Porte Crayon's" time were its Deaf and Dumb and Lunatic Asylums and its refined society. I cannot judge of the refined society, which did not appear on the street to any great extent, in the throngs attending a sheriff's sale of stock at the court-house; but the others are its lions still. The principal business street is commonplace, with that kind of commonness inhering in the cheapest of little brick buildings. I actually walked through one ward of the Lunatic Asylum, and brought away a knowledge that it is pervaded by the usual odor of chicory coffee and chloride of lime belonging to public beneficent institutions everywhere—which is a fuller report than was rendered by the once so much read "Porte Crayon" himself.

On the way to Staunton and beyond it, in the intervals of gazing out at the striking mountain scenery of West Virginia, I found it interesting to read portions of the article of a young man published in the last number of the *Virginia University Magazine*. It covered all departments of life in the customary way, with a particular application of its philosophy to ourselves. It quite despaired of us in the matter of art. He had had the advantage of listening to lectures and investigating the most famous galleries abroad, yet "the lamented fact must be admitted," he said, "that the overdrawn and weird paintings of Gustave Doré, who is said to be a third-class artist of no genius, have given the writer more pleasure than the great paintings of Raphael or Angelo. . . . If, then, one who was willing to make a special study of this subject for several years, with the aid of the best advantages of Europe, was able to make such poor progress, what hope is there for the masses of our people?" Again, in literature, "a friend of the writer, a brilliant young Englishman, a Hibard scholar, A.M. of London, etc., held it as his opinion that, as things exist, it would be impossible for America to produce a literature of any importance." The writer does not agree to this, and hopes it may be wrong, but gives it only as "the curious and interesting belief of a man of great learning and good common sense." I do not know how much weight may attach to revelations from such a source, but this from the naïve and sophomoric author, on politics, was the most entertaining of all. Touching on the corruption of the ballot, he says:

"There were two alternatives offered our people: on the one hand, to suffer that blackness of chaos, the negro rule; on the other, the corruption of the ballot. . . . It is dreadful, we admit, to have the very foundation on which our Government rests corrupt and impure; it is pitiable to see old soldiers, who were once proud to call themselves Southern gentlemen, who were ever brave and true, fighting nobly through many battles, forgetting their former worth, and engaging in this wrong; but that blackness, the ruin of that other alternative, were by far the worst to be dreaded. We should pity ourselves that we have to use fraud and corruption because we are placed between two so great evils; . . . but we should never condemn ourselves, for here as well as elsewhere necessity knows no law. For a time this corruption was kept secret, and no man spoke about it; now it is talked of on all hands, and is so apparent that no one takes the trouble to deny it. . . . First, the negroes were offered inducements to come over to the Democrats, and while, through the corruption of the ballot, it was made to appear that many availed themselves of this opportunity, yet in reality this conversion has happened as rarely as the proverbial angels' visits."

W. H. B.

OPENING THE LANDTAG.

BERLIN, November 26, 1882.

THE Prussian Landtag was opened on the 14th instant by a speech from the throne. As it was the first session of a new legislative period, King William delivered the address in person. The old gentleman looked very much broken-down and infirm of age. Formerly stout and erect, with a splendid carriage, he appeared half a foot smaller, with his head inclining to one side. Considering, however, his eighty-five years, it is a wonder not only that he still can stand all the troubles of his position, but that he goes hunting in the country and attends parties and visits the opera-house. My impression is that any day may end the useful and uncommonly long life of a prince whose glory consists in always having fully and nobly done his royal duty.

During the elections for the Prussian House of Deputies the Government most carefully abstained from publishing any particulars of its immediate policy. The royal message, however, gives us an insight into it, and explains why all allusions have hitherto been avoided. In my opinion the late elections would have assumed quite a different character—that is, the Conservatives would inevitably have been defeated—if the King's views, prompted by his Chancellor, had been known before. A year ago the elections for the Reichstag had proved unfavorable to the Government on account of Prince Bismarck's widely-spread plans for new taxes and monopolies. He was too open and communicative then. For this reason he kept his plans secret while the elections to the Landtag were going on. The official and officious press hinted that the Chancellor's former plans had been modified or even laid aside, although people ought to have known that it is impossible to stop on a declivity, and that Prince Bismarck is not the man to give up any of his pet measures. Thus, it was repeatedly stated that the so-called "Verwendungsgesetz," which required the Reichstag to pass new taxes to the amount of 188,000,000 marks, in order to provide the funds necessary for covering the Prussian deficit, was no longer thought of. This statement was true as far as its form was concerned, while in fact not only 188,000,000, but more than 200,000,000 marks are now to be raised by the Reichstag in order to balance the Prussian accounts. All that Prince Bismarck desires is to exercise a coercion through the Prussian Diet on the German Reichstag, and therefore all the electors of the latter are greatly interested in what is now going on in the former body. If Prussia were to raise the funds necessary for her new budget within her own boundaries and under her particular laws, no non-Prussian would have a right to offer any objection; but as an enormous deficit will be created by the Government, and as the German Reichstag is to be required to make good the Prussian deficit by imposing hundreds of millions of new German taxes to pay the increase of Prussian expenses, people will be wide awake to keep off such a new and heavy burden.

Whether the Prussian Landtag will accept Prince Bismarck's draft, drawn on the Empire, remains to be seen; but so much is certain, that the Reichstag, in its present shape, will never honor such a draft. It has not the least interest in granting several hundred millions by increasing the German indirect taxes for the sole purpose of benefiting Prussia, especially as it has no constitutional authority to determine by its vote how the money shall be spent. Besides, it is utterly impossible to raise so large an amount from indirect taxes if the tobacco monopoly, or a very high tax on tobacco, be not included. The Reichstag, therefore, will reject such a demand. If so, Prince Bismarck will dissolve it, provided he feels sure that the character of the new Reichstag will agree with that of the present Landtag.

There is more method in this policy of creating an artificial deficit than may appear on a superficial glance. Mr. Scholz, the Prussian Secretary of the Treasury, even boasts of the deficit, as if he had accomplished a great triumph, and proposes to perpetuate it by voluntarily giving up the income tax of the four lowest classes. In order to cover this falling off, he further proposes to lay a domestic tax on large articles of consumption, such as tobacco, and on liquors sold in dram-shops—a measure which is unconstitutional, because the Reichstag alone has the right to impose domestic taxes and lay duties on foreign merchandise. As if the masses were not yet taxed highly enough! The Parliamentary Opposition does not object to a higher tax on tobacco, in itself considered, for tobacco does not belong among the necessaries of life; but the income of such a tax ought to be spent in alleviating other burdens. A heavy tax on liquors and spirits, of course, is humane and profitable, but it ought to be laid on their manufacturers, the rich real-estate owners in the eastern provinces, who always in the agricultural interest plead for the freedom of their trade, while they poison the people with their mean stuff, belong to temperance societies, and attend prayer-meetings. The truth is, that German spirits monopolize the European markets, and can easily bear a tax which will yield much more than if laid on small tavern-keepers and retailers. But not content with this, the Government soon proposes the increase of the duties on timber and wood, which three years ago were passed at the solicitation of the Silesian protectionists, among them one duke, five princes, ten counts (Field-Marshal Moltke one of their number), and about thirty barons, and other agriculturists. To secure to themselves still greater advantages at the cost of the poorer classes they also begin now to cry for higher duties on breadstuffs and provisions. I am not sure whether they will succeed in this or not. Whatever may be the result, the ultimate decision will not be given by the sound appreciation of moral justice and real facts, but by the conflicting interests of the agricultural and man-

ufacturing parties, the latter of whom declare themselves unable to increase further the prices of daily wants. For this reason, probably, no positive result will be reached, and a new loan must be raised to cover the large expenditures, which, with a little good-will, could easily have been avoided.

Let me mention, in this connection, a plan which greatly concerns the United States, too, and which belongs to the same class of schemes that benefit the well-to-do classes at the expense of the poorer people. I allude to the prohibition which the Government is preparing against the importation of American hogs and pork. Our farmers and agriculturists have for years kept up a lively agitation on this subject, and, while theoretically overflowing with pity for their poor brethren, had from the beginning, of course, a single eye to their own profit by excluding all cheaper competition from our markets. The matter is just as well as settled. The other day the Hamburg Chamber of Commerce sent two deputies to Berlin to remonstrate against the measure, but it was in vain. The Secretary told the gentlemen that in a few weeks the Federal Council would submit to the Reichstag a bill prohibiting all importation of American hogs and pork. Thus, the only hope rests in the Reichstag. I trust that it will endorse the Hamburg demands by rejecting the bill.

Our farmers, who have raised this artificial agitation, cannot and will not appreciate the fact that the development of a nation in an industrial and manufacturing direction requires a daily greater supply of victuals and provisions from abroad. Thus, by degrees, we have become a people which imports grain instead of exporting it, and in a like degree we have to import a yearly-increasing quantity of meat. The home production does not suffice to nourish the population, which has increased on a much larger scale than provisions and cattle. The question, therefore, for us, is not whether we must import meat or not, but simply where we can get it cheapest and best. Russia and Austria, which formerly supplied the German markets, have of late been surpassed by the United States, which sell their surplus of cattle and grain not only to Europe in general, but to Germany in particular. It is manifest that these enormous American imports have depressed the price and made the enjoyment of meat possible to the poorer classes here. Thus the mere fact that Germany is provided with cattle and meat by America is a real blessing for our people, which has since improved its standard of living. In fighting the plans of the Government, all our Liberals are led by the consideration that by the threatened prohibition our poor people will lose the opportunity of being nourished cheaply and well, and will be thrust back upon a lower standard. Lard, for instance, has only become a food with us on a large scale since it has been imported from America, while formerly it was a luxury. American lard, in 1879, cost 70 marks (or say $17) per 200 weight, and German 160 marks; but in consequence of the new tariff the relation of the prices of both of them is 125 to 145 marks.

Now our Government pretends that the American hogs and pork cannot be tolerated from a sanitary point of view, because the flesh and grease of deceased hogs are sold and packed together with those of killed ones; but this assertion is either an unfounded prejudice or a misrepresentation of well-known facts. The great bugbear for intimidating people here is the so-called hog cholera, which is represented as still raging among the American hogs; it is evidently calculated to make German consumers believe that they have to pay for dead and poisonous animals. Thus it appears that the German Government has no knowledge of the inquiry made about eighteen months ago by Mr. Scanlan, by order of Secretary Blaine, and of the pamphlet, "American Pork," published by this able expert on the results of his investigation. German gentlemen perfectly familiar with American business and the character of American wholesale merchants have explained over and over again that houses which pack and ship millions of hogs are too far-sighted—apart from common honesty and practical considerations—to ruin their reputation and business by a mean trick of mixing fallen hogs with the slaughtered ones. But it was all in vain, and the Secretary of the Treasury still falls back upon his hearsay evidence, which he fortifies with some stale and superficial arguments taken from a handbook on protective duties. It is a singular policy, not only to hurt the commercial interests of a nation which is a large customer of our manufacturers, but also to ruin the pork trade of our seaports. In deeming a tariff and "prohibition" war expedient, our Government overlooks the fact that its subjects will lose more than the Americans, who by revenging themselves can injure some of our most vital interests. This unexpected measure seems like an answer to former American prohibitions directed against German imports, not to mention the antiquated feudal but nevertheless American law which prohibits foreigners from inheriting real estate in most of the older States, and which has not yet been set aside, in spite of repeated remonstrances on the part of Germany, whose citizens, on account of their intimate relations with the United States, lose more under it than the members of any other foreign nationality.

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A DIPLOMATIC INTRIGUE.

FLORENCE, Nov. 28, 1882.

THERE are circumstances connected with the death of our late Minister at Rome which I think ought to be widely known, as a help toward getting our foreign representation out of its generally disgraceful and imbecile condition. Mr. Marsh was an old man, whose physical forces were failing, and who could not have survived many years, but whose condition had no immediate menace of change. His death was precipitated by the action of his Government, through a measure as wretched as any cheeseparing administration ever adopted. The failure of his physical powers had made him dependent more and more on his assistants, chiefly on Mr. Wurtz, Secretary of Legation, to whom Mr. Marsh was very much attached, and in whom he had the most unlimited confidence, and who from long tenure of the office and intimacy with his chief was an aid such as no new man, however capable, could be. The habits of the old man had settled into a comfortable substitution of Mr. Wurtz's energy and efficiency for his own failing physical powers, and it would seem that no petty advantage to be gained from any official changes could, under such circumstances, have justified what must be looked on as a deliberate attempt to make untenable Mr. Marsh's position, on the part of some home officials who wished it to be vacated and dared not dismiss the incumbent.

Under a sheer pretext of economy, the functions of Consul-General and Secretary of Legation were laid on one person, and, to dismiss Mr. Wurtz, a new Consul-General was appointed who was to be also Secretary of Legation. Of course, in the characteristic neglect of decency of our Government when dealing with diplomatic matters, not only was an old and tried employee dismissed, but a new man appointed who, however intelligent and willing, could not take Mr. Wurtz's place, and whom Mr. Marsh had not the physical energy left to initiate in his duties. The perpetration of such an open and extreme act of ill-will toward a functionary whose condition was so well known as was Mr. Marsh's, cannot have been through ignorance; and what makes the malevolence more apparent is that advantage was taken of Mr. Edmunds's absence from Washington, on account of a grave domestic affliction, to carry out the proposed change. This, concocted in all the secrecy of which a Congressional committee is capable, was carried out in a spirit of hostility to Mr. Marsh, who was never consulted as to the merits or advantages of the scheme, and was only notified by a telegram announcing the fact of the change in the personnel and organization of his legation. There was not even the degree of consideration shown him that an interval of warning would have been—Mr. Wurtz was suspended from all official functions abruptly.

It is reported that the change was not so much because of a desire for economy (for, when a new secretary was charged also with the duties of the consulate, the labor became such that an under-secretary was necessary, and the economy realizable was not more than $500 a year, even at the loss of efficiency) as because the diplomatic corps at Rome had refused to receive as an official colleague a consul-general of the United States of America; and the committee proposed to compel them to do so by uniting in one person the two offices. The consequences are curious: the Italian Government, which recognizes some rules of etiquette in its diplomatic proceedings, of which our Congressional committeemen and their advisers had no conception, refuses point-blank to recognize the two officers in one individual, and will only give the exequatur in one capacity. In its usual bungling manner, our Government had jumped into the dark and found itself in the mud. As Mr. Wurtz had been imperatively suspended, and the new double functionary had to drop one of his functions, he was compelled to become simple Secretary of Legation, and the consulate is vacant, being occupied pro tem. by a local banker who enjoyed the reputation (and merited it) of being the most disloyal Northerner in Rome during our war, and who actually negotiated with the Papal Government the nullification of the official action of our own Government with regard to those who were then known as Secessionists. We have a new minister with no knowledge of diplomatic matters, a secretary who cannot help him, no consul, and only a *locum tenens* whose disloyalty to the Government in the great crisis of its existence should forbid his ever having any relations with it.

To add to the obloquy which the Government merits by its trifling with the interests (if there be any) of the country in its foreign representation, the malignant blow at Mr. Marsh gave him a shock which was the immediate cause of his death. With his usual unselfishness and consideration for others, his first care and anxiety were given to Mr. Wurtz, so unworthily suspended from functions he had performed with the truest zeal and fidelity so long. But the sudden change in all Mr. Marsh's official relations, the contemplation of the difficulties thus thrown on him, and the conviction of his physical inability to carry out the accustomed duties in the new conditions; the derangement in his habits thus forced on him, and the slower-coming grief and annoyance at the indignity thrown both on him and his secretary by his own Government, gave him a shock which broke his courage and moral force together. He understood it as an act of hostility, but I do not believe that he felt—so great was his humility, and so complete his indifference to himself—that the movement was really the grossest insult ever

offered to a person of his position by our Government even in its worst days. The moral violence done him brought on the illness which ended, with needless acceleration, his life.

The facts are sufficiently known to the Italian Government to make the position of Mr. Marsh's successor delicate, and that of our own Government not enviable. There was no American living who had anything approaching the personal prestige with the Italian Government that Mr. Marsh enjoyed, and that not for the sake of his Government, but for his own; and not only will any man who goes into his place in this generation have a difficult example to follow, but he will have to convince people in Rome that he had no part in the conspiracy which killed the man so beloved by every one in the official Roman world, from the King down.

As for the agencies at Washington which have to be responsible for the crime against the dignity of their country, it can only be said that the affair shows in a more painful light than usual how they can unite utter ignorance of everything which pertains to diplomatic propriety and usage with utter indifference to the character and prestige of their representation abroad, and that the disasters of our wretched civil service affect not only our taxpayers and the resources of the country, the purity and efficiency of our home Government, but the decent dignity of the country in the eyes of foreign nations.

As for the conspirators in the petty intrigue which has shortened, even by a few days, the life of one of the noblest men America has ever produced, and made his last days days of pain and humiliation, I have only to say, as I know none of them, that they have, in recklessness or malice, committed a crime for which I hope public opinion will hold them responsible, and which will be remembered against them. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

BASTIEN-LEPAGE'S JOAN OF ARC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your recent notice of our heliotype of Bastien-Lepage's "Joan of Arc" refers to an apparent joint in the print, as if the negative were taken "in two parts," "as in a wood engraving in which the blocks have sprung."

Your critic has probably forgotten that the original picture is painted on two pieces of canvas joined up and down the centre, making a very visible seam.

Our print is made from a single negative only, but this joint in the original is necessarily indicated in our reproduction, and your critique is therefore a complete testimony to the fidelity of the heliotype.—Very respectfully,

James R. Osgood & Co.

Boston, Mass., December 15, 1882.

CELLINI AND THE CONSTABLE DE BOURBON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is not the passage in your Paris correspondent's interesting review of Plon's 'Benvenuto Cellini,' published in the *Nation* of Dec. 14, relative to the death of the Constable of Bourbon, likely to prove a little misleading? It is true, "Cellini does not boast in his memoirs of having killed the Constable," but he certainly means us to understand that the shot he fired caused the death of the French commander. This is the long-established popular impression; and that it is the natural deduction from Benvenuto's words would seem to be indicated by the fact that in the index to the Italian edition of the 'Life' (Milan: Carpani, 1806–11), and in that to the English translation by Roscoe (London: Bohn, 1847), we are referred to the page where we shall find how "Cellini kills the Duke of Bourbon." But here is Cellini's own account of the matter. After relating how he went to the fight, accompanied by Alessandro del Bene, Cecchino della Casa, and another youth whom he does not name, he continues:

"—Alessandro, much alarmed, answered: 'Would to God we had never come hither!' and, so saying, he turned with the utmost precipitation, in order to depart. I thereupon reproved him, saying, 'Since you have brought me hither, I am determined to perform some manly action,' and, levelling my arquebuse where I saw the thickest crowd of the enemy, I discharged it with a deliberate aim at a person who seemed to be lifted above the rest; but the mist prevented me from distinguishing whether he was on horseback or on foot. Then, turning suddenly about to Alessandro and Cecchino, I bid them fire off their pieces, and showed them how to escape every shot of the besiegers. Having accordingly fired twice for the enemy's once, I cautiously approached the walls, and perceived that there was an extraordinary confusion among the assailants, occasioned by our having shot the Duke of Bourbon. He was, as I understood afterwards, that chief personage whom I saw raised above the rest."

Roscoe translates Carpani's note to this passage: "All historians agree that Bourbon fell by a musket-shot early in the assault, while, distinguished by his white mantle, with a scaling-ladder in his hand, he was leading on his troops to the walls."—Truly yours, C. C.

New York, December 16, 1882.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Rebuke a wise man and he will love thee" is one of the utterance of that Book by whose precepts large numbers of Southern people profess to regulate their lives. I believe there are many such wise men among us, who earnestly desire to see much good done by your articles on homicide at the South, even though the reading of these articles may cause great pain, and even exasperation at times. I know that my own feeling at first was that I would stop my paper because of one of these editorials. But instead of acting in such a petulant and foolish way, I began to examine into the matter, and to discuss it with my friends. I will give you the testimony of four persons who are earnestly devoted to the South, and all of whom are persons of intelligence. One of the four felt no inclination to "bristle up" at your severe strictures, but instantly acknowledged: "As far as my experience goes the *Nation* is right." Another felt so indignant that he thought of writing you a sharp rebuke. But he first set his memory to work, and found that as far back as he could recollect he could recall on an average nearly a murder a year in his part of the country, but unfortunately could *not* remember that any of these murderers had been hung. So his article was never sent. The other two are ministers, one of them a man of great wisdom and experience. Both of these admit that in the main you are right, and think that you will probably do much good in the end. Your recent correspondent, "Y," seems to have unwittingly sent you a strong corroboration of your charges.

I wish now, through your columns, to say a few words to a certain class of your Southern readers, many of whom have no doubt been exasperated without being led to a right view of the matter. To such I would say: The sensible course for us to adopt is to direct our attention first of all to the important point of determining whether the grievous indictment of the *Nation* can to any considerable extent be laid at our door. The *animus* of the writer of these articles has nothing to do with our duty in the case. It matters not whether he has written in a spirit of hostility to us as a people or not. The question for us to decide is this: Is the charge to any fair extent *true?* Neither will it serve the purpose to say that the North is just as bad as we are, though perhaps in a different way. There is undoubtedly more Sabbath desecration North than South. In some of the Northern States the marriage-tie is dreadfully weakened beyond anything that we know at the South. We cannot afford to be so unwise, so blind to our own interests, as to take shelter behind such a worthless defence as this. The question still stares us in the face: Is the charge *true?* If it is—and many devoted Southerners lament that it is only too true—let us address ourselves to the task of correcting the evil as far as in us lies, and then we shall be in a better position to help our brethren of the North mend their ways. Even if we imitate no higher example than that of a heathen philosopher, let us have sufficient greatness of soul to say to the *Nation*, as Socrates said to an opponent: "If you convict me, I shall not be angry with you, but you will be enrolled as one of my greatest benefactors."

In one thing, Mr. Editor, I believe you have greatly erred, and that is, your statement that Southern men are in the habit of carrying arms. I do not pretend to quote your exact words, but I am certain that is their purport. Several of your correspondents have given their emphatic testimony against this, but you have taken no notice of it, and the charge still stands. It is certainly against all that I know of the matter, and I have met with no one who did not protest against it as contravening all of his experience. How are you prepared to sustain your assertion that the mass of Southern men are in the habit of carrying arms—or whatever the precise statement was? And if you cannot establish your charge, your character for fair and honorable dealing leaves you only one thing to do.

Yours respectfully,

X. Q. Z.

Virginia, December 18, 1882.

[We are not prepared to "sustain," if this means prove, that all or even the majority of Southern men carry arms. This is something not susceptible of proof. That a very large number carry arms, we infer from the frequency with which, whenever a sudden "difficulty" occurs, both parties are found to have weapons ready for the fray. But the question whether they carry arms or not is of no importance to our argument, and if our statements be either incorrect or exaggerated, it costs us nothing to withdraw them. We need hardly say that we have not brought the subject up either through hatred, malice, or uncharitableness. No journal at the North has so persistently pleaded the cause of the South as the *Nation*, and it did so at a time when it cost something to a Northern journal to plead it, and when journalistic defence or apology was of more consequence to the South than it is now. There is no possible or probable change in the condition of the Union which, in our mind, is so desirable as the growth of the South in wealth, population, and influence. We say influence, because we acknowledge freely that there are traits of Southern character and manners and social outlook which the North would be much the better for adopting or imitating. But the South can never be an influence at the North or anywhere else, can never produce a

social type which any civilized people will copy or admire, as long as it tolerates the practice of private murder in the settlement of disputes. These homicides, whatever Southerners may think or their newspapers may tell them, put the South, in the eyes of the rest of the world, in the category of semi-barbarous communities, and make its superior morality in other ways count for nothing. As the world now is, there is no use in telling people of the piety, the honesty, the domestic purity, the general security of a region where the men when they quarrel can shoot each other "on sight" with impunity. Southern young men who wish to raise their country—and not alone their section—in the eyes of the world, even if they are open to no higher motive, could do no nobler work than associate themselves to promote the faithful execution of the laws, and to discountenance the brutal and barbarous practice of public assassination.—Ed. Nation.]

SENATOR HOAR'S RE-ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In to-day's issue of the *Evening Post* I find the following:

"The opposition to his [Mr. G. F. Hoar's] reëlection still seems to be strong and active, especially among the younger Republicans—those who have come forward since the war; but the grounds of objection have not yet been very clearly stated."

As one entirely sympathizing in this opposition to Senator Hoar, I agree that the grounds for it have not, as you say, been clearly set forth. At least, if they have been, I have not seen them. I think, however, they can be set forth clearly enough. Put in the fewest possible words, I take them to be simply these: The younger Republicans, to whom you refer, instinctively feel that Mr. Hoar does not sympathize with them, or understand them, or interest himself in the objects they have in view. He is a man of a past generation.

Now, let me put the case in detail. Speaking roughly, from 1850 to 1870—a score of years—the political thought of this country was wholly absorbed in questions of human rights. Economical and administrative issues were little regarded, or regarded only as ways and means to the settling of things more important. There grew up, consequently, a whole race of public men—statesmen of the school of human rights. To this school Mr. Hoar belongs. He was educated in it as a youth; he has lived and had his being in it as a man; he now responds to its appeals, and to its appeals only.

Meanwhile time passes. While the country year after year was practically absorbed in these questions of human rights, our whole administrative machinery underwent an abnormal development, and economical education, from the political point of view, ceased. Grave abuses grew apace. Now, at last, intricate problems of finance, taxation, production, and distribution have presented themselves, and some one has got to handle them. Every younger and reflecting man knows that these are the pressing questions of the day. They are just as much the pressing questions of to-day as human rights were the pressing questions of yesterday. The years from 1870 to 1890 are not as the years from 1850 to 1870.

The questions peculiar to a political period can only be successfully dealt with by men of that period who have been trained to deal with them. They must be interested in the questions, and understand them. Accordingly, our public men of the earlier period—though Clay and Webster were among them—wholly failed to deal with the questions which had arisen in 1850. They were then succeeded by the men who actually, as we know, did deal with those questions. The objection we make to Senator Hoar now is, therefore, exactly the objection which the school to which Senator Hoar belongs made, and made justly, to men of the school anterior to 1850—the school in Massachusetts of Webster, Davis, Everett, and Winthrop. They belonged to a past generation.

No one questions Mr. Hoar's ability or experience; least of all do we question his honesty or singleness of purpose. The personal relations many of us have had with him have always been pleasant. We fully appreciate the peculiar influence which seniority in the Senate will give him. We simply say that, notwithstanding all this, he is not fitted, either by the natural temper of his mind or by education, to deal successfully with the public questions now before the country. And in saying this we insist that we say nothing derogatory to Mr. Hoar. He is an able man; but he is no abler than Mr. Winthrop, or Mr. Everett, or Mr. Webster. To say that not one of these understood the slavery question, or could possibly have grappled with it successfully, no matter how long they had been kept in the Senate, is only to repeat an acknowledged historical truism. The course of political events has simply swept by Mr. Hoar now, as it then swept by them.

This is no narrow criticism. It is, for instance, no good ground for objection to Mr. Hoar that he belongs to the most extreme protectionist school. An intelligent protectionist—one who thoroughly understands his side of the subject, and can present it—is always formidable, and always to be respected. His presence now in the Senate is quite as essential to any wise treatment of the tariff as is the presence of an equally intelligent freetrader. If anything, he is the more necessary man of the two. The difficulty with Mr. Hoar is that, while on this subject he talks freely, he does not talk upon it intelligently. What he says smacks of the shopkeeper and the village politician. There is in it no trace of the student or thinker. Accordingly it fails to command the respect of any man on either side of the question who really understands it. Were I called upon further to explain what I mean, I should but have to quote those more recent utterances of Mr. Hoar's at Washington, at Worcester, and upon the stump, which can be adequately met only by ridicule of the kind in which Dean Swift was an adept. So on finance. When the country struggled back to specie payments Mr. Hoar was in Congress. If he took any part at all in that great debate, his name is not remembered in connection with it. So also of the well-nigh incalculable fraud and outrage, the Arrears-of-Pensions Act. When that act was passed Mr. Hoar was in the Senate. It belonged to a class of acts which did not interest him; he was probably thinking at the time of the general and incalculable wickedness of the Democrats, or of the wrongs of the freedmen, or of the Poncas, or of the Chinese, or of the prospects of female suffrage, or of the Whittaker case. He was meditating on some aspect of human rights; and so he never scrutinized a measure which imposed on the producers of the country a burden of a thousand millions, fifty millions of which fell to the share of Massachusetts. It was only an economical question. Well, we think that the questions of the day are economical questions.

This then, as I understand it, is why the younger generation of Massachusetts Republicans instinctively dislike to reëlect Senator Hoar. They may not have thought the matter out so as to say so, but nevertheless they feel that what they are concerned in does not interest him. He is a vigorous relic of the past. With the utmost personal respect for him, they do not see the propriety of sending to the Senate a statesman of the school of human rights to solve questions of administration and political economy. It is much the same as it would have been in 1851, if, in order to avail ourselves of his experience, recognized ability, and seniority, Massachusetts had sent Robert C. Winthrop to the Senate which was to deal with the slavery problem as the question of the day, instead of sending the untried Charles Sumner. In fine, we of the opposition to Mr. Hoar, after long years of trial, firmly believe that he does not understand administrative and economical problems, that they do not interest him, that he is too old and too firmly set in his lines of thought to apply himself successfully to them.

Any one who will turn to Morley's recent life of Richard Cobden—one of the best and most instructive political treatises of the day, let me remark in passing—any one who will turn to that book, will find that all through his career Cobden was confronted in Parliament by a set of men honest, able, conscientious, experienced, who simply could not understand what he was talking about In answer to him, they kept repeating, over and over again, catchwords and cant phrases which to them were conclusive. They were incapable of learning by heart even, much less of comprehending, the horn-book of political economy. To that class, judging by his utterances and record, Mr. Hoar belongs in this country. If we return him to the Senate, therefore, any unfortunate Richard Cobden who may turn up there during the next six years will always run great risk of finding Massachusetts, with all her Senator's experience, seniority, and acknowledged ability, arrayed on every issue of to-day in the front rank of unintelligent opposition.

This we do not want to see. Consequently we prefer Governor Long to Mr. Hoar; not that Governor Long is the man we would choose, but, as compared with Mr. Hoar, he belongs to the year 1882, as opposed to the year 1862. We know he can learn, and we believe he will. In any event, however, we are very sure that if, in selecting a man to deal with the questions of the present, any thoughtful consideration were given to what those questions really are, Mr. Hoar's name would rarely be suggested as that of his own successor. If you choose to put it so, Why select an old war-horse to tug at a plough?

Bostoniensis.

New York, December 20, 1882.

Notes.

'Pen and Lute' is the title of a volume of poems by Richard Storrs Willis, brother of the late N. P. Willis, announced for immediate publication by Thorndike Nourse, Detroit, Michigan.

Mr. Joel Benton will, toward the close of the winter, publish, through M. L. Holbrook & Co., his essay on 'Emerson as a Poet,' read last summer before the Concord School of Philosophy—a more appropriate point of view, in our judgment, than "Emerson as a Philosopher" would have been. An excellent portrait of Emerson will be prefixed to the book, which will also contain a concordance to his poetry, and a bibliography of the periodical articles on Emerson from the beginning of his career.

Henry Holt & Co. desire us to state that the authorized edition of Serjeant Ballantine's 'Reminiscences,' which is being advertised by J. M. Stoddard & Co., is the work which the for-

mer firm brought out under an arrangement with the English publishers, and of which they have since sold the plates to the Philadelphia house.

Harper & Bros. will publish early in January the seventh edition of Liddell & Scott's 'Greek-English Lexicon.' The size of the page has been significantly increased in both dimensions, and the columns lengthened a full inch. American scholars have had a large and recognized share in the revision of this standard work.

Mr. Elizur Wright, whose address is Box 109, Boston, Mass., offers to send a copy of his book, 'Myron Holley, and What He Did for Liberty and True Religion,' to any public or circulating library in the State of New York, without any other charge than nine cents for postage enclosed in the application; and any newspaper inserting this notice will be entitled to a copy of the book on the same terms.

Mr. William Cushing, No. 18 Wendell Street, Cambridge, sends out specimen pages of his 'Century of Authors—1780-1880,' of which the first number is now on the eve of appearing. Each part will consist of eighty pages, octavo; and the four, or possibly five, volumes will contain each twelve parts. The scheme is unlike Allibone's in making the biographical feature predominant, and in not mentioning in detail or with bibliographical literalness the works of each author. Thus Jacob Abbott, who fills so large a space in library catalogues, is disposed of in thirteen lines. John Quincy Adams, on the other hand, to whom not a single work is here ascribed, has thirty lines. The dictionary will have its value, and even its interest, but the execution of it is very peculiar.

The *Interchange*, an alphabetical index to subjects in current and forthcoming reviews and magazines, is announced to be published monthly by Howard Challen, No. 123 South Seventh Street, Philadelphia. It will have a variety of literary departments, including notes and queries.

We must, by the way, add to our list of note-and-query periodicals the fortnightly *Journal des Curieux:* Revue des Curiosités littéraires, historiques, et scientifiques, published, beginning in 1881, at Besançon, by MM. Ferrand and Vuillemin. We may also add the department "Notes and Queries" in the *Chrysanthemum*, a monthly magazine published at Yokohama, now in its second volume, and a very readable publication.

A new eclectic monthly periodical is to be launched with the new year at Buffalo, N. Y., under the title of the *Modern Age*. Its broad page, with two broad columns and clear print, has an attractive look. At the end is original matter pertaining to current events, books and authors, art and the drama. The subscription price is very moderate.

In January the newly-established Dutch newspaper of this city, the *Nieuws en Handels Courant*, will begin a series of articles in both Dutch and English on the early history of New York and the doings of the Knickerbockers. The history of the Reformed Dutch Church will receive special attention. The editor, Mr. J. Van't Woud, No. 3 Bowling Green, solicits such information as will further this object.

About six years ago Mr. Henry C. Meyer, a New York merchant, became deeply interested in sanitary matters, and commenced the publication of a monthly paper, which at first was devoted mainly to questions of plumbing and house drainage. As he continued to study the subject it grew more interesting, the field widened, and the demand for information increased, until now the *Sanitary Engineer* has become a large and flourishing weekly journal, covering the whole field of sanitary science, and recognized as a leading authority upon the subject. In the number for December 7 Mr. Meyer for the first time publicly announces his connection with the journal. He has now withdrawn from mercantile life, and proposes to devote his whole time and energy to his paper. Who shall say after this that journalism has not its fascinations? It is a good sign that he is able to say that while "he is gratifying his tastes and inclinations, he is yet taking up an occupation sufficiently practical and remunerative to place it beyond the limits of a merely philanthropic enterprise." We bid him welcome and wish him success.

Little, Brown & Co. have issued a second edition of Mr. R. B. Forbes's interesting 'Personal Reminiscences,' which was first published in 1878.

Miss Mary Thomas, daughter of one of the Trustees of the Johns Hopkins University, has just taken the degree of Ph.D., *summa cum laude*, at the University of Zurich—a distinction rarely attained by male graduates. Miss Thomas is a graduate of Cornell, and studied three years at Leipzig; she took her examinations at Zurich because the University of Leipzig does not grant degrees to women. Her subject was philology, a particularly difficult one in Germany.

The requisite sum for the continuation of the explorations at Assos was raised, and a seasonable telegram sent to Mr. J. T. Clarke to that effect.

Last June, by order of the Mexican Secretary of State, Lieut.-Col. Bodo von Glümer, of the National Army, prepared a large wall-chart of statistics of the Republic, having a considerable permanent as well as temporary value. In the middle was set a topographic map, constructed from the best available sources by the same engineer, representing the "Heart of Anahuac [the central Mexican tableland] and its Railways." This map has since been made available by itself, in a pocket folding-form (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), and the authority which necessarily attaches to it will insure it a large sale, in view of the great railroad interests which our citizens now have in Mexico. The scale is four miles to the inch, and the area depicted is that adjacent to and stretching between the two railway centres of Puebla and the City of Mexico. The delineation is very clear, and the explanations have been turned into English.

From the same house we have received the "first systematic part" of the fourth edition, revised and augmented, of Dr. Franz von Holtzendorff's 'Encyclopädie der Rechtswissenschaft.' The contributors to this work, the high character of which is recognized the world over, are among the foremost jurists of Germany, mostly professors of jurisprudence at different German Universities. There are in this edition four new articles by Dr. Mandry, of the University of Tübingen, Dr. von Bar, of the University of Göttingen, Dr. H. Schulze, of the University of Heidelberg, and Dr. Gneist, of the University of Berlin. Westermann & Co. also send us 'Dies Iræ: Erinnerungen eines französischen Officiers an die Tage von Sedan,' published at Stuttgart. This little volume of 120 pages contains an exceedingly spirited description by a French staff officer of the battle of Sedan.

—A few children's books may be mentioned here, if somewhat tardily. 'Cradle Songs of Many Nations,' by R. L. Hermann, illustrations by Walter Satterlee (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is a book compiled on the correct conception that good melodies cannot be written to order by any one for a holiday book. It includes Scotch, English, Irish, French, German, Hungarian, Norwegian, and even Chinese, Japanese, and Zulu cradle songs, the original words being occasionally added in the language of the country, and the melodies often of considerable individuality and beauty. Each song has a corresponding colored picture on the opposite page, and the book is tastefully covered and enclosed in elegant loose covers with silk ribbons. Mr. Edward Greey, author of the 'Young Americans in Japan' and the 'Wonderful City of Tokio,' gives us, under the form of 'The Golden Lotus, and Other Legends of Japan' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), the results of his own rambles in and around Yedo bay. The eleven so-called legends are told by one who evidently enjoys a full flow of animal spirits and good digestion, who is cosmopolitan in his tastes, and who, having looked at life from behind and on the stage, knows a good deal about the oblique side of it. He laughs with the Japanese rather than at them; he is a keen observer, and catches every wink and notices every significant glance. No reader of the "Legend of the Dead Ass" can possibly enjoy the perusal more than the writer enjoys the telling of it. Only two or three of the legends are new to English, but all are told with fresh points. The "Toad of Tomioka" is amusing and sad, that of the "God-Fox" highly illustrative of the native superstitions concerning that animal, while that of "Lu Wen," the Rip Van Winkle of the Orient, was first told in a shorter form in 'The Mikado's Empire.' Adults will find an after-dinner hour well spent in chuckling over the pages of this book of faultless typography, and the young folks will learn how the children of Japan think, dream, and play. There is fun in 'Troublesome Children' (A. Williams & Co.), and Mr. F. G. Attwood's hand as a comic designer has not lost its cunning; but, after all, this is not a book for children. Neither a literal nor an imaginative mind could safely be left alone with it. Mr. E. E. Hale's 'Stories of Discovery' (Roberts Bros.) has the qualities of the rest of the series to which it belongs. The five tales included in 'The New Arabian Nights,' translated by W. F. Kirby (Lippincott), are not more or less doubtfully proper for children than the familiar collection which they supplement. Mrs. Anna C. Lowell's 'Posies for Children' (Roberts Bros.) is not new, but it is better than that, for it has now the approving verdict of many years behind it.

—J. Eastman Chase, Boston, sends us an artist's proof of Mr. W. B. Closson's wood-engraving after his own painting, "Saxon." With Mr. Closson's ability with the graver the public is already familiar, and it has lately had an opportunity of judging somewhat of his powers as a designer in the new illustrated edition of Mr. Aldrich's poems. The present design confirms the impression that his fancy is as delicate as his touch on the wood. The subject is a little maiden just out of bed, apparently, and standing with her feet nearly hidden from view in a fur rug. Her arms are behind her back, and she is clutching the nether part of her one garment with an air of dubiety which is well expressed on her face—perhaps before an invitation to the bath. A heavy curtain forms the background. The blonde hair of the child is doubtless the key to the title of the print. In this perfectly simple but charming composition the drawing of the ear alone is felt as a slight blemish. It is a rather unshapely ear, and it seems to us to be set too high on the cheek. The engraving, however, is masterly, and at first sight—such is the softness and fineness of it—one would pronounce it either an etching or a line-engraving on steel. The publisher offers it not as a counterfeit of either, but as a coördinate work of art, which it undeniably is. Like Cole's portraits and his Vedder's "Samson," it merits framing with the same respect and circumstance that we accord to the favorite products of metal engraving. Of any room it would be a poetic adornment.

—A Western librarian writes us:

"I was very glad to see your comments upon the change of librarians in Indiana and Michigan, and trust you will not drop the matter entirely. The State of Ohio has a fine library of about 60,000 volumes, of which much could be made. Unfortunately, the librarian is changed every time a new Governor is elected. The evil has not been so great as might have been anticipated, because the library has been practically in charge of a permanent and capable assistant. The present librarian has, however (properly, so far as I know), shown a disposition to manage things himself, and I understand that there is, or has been, some trouble. But the next administration is sure to appoint a new librarian before the present one has fully learned the duties of his office. It seems to me that you will confer a great boon upon many of our Western States if you can induce them to place their libraries in charge of a board of trustees similar to that of New York, with such permanent tenure of office as to remove any temptation to make political appointments."

—The December number of the *Magazine of American History* contains several articles timely to the coming anniversary of the Landing of the Pilgrims, the place of honor being given to "Plymouth Rock Restored," by Mr. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University. "Plymouth before the Pilgrims," by Mr. De Costa, and "Samoset and New England Colonization," by Mr. Rufus King Sewell, are choice papers, and helpful withal to every student of New England history. The "reprints" in this number are "Martin Pring's Voyage," "Articles from the Church of Leyden," "Why did the Pilgrims leave Holland for America?" and "The Mayflower Compact." A portrait of Captain John Smith, copied from the one on his map of 1616, is an admirable piece of work, but, as if to offset it, there is a frightful representation of Miles Standish "from an old oil-painting found in a bookstore in Boston!" We receive it as a compliment that Mr. Adams should say "the *Nation* is undoubtedly right in maintaining that December 22 is the true Forefathers' Day, in the sense that this is the day originally celebrated and historically consecrated by 'oration, sermon, song, drama, painting, and print.'" And he might have added, quoting Palfrey, that "the *twenty-second* of December has taken a firm hold on the local thought and literature, which the *twenty-first* will scarcely displace." Following, however, the argument of "various historical specialists," he comes to the conclusion that the event to be commemorated was the landing made by the exploring party from the shallop, and not the landing "by the whole body of Pilgrims from the *Mayflower*." We hope to be pardoned by the "historical specialists" if we express once more the opinion that the "shallop landing" was an event of no significance whatever except as it may be connected with a subsequent event of real importance—to wit, the landing from the *Mayflower;* that the Old Colony Club never intended to commemorate the landing of the exploring party, but did intend to commemorate the landing of their pious ancestors—men, women, and children—from the *Mayflower;* and that the Club, in its first celebration of Forefathers' Day, made no "natural mistake," but fixed upon the traditional day which had been established for generations. Mr. Adams will surely not contend that Mr. Winslow, in delivering "the first oration ever spoken in memory of the landing of the Pilgrims," had in mind any landing by the shallop explorers, when he made "their wives, their helpless offspring," partakers in the landing. Another claim set up by the "historical specialists" for the exploring party is that the Sunday spent on Clark's Island was the "First Christian Sabbath" observed in New England. To establish this claim they must first make it probable that the pious Pilgrims, with Elder Brewster at their head, were a whole month in Provincetown harbor and neglected to keep the "Sabbath."

—After the *Revue Critique*, conducted by Protestant scholars, had done most excellent work for thirteen years, certain learned Catholics, thinking it a pity that the devil should have all the good music, founded the *Bulletin Critique*. Both periodicals testify to the remarkable revival in France during the last two decades of the so-called *hautes études*—that is, of critical learning—a revival which, so far as it extends, bids fair to place France on a level with her old rival. Both periodicals, too, seem to be edited with an attempt at perfect impartiality and the intention of judging the works reviewed simply by their accuracy and ability. The *Bulletin*, however, in an occasional sneer or parenthetical remark, lets its polemical tendencies get the better of its self-restraint. As the *Polybiblion* rejoiced greatly at the amiable weakness with which the Positivist Littré yielded to the desires of his wife and saw a priest in his last moments, so the *Bulletin* records that Paul de Saint-Victor died while revising the proofs of the second volume of 'Les Deux Masques,' "presque à la tâche, en poussant ce cri d'appel—qui aura été entendu, espérons-le: Mon Dieu! mon Dieu!" And in a notice of Vaudon's charming 'Avant Malherbe,' M. Largent cannot deny himself a little fling at the conviction which prevails in many minds—"non pas les plus délicats, je le confesse"—that France was born in '89. Nor can we positively affirm that the *Revue* has always maintained itself at the elevation of pure learning. It is rare, however, that either journal permits itself a mystification or a joke of any kind. But in a late number of the *Bulletin*, the leading editor, M. Duchesne, finds that Renan offers too great a temptation. The great Hebraist's books have always been printed with lines very far apart, which M. Duchesne avers aroused suspicions, and on applying to the recent translation of Ecclesiastes a certain liquor whose secret he had received from a monk of Mt. Athos, he was able to read *between the lines*, and recovered the following text:

"I, Renan (Ernest), am the author of Koheleth. Metempsychosis is not an empty fable. Before being professor of Hebrew at the College of France and of epigram at the Palais Mazarin, before governing the Roman Empire under the name of Marcus Aurelius, I was a householder at Jerusalem. My father had made a fortune at the Court of Ptolemy Philometor. He left me a considerable capital, which I increased by good investments. I lived on the King's Garden Road at the end of Orphel Street—as one might say, on the Champs-Élysées of Jerusalem. From the terraces of my villa every morning I could see the altar of the Temple smoke; pilgrims covered with dust, beggars from the suburbs, fierce-eyed zealots, cavalcades of the Court of King Hyrcan met my eyes; sometimes I let them wander further off, to the tombs in the Valley of Jehoshaphat. All these sights and the experiences of a life somewhat long engendered in me a sort of melancholy scepticism; weary of the burden of my thoughts, I intrusted them to a roll of parchment, which was found long after my death in the corner of some writing-desk. A complaisant rabbi, rather short-sighted, declared the book inspired, and put it in the Bible, adding a decorous postscript to silence the scrupulous. God has permitted that I should revisit the earth, under the guise of a Hebrew scholar, to study this curious phenomenon of inspiration, and to convince myself over again, by the good fortune that has fallen to my grumblings, that *all is vanity*."

—The reader will see that this reproduces the substance of Renan's preface, in which he maintains that the author, such as he is described above, lived in the second century B. C.; that he was not an atheist or even an irreligious person; that his book was translated into Greek by Aquila or one of his disciples about 130 A. D., not long after it had been inserted in the Hebrew Bible. Evidently none of M. Duchesne's staff is competent to pick flaws in the work of the Jew-Emperor-Professor, for he is content with his raillery, and, after praising the style of the preface, with asking the Lord why it is that those who think so badly write so well; to which the Lord answers, "Be not troubled, my child, since you have read Ecclesiastes and know that except the fear of the Lord all is vanity, even style, philology, rhetoric, and the Academy"—which, after all, we fear M. Duchesne finds rather cold comfort.

—A little more than a year ago M. Octave Uzanne put forth the first of a series of volumes on 'Feminine Adornments,' to include the fan, the glove, the slipper, the muff, the parasol, etc. The first volume was devoted to the fan; the second, which has just appeared, groups together the parasol, the glove, and the muff, and it is to be the last of the series. In a touching preface M. Uzanne deplores his inability to play second fiddle to the illustrator, and it must be confessed that it was a Procrustean bed which M. Avril, the artist, and M. Quantin, the publisher, had prepared for the author. Like 'L'Éventail' of last year, the present volume on 'L'Ombrelle, le Gant, le Manchon' (New York: J. W. Bouton) has a heliogravure printed in colors on every other page, or, rather, there are a pair of heliogravures on every other pair of pages, and the writer was forced to bend and clip and fit his prose into the spaces left vacant by the artist. It results that M. Uzanne's prose is indeed of quite secondary account when compared with M. P. Avril's designs. On half the pages are elaborate compositions printed in appropriate and changing colors, and sketching by example the history of the object treated. We have the Three Graces shielding themselves with a parasol from the rays of Apollo's chariot. This is printed in a rich umber, and leaves room in the centre of the page for a few lines of M. Uzanne's lively writing. We have Heliogabalus drawn in a chariot by nude female slaves, and protected from the sun by an *umbellifera*. We have Robinson Crusoe with his umbrella of skins; Japanese jugglers with their paper parasols; Léandre and Isabelle, à la Watteau, with a sunshade at the feet of the fair lady; a night scene in camp, showing a Napoleonic general reading a despatch by the light of a lantern while sheltered from the storm by a huge umbrella; a street scene in Paris on a rainy day. All these and many more decorate the page, and often completely surround the islet of prose in the centre. Next to the charm and beauty of the drawing is the extraordinary variety and propriety of the artist's style. A scene from Pompeii is done in the Flaxman manner; a picture of eighteenth-century life is drawn as though it were an engraving after Moreau or Eisen; a Japanese sketch attempts the simplicity and naïveté of the Japanese artists; and the young girl with a muff of Sir Joshua Reynolds reappears in bistre quite in the manner of Bartolozzi. Altogether, the book is one of the most beautiful we have ever seen. The typography is excellent, as becomes M. Quantin; the plate-printing only a little less excellent. It is greatly to be regretted that M. Uzanne has seen fit to give up so promising a series, and that the artistic conditions of the two volumes already issued have absolutely limited the number which has been printed.

—The Siamese twins are outdone. They had only begun to be united in comparison with a new prodigy, now or lately on exhibition at Geneva. They had separate bodies; the new wonder has only separate heads. They could not walk away from one another; it is difficult to see how their successor, or shall we say successors, can walk at all; for each head has its own ideas

and one leg, the other head being sole director of the other leg. Any one who has observed a baby learning to walk knows how hard it is for him to coördinate the motions of all his muscles so as to keep his balance and make progress. How much harder the problem to coördinate not only one's own muscles, but somebody else's. The baby, too, is doing what his forefathers have done before him for thousands of years, and has all the advantages of inherited habit; but the Swiss child (he is five years old) has struck out a new path, in which the past gives him no assistance. Some curious speculations arise in regard to his future life. The Siamese twins lived to a good old age. It is not unreasonable, then, to expect that the Genevan twins will outlive the century. The Siamese in due time married and became fathers of a family, though it was always a wonder how either could have found a lady courageous enough to say Yes in the presence of a third party. How will the Swiss twins manage? There is only one of them, and yet he is two. The heads think, and will, and speak separately. But the head is not supposed to fall in love; that is the function of the heart, and there is only one heart in the case. That will fall in love with some young lady. She may have defects. Suppose one head—more clear-headed than the other head—sees them. Will it yield to the promptings of its heart? and if it resists, then what will the other head do? And if finally they agree and pop the question, will both heads do it at once, or successively; or will they take it in alternate sentences? And if she marries them both will it be bigamy? The wife owes obedience to her husband, but if one head permits and the other denies, if one commands and the other countermands, which shall she listen to? No woman can serve two masters, for either she will hate the one and love the other, or else she will hold to the one and despise the other. It would be very inconvenient to love one side of one's husband and hate the other side. And how miserable she might be if she had any desire to have the last word—that is, if the two heads combined against her. But perhaps she would "by dividing rule." The mind wearies of such a succession of puzzling questions. For our own part we think the whole story is a myth. As is well known, Switzerland has no language of its own, but the cantons on the French side speak French, and those on the German side speak German, and the waiters at the hotels speak English. Perhaps the twin is an allegorical representation of this duplication of language, which has at last materialized itself as the beliefs of the early Aryans about the sun and the moon are said to have been incarnated in the gods and goddesses of the Indo-European pantheon. Our conjecture is, we admit, a little incomprehensible, but not more so than much comparative mythology that we have read.

THE MERV OASIS.

The Merv Oasis. Travels and Adventures East of the Caspian, during the Years 1879-80-81, including Five Months' Residence among the Tekkes of Merv. By Edmond O'Donovan. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

THE troubles in European Turkey which culminated in the Russo-Turkish war began, it will be remembered, in the form of an insurrection in Herzegovina. A lady of the London fashionable world, hearing the words "the Herzegovina" constantly repeated in conversation, had her curiosity stimulated, and was overheard to inquire, "Who is the Herzegovina?" To most of our readers it is not improbable that "the Merv Oasis" will be almost as completely a blank as was "the Herzegovina" to the heroine of the foregoing anecdote. Nor will they in this respect compare unfavorably with the majority of English ladies and gentlemen. Whenever the British public is afflicted with its periodical visitations of Russophobia, the cause will generally be found to be that some "expert" in Central Asian geography has announced the startling fact that the Russians are advancing in the direction of Merv. The British public does not know where Merv is—is certainly dubious whether it be a country or a large city; but the Russophobist "expert" has diligently taught it to believe that when once this mysterious geographical expression is included in the Asiatic dominions of Russia, the British Empire in India is as good as overthrown. It is this singular state of mind to which the Duke of Argyll has given the designation of "Mervousness"; and the wrath of Achilles was not nearly so mischievous to the Greeks before Troy as this same "Mervousness" has been to the English in India. In the absence of more definite geographical information, it appears probable that the better-educated portion of the British public derived such knowledge of Merv as they were possessed of from Tom Moore's "Veiled Prophet of Khorassan." The scene of this is laid in Merv, or in "Merou," as it was formerly called, and there is a couplet which describes the place thus:

> "And, fairest of all streams, the Murga roves
> Amid Merou's bright palaces and groves."

It is these "bright palaces and groves" which have caused the British public to fall an easy victim to Russophobia whenever an "expert" declared that the independence of Merv was in danger. They pictured the Russians as coming into possession of a magnificent and stately city, from which, as a secure basis, they would prepare and work out their nefarious projects upon British India. Mr. O'Donovan is the first Englishman—we think the first European—who has penetrated to the heart of the Merv Oasis, and removed the veil which caused Merv to be such a source of terror to the imagination of the British public. The result is that the Russophobist "expert" finds himself in the melancholy position of a magician suddenly deprived of his incantations and his wand of power. He has become as helpless as Samson when shorn of his locks. The British public have learned, to their great relief, that there are no "bright palaces and groves" to be found at Merv—nothing, indeed, but a predatory horde of Turcomans.

Mr. Edmond O'Donovan, as special correspondent of the London *Daily News*, had been sent by that journal to accompany the Russian expedition which was assembling in 1879 on the eastern shore of the Caspian to attack Geok Tepe, the stronghold of the Akhal Tekkes. General Lazareff was then the commanding officer of the expedition, and Mr. O'Donovan was received into the Russian camp as his friend and guest. Before, however, the expedition was ready to start, Lazareff died, and his successor, General Tergukasoff, under instructions from the Government at St. Petersburgh, refused to allow Mr. O'Donovan to accompany the Russian column. After some months of fruitless endeavor to bring about a change in this decision, Mr. O'Donovan formed the adventurous determination to penetrate alone and unattended—a solitary Englishman—to the capital of the Tekke Turcomans; and very strange indeed were his adventures when he got to Merv. He reached that place at a moment when the Turcomans were in a state of great fear and excitement. As he crossed the desert which lies between Meshed and Merv, he witnessed from an eminence Skobeleff's final assault upon the fortress of Geok Tepe. He was attended by two servants and an escort of six or seven Derguez troopers.

"Early on the 24th [January]," writes Mr. O'Donovan, "we ascended the top of the Markov mountain, which towers some 6,000 feet over the Tekke plain and is not twelve miles from Geok Tepe. With my double field-glass I could easily make out the lines of the Turcoman fortress and the general position of its besiegers, but I was too far off to be able to make note of details. I could plainly see, by the smoke of the guns and the movements of the combatants, that the attack had begun in earnest, and I watched its result with intense anxiety. The Russian assault was directed against the southerly wall of the fortifications, and, after what was apparently a desperate conflict there, it was evident that they had forced their way. A crowd of horsemen began to ride in confusion from the other side of the town, and spread in flight over the plain. Immediately afterward, a mass of fugitives of every class showed that the town was being abandoned by its inhabitants. The Turcoman fortress had fallen, and all was over with the Akhal Tekkes."

Three days later O'Donovan was in Merv. General Skobeleff had pushed forward with his accustomed energy after the fall of Geok Tepe, and the Russian troops had taken possession of Askabad on the border of the desert which surrounds the Merv Oasis. A portion of the force had advanced still nearer the Turcoman capital, and parties of cavalry were scouring the country in every direction. When Mr. O'Donovan reached Merv he found the chiefs and the Tekkes generally in hourly expectation of the Russian advance, and laboring hard at a huge fortification which, they fondly hoped, would bar the further progress of the enemy. This fortification, according to Mr. O'Donovan, was constructed in so unscientific a fashion that it could not have resisted the action of artillery for a couple of hours, and the Tekkes' notions of the preparations necessary for fighting a successful battle against the Russians were in other respects as primitive as they could well be. The Tekkes were in possession of twenty-eight pieces of ordnance of different calibres which they had captured, some twenty years previously, from the Persians, but these were without carriages.

"I said that in view of the possible arrival of the Russians I wondered that some pains had not been taken to mount these disabled pieces. 'Oh!' said the Khan, 'there are plenty of people who could do that in a couple of weeks. There is abundance of wood growing in the gardens. Most of the iron work is on the spot; and I know where the tire of one wheel is—it fell off as we were bringing the gun across the river." This was all highly satisfactory to the general audience; but I knew that in the whole of the Merv tree plantations not a trunk of more than eight inches in diameter was to be found. I asked whether any considerable quantity of projectiles was on hand. Thereupon the chiefs told me of several traders in the bazaar who had many, which they used as weights when selling corn. 'Besides,' he said, 'the Persians fired a great deal; and the old men who were looking on could easily point out where the shot fell, and we could dig them up when required.' . . . As regards the gunpowder, there were Ali Baba, and Hussein, and Hodja Kouli, and several others who knew what it was composed of; and besides, there was every reason to believe that the Emir of Bokhara would not be backward in affording facilities for a supply if he got a good 'present.' . . . The Khan further naïvely remarked that he hoped I should be of no small assistance in remounting the guns and founding the necessary projectiles. . . . The fact was that among these more easterly Turcomans, who had never known the contact of stern mechanical drill, each man thought that, armed with his curved brittle sabre, his antiquated cumbrous muzzle-loader with its forked rest, the half-pound of bad gunpowder he bought the last time he was in Meshed or Herat, and the bullets he founded from the material dug up on the battle-fields of his ancestors, he was amply provided with all the necessaries of war."

These barbarians, on Mr. O'Donovan's arrival among them, were at first uncertain whether they should put him to death as a Russian agent or exalt him to high honor as an emissary from the British Government sent to protect them from the wrath of the Russians. Their concep-

tion, by the way, of the British Government was a highly singular one. Of Great Britain itself they had never heard, and stared in blank and silent incredulity when Mr. O'Donovan indicated the relative situations of England and Great Britain. The British Government, according to the philosophy of the Turcomans, was to be found in India, and was otherwise known as "the Koompani." For some time Mr. O'Donovan's fate trembled in the balance, but ultimately the Mervli elders decided that he was an important functionary of "the Koompani"; and that, being such, they could not act more wisely than by making him a ruler among them. As a result of this decision, Mr. O'Donovan became the leading member of a triumvirate which constituted the Government of Merv. An accident may be said to have endowed him with the prestige which caused him to be raised to this "bad eminence." Just after the capture of Geok Tepe, the Emperor Alexander was assassinated, and his successor, the present Czar, lost no time in sending orders to General Skobeleff which forbade the Russians to advance beyond Askabad, and so, for the moment, preserved the independence of Merv. This unexpected reprieve the people of Merv attributed to the presence of Mr. O'Donovan among them, and confirmed them in their impression that he was a British officer of great power and importance. It was in vain that he protested that he was nothing of the kind. The chiefs and the people of Merv were of opinion that it mattered little what he was, if only they resolutely regarded him as a duly accredited representative sent among them by "the Koompani." This belief was so far of advantage to Mr. O'Donovan that during the five months of his residence in Merv his life was in no danger, but no one can read the narrative of his stay without feeling that it must have needed a frame of iron to have survived the awful, immeasurable ennui of life in Merv. That Mr. O'Donovan's sufferings were sufficiently acute is evident from the entries in his diary:

"These Merv Turcomans," he writes, "seem to have nothing to do but loafing about all day from hut to hut to see if they cannot surprise some eatables. They gorge themselves to excess on every possible occasion with greasy food, and are continually ill from indigestion. They throng my house, partly to satisfy their curiosity by staring at me, and partly to devour the greater portion of any food I may have prepared for my own use. . . . It is of no use saying that what you are eating is pig, for they eat pig readily. . . . No one who has not suffered as I have among the Merv Turcomans, by being constantly intruded upon and persecuted in every way by their abominable presence, could appreciate the exquisite luxury of being left in quiet solitude."

And in another place:

"Relay after relay of these vile beasts of Turcomans render life insupportable during the day and night too. One would think they imagined I derived intense pleasure from their uncouth, unfeeling, treacherous presences. The constancy of their intrusion passes all belief. . . . They are like the pestilent flies who vie with them to render life miserable."

Of these delightful savages, it may be truly affirmed that manners they have none, and their customs are beastly. Their most marked characteristic is their enormous appetites. These appear to be literally insatiable. A Turcoman, being a sordid wretch, never appears to treat himself to a "good square meal" when the thing has to be done at his own expense. But the custom of the country enjoins hospitality to the passing traveller, and politeness requires that a traveller thus entertained should exhibit his gratitude by eating prodigious quantities of the viands set before him. The appetite of the Tekke Turcoman has, so to speak, adapted itself in the most admirable manner to this peculiar environment. He wanders over the country, traveller-wise, seeking what he may devour. And no matter, according to Mr. O'Donovan, what quantity of melted mutton-fat he may have swallowed at one entertainer's house, he is always ready, at the shortest notice, to attack a second or a third banquet of the same inviting fare with undiminished zest and alacrity. This enormous consumption of mutton-fat causes nearly every Merv Turcoman to suffer from indigestion and a disordered liver, but neither penalty has any effect in moderating his gluttony. The Turcomans appear to have enjoyed a fine time of it so long as their English Triumvir lived among them. Large uninvited parties assembled at his house, with rigorous punctuality, every morning, and stayed the whole day, for the purpose of partaking of his hospitality. The only device by which the English Triumvir could baulk and disappoint his tormentors was by himself abstaining from food for the whole day, and this, clearly, was a manœuvre which Mr. O'Donovan could practise only very rarely.

For the rest, a more indolent, useless savage than the Tekke Turcoman, as depicted in Mr. O'Donovan's book, it is impossible to imagine. The desert which surrounds the Merv Oasis is not a desert planted there by the hand of nature; on the contrary, the soil is rich, and the surface of the plain is covered with the remains of countless cities and villages which now stand desolate and unpeopled. It is the Turcoman who has converted a flourishing country into a silent and solitary desert. His noble soul revolts from honest labor, and therefore he passes his life in making raids upon his neighbors, pillaging their property and carrying them off as slaves. The Yamud Turcomans, who have now for a considerable time been the subjects of Russia, are in consequence being swiftly humanized. The wilder spirits among them, who cannot give up their old predatory habits, the Russian Government segregates from their tribes, and sends for three or four years to reside in the most civilized part of Russia. The transformation worked by this process is often astonishing. At Krasnavodsk Mr. O'Donovan made the acquaintance of one of these converted Turcomans. He had been a renowned pirate of the Caspian littoral, and his name carried terror with it.

"At the time of which I now speak he was one of the principal commissariat contractors for the Russian camp; and to see him now, with his long robe of blue broadcloth, his coffee-colored trousers of European cut; his European shoes, showing immaculately white stockings; his black fur shako, a trifle less gigantic than those of his compatriots; and his well-cut face of grave though kindly expression—few would dream of what his antecedents had been."

Mr. O'Donovan's travels fill two volumes, the formidable size of which is likely to deter readers; but it is only as measured by weight avoirdupois that they can be counted heavy. They are very pleasant and easy reading, and the picture which they give of the Russian establishments on the Caspian and the internal state of Persia will be found deeply interesting by any one interested in the future of that part of Asia. Nor is it possible to read without hearty admiration of the courage, the tact, and the *aplomb* with which Mr. O'Donovan surmounted the many difficulties of his extraordinary position at Merv.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Noted French Trials, Impostors, and Adventurers. By Horace W. Fuller, of the Suffolk Bar. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1882.

Humorous Phases of the Law. By Irving Browne. New Edition, Revised and Enlarged. San Francisco: Sumner, Whitney & Co. 1882.

The Geneva Award Acts. With Notes and References to Decisions of the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims. By Frank W. Hackett. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1882.

A Treatise on Equity Jurisprudence, as Administered in the United States of America; adapted for all the States, and to the Union of Legal and Equitable Remedies under the Reformed Procedure. By John Norton Pomeroy, LL.D. In three volumes. Vols. i. and ii. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1881-1882.

A Concise Treatise on the Principles of Equity Pleading, with Precedents. By Franklin Fiske Heard. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1882.

History of the High Court of Chancery and other Institutions of England, from the Time of Caius Julius Cæsar until the Accession of William and Mary (1688-9). By Conway Robinson. Volume i. To the Death of Henry VIII. (1546-7). Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1882.

The Reporters. Arranged and characterized, with Incidental Remarks, by John William Wallace. Fourth Edition, Revised and Enlarged. Published under the superintendence of Franklin Fiske Heard. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1882.

Mr. Horace W. Fuller has collected a good deal of information, about a number of French criminals, impostors, and adventurers, not generally accessible to English and American readers. The most familiar figure in the book is that of Cartouche; but the story of Mandrin's life is more valuable, as being less affected by legend. French criminal trials are not as entertaining in themselves as American or English *causes célèbres*, because the case is usually so thoroughly prepared by the police in France, and the judge is so much on the side of the prosecution, that the prisoner is not often able to make a good fight, whereas the struggle for life or liberty, with its varying chances on one side or the other, is what makes a trial really interesting. We have arranged matters so that, except in a very clear case, the game between the prosecution and the prisoner is as nearly even as can be, unless, indeed, it may be said that we have handicapped the Government slightly. At any rate, we have made a criminal trial a remarkably fine specimen of manly Anglo-Saxon sport, and its development in the last three centuries from the crude form in which it was practised by our forefathers is one of the strongest proofs of our strong love of fair play, if not of justice. Such a case as that of Martin Guerre may recall to many readers the Tichborne case, but, as a rule, a French impostor receives so little encouragement from the law that he is not given a really fair start.

The papers embraced in 'Humorous Phases of the Law' were originally published in the Albany *Law Journal*, and since the appearance of the first edition many additions have been made. Although Mr. Browne's object is professedly to amuse, there is a great deal of valuable law in his book, and some of it is collected under heads which are not to be found in the digests. For instance, "Practical Tests in Evidence" is a subject which is always coming up in the trial of cases, and on which it is hard to find authorities. There seem to be a great many popular delusions or fallacies on this subject. We have recently seen a judge severely criticised in the press for compelling a witness to remove a veil, and his act referred to as if it were a case of mere wilful tyranny. Yet this point has been considered by courts of last resort, and it seems clear that a prisoner has no right to conceal her face, for her behavior when confronted with the witnesses against her is a part of the evidence in the case, and this must not be cut off from the jury by

any act of the prisoner's. Under ordinary circumstances, tests are a matter of discretion with the Court, though if a test be proposed which would be conclusive one way or the other, a refusal by the Court to allow it ought to be ground for a new trial. One of the most recent cases on this subject is that of State *v.* Linkhaw, in North Carolina, in which, in an indictment for disturbing a religious meeting by bad singing, the question arose whether one of the witnesses should give an imitation of the singing of the defendant. Such an exhibition in other latitudes would probably not be allowed, both on the ground that it would tend to rob the trial of its gravity, and also as being rather untrustworthy evidence. A remarkable collection of cases is given in the chapter on "de minimis," illustrating the practice of the courts in applying the rule that a variance in a name is not material, provided the sound is the same. The courts have evolved some very remarkable acoustic conclusions on this point. Thus the Supreme Court of Missouri have declared that Mathews and Mathers are *idem sonans;* the Supreme Court of Minnesota think there is no difference in sound between Fourai and Forrest; and the Supreme Court of Nevada have declared May and Mayberry to sound the same. Yet so keen are the ears of the Colorado bench that the judges there distinguished a difference between Fitz Patrick and Fitzpatrick; the Supreme Court of Illinois between Amann and Ammon; while, curiously enough, a Canadian court, whether from want of familiarity with Shakespere, or from too thorough an acquaintance with the French language, could not make out any identity between Jacques and Jakes.

In 'The Geneva Award Acts' Mr. Hackett has made an extremely useful compilation from materials beyond the reach of the profession at large. His work is more than a compendium, for his long familiarity with the practice under the Geneva Award Acts has enabled him to throw out some original suggestions which will be of much value to practitioners under the statute of 1882 reëstablishing the Court. He also publishes, in an appendix, a letter from Mr. W. A. Richardson, explaining the ingenious manner in which the Government received the $15,500,000 paid by Great Britain under the Geneva Award without deranging the money-markets, and without expense. The records of the old court fill very nearly sixty volumes, and its decisions were collected in the shape of an official report to Secretary Fish, by Mr. John Davis, now First Assistant Secretary of State. Taking the act of 1882 as a basis, Mr. Hackett has appended to each section the corresponding section of the act of 1874, and all the decisions of the Court are to be found under some one of these. The opinion of the Court in the case of the *Winged Racer,* which settles the general rule of loss of ship, cargo, and freight, is given in full. Under the new act the Court will have to determine whether any claims are recoverable, except for damage caused by "exculpated cruisers" and war risks. Mr. Hackett thinks that the Court will have jurisdiction of all claims for "direct" damage (loss of ship and cargo) which may have been dismissed by the old court for want of prosecution, or because they were not presented in time, or for any other defect not going to the merits of the claim itself. The volume has been prepared with great care and a full knowledge of the subject, and will be found of value not merely by lawyers practising before the new Court of Commissioners, but by all who are interested in the examination of questions connected with marine losses and torts.

Mr. Pomeroy, in his 'Treatise on Equity Jurisprudence,' has attempted, as he says, "to furnish to the legal profession a treatise which should deal with the equity jurisdiction and jurisprudence as they now are throughout the United States, with their statutory modifications and limitations, and under their different types and forms in various groups of States." The two volumes which have thus far appeared show that he has spared no pains to make the book thorough. He has adopted a novel system of classification, in which he separates equity into two grand divisions: the primary rights, duties, estates, and interests which it creates, and the remedial rights and duties enforced by the various remedies which it confers. The reason for the division is, that equitable remedies cover a much broader field than primary equitable rights and interests.

"The remedies administered by equity are not confined to cases in which equitable primary rights have been violated; they are not restricted to the single purpose of maintaining equitable estates and interests. As has already been stated in a preceding section, the peculiar reliefs of equity are given, under certain well-established conditions of fact, for the violation of legal primary rights and for the protection and support of legal estates and interests. In other words, while every equitable right and interest is enforced and preserved by an appropriate equitable remedy, the remedial jurisdiction of equity extends beyond these somewhat narrow limits, and embraces many classes of legal rights and interests for the violation of which, under the existing circumstances, the law gives no adequate relief."

So far as we have examined the manner in which Mr. Pomeroy has executed his task, we have found it well done, and the work, when completed, ought to prove of great value both to courts and lawyers. The author, who is already well known to the profession by several other law books, has a clear style and considerable power of analysis. The book is one of such scope that our space forbids us to attempt to criticise it in detail. We shall content ourselves with calling attention to one or two points connected with the development of the system of equity which, at least in this country, have not attracted the notice they deserve and, in fact, require.

The origin of equity as a branch of jurisprudence is now so fully made out that there is no room for dispute about it. It grew up in England very much as it grew up in Rome in the prætorian courts. There was a *jus civile* in Rome, as there was a common law in England, which had its inflexible rules and its fixed forms of action. The prætor's *equitas* was introduced to modify this, just as the Chancellor's modified the common law in England. The prætor applied the *jus gentium* and the *jus naturale*, as the Chancellor afterward applied the *arbitrium boni viri*, or rules derived from his conscience. So far the development in the two cases seems parallel. But there is one radical difference between the growth of equity in England and of *equitas* in Rome, and that is, that while in Rome it was a growth of the same courts which were the sources of strict law, in England it was introduced by a separate tribunal, between which and the common lawyers and judges there existed from the earliest times the bitterest hostility. Mr. Pomeroy mentions this hostility as one of the causes of the want of uniformity in the development of English law; but whether it be regarded as a cause of the problem to be explained, or the problem itself, the solution is by no means ready to our hands. The fact that the common law was in part feudal, and that there was an antagonism between the Crown and the Roman See, may have had something to do with it, but a fact mentioned by Mr. Pomeroy in his preface seems to show that it goes deeper than this, and that for some reason there is an eternal and irresistible conflict—a sort of struggle for existence—in our system between equity and law, such as never manifested itself at Rome at all. After a lapse of centuries, and after it has come to be understood that law cannot exist without equity, the legislature both in England and in half the American States has swept away the distinction between the two systems. The design of this legislation was, of course, to give the suitor the benefit of either system in any court in which he chose to enforce his rights, and to save him from the danger of being denied redress because he had selected the wrong forum. By this means the fusion of law and equity was assumed to have been made complete. And now what has been the result? We give it in Mr. Pomeroy's own words:

"Every careful observer must admit that in all the States which have adopted the reformed procedure, there has been, to a greater or less degree, a weakening, decrease, or disregard of equitable principles in the administration of justice. I would not be misunderstood. There has not, of course, been any conscious intentional abrogation or rejection of equity on the part of the courts. The tendency, however, has plainly and steadily been toward the giving an undue prominence and superiority to purely legal rules, and the ignoring, forgetting, or suppression of equitable notions. The correctness of this conclusion cannot be questioned nor doubted; the consenting testimony of able lawyers who have practised under both systems corroborates it; and no one can study the current series of State reports without perceiving and acknowledging its truth. In short, the principles, doctrines, and rules of equity are certainly disappearing from the municipal law of a large number of the States, and this deterioration will go on until it is checked either by a legislative enactment, or by a general revival of the study of equity throughout the ranks of the legal profession."

This tendency has been legislated against in England, and also in this country in Connecticut, by providing that whenever there is a conflict between the rules of equity and law, with reference to the same matter, "the rules of equity shall prevail." This curious modern evidence of the inherent antagonism between the two systems is interesting, however, and raises a question to which there is as yet no answer.

Mr. Heard's little hand-book, 'A Concise Treatise on the Principles of Equity Pleading,' is an elementary treatise intended for the use of students and of "young and inexperienced pleaders." Students will find it of considerable value. It deals with a complicated and abstruse subject in a simple and intelligible way. Young and inexperienced pleaders may also find it of use in removing misconceptions, and in giving some of that elementary knowledge of which the more learned books are sometimes devoid, but, of course, it does not take the place, even for them, of such a work as Story's 'Equity Pleadings.'

Mr. Robinson is so learned a lawyer and so industrious a writer that his want of system and order is greatly to be lamented. His 'History of Chancery' is a mine of information gathered from all quarters on the subjects to which it relates, which are very numerous. The account of "other institutions" which he undertakes to give, enables him to draw at will upon any part of the institutional history of England, and a very large proportion of the contents of his book has as little to do with chancery as Julius Cæsar had. The narrative is accordingly confused, and really needs editing to make it useful.

Mr. Wallace's book is a classic, and likely to remain so for a long time. It embodies all the criticisms of value that have ever appeared with regard to the old reports, and in using many of these this body of criticism has to be frequently consulted by judges and lawyers. It is a pity that the work has not been brought down to the most recent times. Since law reporting became a business, as it has in England and this country, the regular series of reports are issued by authority, the judges' opinions being published in full. As to these there is no room for a difference of opinion with regard to the correctness of the report. Of the rest of the report, the summary

of facts or pleadings, the arguments of counsel, and the "head note," a very different story might be told. These, at least in the United States, are often inaccurate and slovenly, and sometimes, indeed, so badly done as to make the whole case almost unintelligible. This is the more inexcusable as the art of reporting is not a difficult one to master, and the modern system of official reports ought to be a guarantee of accuracy and fulness. The old reporters erred from the very fact that they had little or no responsibility of any kind. The market was a perfectly open one, in which judges and lawyers and booksellers competed with one another without any restraints imposed by law. Now we have hedged in the business, which has grown to enormous proportions, with every sort of safeguard, and yet we are very far from perfection. In this State, for instance, no practising lawyer is satisfied with the condition of the reports. An attempt was made a few years ago to introduce the modern English system of having the work done by a grand central board, which should undertake it as a whole, instead of having it, as at present, divided among several reporters, all of whom act independently of each other; but the scheme fell through. Therefore, the reporting of the Court of Appeals and that of the inferior courts from which an appeal lies to that tribunal are still entirely unconnected, and the various series of reports are conducted on different principles. A critical discussion of reporting in America would add greatly to the interest of Mr. Wallace's book.

Nobody can look over the list of American reports, swollen every year by the addition of hundreds of volumes, without being struck with the difficulty of carrying out the idea so often broached by law reformers, that something might be done to relieve the profession by cutting down the number of reports. Forbid, they say, the citation in court of all but a single series of reports, prevent the publication of any others, and one source of confusion will disappear. This might, of course, be done very effectually by a little stringent legislation. It might be provided that any citation of unauthorized reports during the conduct of a case should vitiate the proceedings *ab initio*, and render a new trial necessary. But it is hard to imagine such legislation being submitted to. It must be remembered that such a rule, applied logically, would exclude in each American State the authorized series of every other, and also the English reports—that is to say, nine-tenths of all the authorities that are cited in every case that is tried. There would seem, indeed, to be more reasons for forbidding the citation of Massachusetts decisions in New York courts, or *vice versa*, than to exclude a series of decisions rendered in any domestic forum. Even in England, where more has been done to bring order out of chaos than anywhere else, the old unauthorized issue of reports in periodicals still goes on, and these newspaper series, it should be remembered, make trouble too. It is as necessary for a lawyer in preparing a case to have late cases as it is to have authorized reports, and as the regular series are always in arrears with their reports, he is obliged to go to legal periodicals to know what the courts are doing from week to week and day to day.

It must be remembered that although we talk about the "case-lawyer" as an old-fashioned and nowadays rather uncommon professional type, a new kind of case-lawyer has sprung up in this country whose hunger for reported cases is quite as great as his predecessor's ever was, though for a different reason. The case-lawyer of the last century was a man who knew not mere abstract principles of law, but the facts of the case in which the principles had been laid down by the courts. He was supposed to like cases better than principles, and to infer what the decision in a given case ought to be entirely from a knowledge of what the court in which he practised had decided in previous cases. At the present day and in this country, where the bench is filled with ignorant judges who feel themselves to be rather incompetent for the work they are called upon to perform, they are apt to find an easy road to popularity through a rapid despatch of business, especially in the lower courts, in which decisions are merely obtained to lay the foundation for an appeal. What these judges want is to be furnished with some means of deciding the case rapidly; and a precedent, or anything like a precedent, is to them a godsend. Consequently, lawyers who frequently practise before them make it their business as far as possible to feed them with cases, and for this purpose they make case-hunting a regular part of their business. The lawyer who can find a case similar to the one at bar decided by any court is almost sure of a decision or a ruling in his favor at first instance. We have known of a case being decided at once in this way, by a well-known judge, on the strength of a decision of no great value or authority, when the language in which his opinion was written was unintelligible to both sides, and he admitted to one of them that he had not read the briefs; a single precedent was all he wanted. The fact that decisions can be got out of judges in this way makes the demand for cases very urgent, and is one reason why it is that the bar takes so little interest in any effort for reform in the way of reducing the volume of precedents. This state of things is, it must be admitted, to some extent peculiar to New York, where, owing to the crowded condition of the calendars and the frequent incompetence and occasional corruption of the lower judges, a speedy decision seems often to be of more importance than a correct one.

The learning about the reporters collected by Mr. Wallace throws all sorts of curious lights on the growth of English law. The authority of a reporter of the period prior to the authorized series ought to depend solely on the accuracy and fulness of his reports; but we find that a great many of them have got a bad reputation, owing to causes some of which are purely accidental, while of others we have lost the key. Some reporters have had a good reputation with one judge and a very bad one with another. Thus, Barnadiston's reputation has gone through strange vicissitudes. Lord Mansfield forbade the book to be cited before him, and pretended not to remember his name, referring to him in court as "Barnard-what-you-call-him." This was improved upon by Lord Lyndhurst, who, referring to his 'Chancery Cases,' exclaimed, "I fear that is a book of no great authority; I recollect in my younger days it was said of Barnadiston that he was accustomed to slumber over his note-book, and the wags in the rear took the opportunity of scribbling nonsense in it." Law reports produced in this way would indeed be a curiosity, and there could hardly be much difference of opinion as to their value. Nevertheless, there are weighty opinions, as Mr. Wallace goes on to say, in favor of both the chancery cases of this reporter and his common-law reports as well. Lord Eldon, Chancellor Bland, of Maryland, and other judges of high standing have taken occasion to qualify Lord Mansfield's censure, and Mr. Wallace, in summing up the evidence with regard to Barnadiston, says: "The judgment of Lord Mansfield may therefore be considered as now largely corrected." All that can safely be said, therefore, would seem to be that a lawyer in going to Barnadiston should not take what he says blindly, but use every means external as well as internal to test the accuracy of his report.

The reputation of many of the early reporters was much smirched through their connection with politics, and this is particularly true of the last part of the seventeenth century, when lawyers were hunting up precedents and authorities on the points at issue between the Crown and the people. This period is rich in reports, and the history of Noy's, once among the best known of these, is very curious. Noy was Charles I.'s Attorney-General, and a lawyer of great abilities, and was one of six persons recommended by Lord Bacon for reporters, as being "learned and diligent," and "conversant in reports and records." There can be little doubt that he did some excellent reporting, but the volume which passes under his name is apparently a piece of imposture, for it contains cases reported fifteen years after his death, and besides this the work is throughout ill done. Mr. Wallace thinks that "in this day we have not one case which was certainly by him." Under these circumstances, the lawyer, while not paying much attention to Noy's reports as they stand, may be pardoned for thinking Carlyle's description of him as "a morose, amorphous, cynical law pedant and invincible living heap of learned rubbish," and as a "grisly law Pluto," inadequate, and perhaps attributable to an antipathy in Carlyle's mind to law, quite as much as to a just conception of the political part played by Noy.

We have no space for further examples, but those which we have given show what nice work the criticism of law reports is, if conducted with any attempt to arrive at a just estimate of their value. At the beginning of this century, when there were only a hundred and fifty volumes of reports in existence, it was possible to have this learning at one's fingers' ends, and it was then, of course, more essential than it is now. Such knowledge, however, is still as valuable as ever in nicely balanced cases, where the decision may turn on the view taken of an early report by the Court. Some acquaintance with the reporters is, moreover, essential to every lawyer, and to any real lover of his profession. Notwithstanding a good deal of grotesqueness of style, there is no more entertaining legal volume than Wallace's 'Reporters.'

The Art Life of William Rimmer—Sculptor, Painter, and Physician. By Truman H. Bartlett, Sculptor. Illustrated with Heliotype Reproductions. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

Dr. William Rimmer was well known in Boston for nearly twenty years as an instructor in what is called artistic anatomy, and as an artist of singularly earnest purpose. His enthusiasm for, and devotion to, what he considered the true ends of art were intense and constant, and his influence upon the thought and feeling of the community was considerable. In our own view, Dr. Rimmer, though possessed of certain strong artistic faculties—by force of which he once, at least, produced a good work of art—was more essentially an anatomist than an artist. He possessed a keen instinct for form, but it was too largely an instinct for its mechanism rather than for its beauty. His power of drawing was considerable, but it was employed to embody a scientific rather than a wholly artistic inspiration. In short, both in his teaching and his practice, he unduly magnified the importance, and misapprehended the character, of that anatomical knowledge which may be useful to an artist. The idea that scientific anatomy properly concerns an artist had no existence, either in theory or in practice, during the great epochs of artistic production, and it has arisen in modern times out of a misconception of the artist's function. We do not know that this misconception is anywhere more clearly recognized, or

more forcibly criticised, than it is by the late Dr. John Brown, the well-known author of 'Spare Hours'—himself both an anatomist and an intelligent student of art. Dr. Brown says:

"One other heresy I must vent, and that is to protest against the doctrine that scientific knowledge is of much direct avail to the artist; it may enlarge his mind as a man, and sharpen and strengthen his nature, but the knowledge of anatomy is, I believe, more a snare than anything else to an artist as such. Art is the *tertium quid* resulting from observation and imagination, with skill and love and downrightness as their executors: anything that interferes with the action of any of these is killing to the soul of art. Phidias and the early Greeks, there is no reason to believe, ever dissected even a monkey, much less a man, and yet where is there such skin, and muscle, and substance, and breath of life?"

To this we may add the testimony of the greatest of German archæologists and scholars of art, Müller, who, in his 'Ancient Art and its Remains' (p. 385), says:

"Although in Greece even surgeons, and much more artists, were restrained from the dissection of bodies by an invincible horror, on the other hand, by the opportunity which ordinary life presented, especially in gymnastic schools and games (although models strictly so called were not wanting), the Greek artists, who possessed in a remarkable degree the talent of apprehension, which was improved by practice to a wonderful degree, acquired an infinitely more accurate knowledge of the living human form in action or preparing for action than can ever be obtained by means of anatomical studies. . . . The most accurate study of anatomical science, also, is too weak to appreciate, thoroughly to understand, those masterworks, because it must ever be denied the contemplation of the body unfolding its splendor in the fulness of life and the fire of action."

With these quotations we may compare a passage from the book we are considering as follows:

"Dr. Rimmer had full faith in the necessity of drawing from the life-model, but did not believe in allowing the pupil to do so until a knowledge of the principles of anatomy enabled him to understand what he was doing. 'As well,' he would say, 'to set a person down to read a foreign language before he has learned the value of the letters which compose the words, as to ask a person to draw a human figure without some knowledge of the bones and muscles which compose it'" (p. 146).

Mr. Bartlett's book narrates the circumstances of Dr. Rimmer's life in a straightforward way. It brings out what is important and avoids the insignificant and trivial. It is a truly interesting and instructive life. There is a short chapter on "Rimmer and Hunt," which suggests an interesting comparison of the views of these two most influential of the recent art-teachers of Boston.

"Rimmer," says Mr. Bartlett, "taught that the constructive character of an object was the first thing to learn, and the acquisition of knowledge of the first importance, as the only means of expressing an art sentiment or idea correctly and successfully. The teaching of Hunt made the expression of the essential quality of an object as an artistic effect of the first importance, with the understanding that the knowledge of art, anatomy, perspective, ethnology, and the rest would follow in the pupil's progress as a conscious necessity."

We apprehend that neither of these views is wholly correct, though, when properly qualified, a true view may be found between them. Rimmer's idea of constructive character is an essential one when this character is regarded from the artist's rather than the anatomist's point of view—that is to say, when regard is had to visible and not to hidden constructive character. And Hunt's idea of artistic effect is a right one if it is made to include constructive character, and the more refined and subtle as well as the gross and obvious visual effects.

The illustrations to the book present a fair range of Dr. Rimmer's work in delineation, sculpture, and painting. The more slight point sketches are spirited and powerful in suggestion of difficult foreshortening and violent movement; but the forms are nearly always ugly and abnormally developed, while in some cases —as in the "Horses of the Chariot of the Sun," in plate xii.—the anatomical extravagance is carried so far as to destroy the specific character of the creature which the artist intended to represent. The back and shoulder of the off horse in this sketch are more like those of a lion than a horse. In finished delineation, like that of plates ix. and xix., the work assumes the character of mechanical elaboration and meaningless inequality of line of the modern Germans. The latter of these plates is, moreover, especially repulsive in accentuation of muscles, and the wings have neither grace nor structural form. The conception, too, seems to us a very unimaginative one, for (representing a falling figure) the heavy part of the body would naturally be downmost and the wings would point upward rather than downward—which latter is a position for flight, not for precipitation. This leads us to remark that Dr. Rimmer's work is, as a rule, least interesting when he quits the actual and indulges in flights of fancy. All his designs embodying conceptions of physically unreal things seem to us to display inconsistencies, and even absurdities, similar to these just noticed, and to bespeak want of true and strong powers of imagination. This forcibly illustrates the inadequacy of anatomical science as contrasted with true imagination. Compare Dr. Rimmer's fanciful and grotesque creations with that dragon by Carpaccio in S. Giorgio dei Schiavoni at Venice. There is in Rimmer's work an appearance of (perhaps unconscious) plagiarism. His is not the borrowing of genius, which is constant with great men, and not to be spoken against; Dr. Rimmer takes the *form* rather than the essential quality of what he borrows. The superficial likeness to Michael Angelo and to Blake is stronger, in his work, than expression of anything caught from the imaginative truth, consistency, and spontaneity of the works of those masters. We believe, as we have already said, that he was honest; but it is very easy for a man to deceive himself in this regard.

Dr. Rimmer's best work is, we think, his statue of Alexander Hamilton, and it is singularly unlike nearly all his other designs. This statue is remarkable among the productions of American sculpture for quiet dignity of conception and for artistic treatment. It is grand in total mass, and the details are gracefully designed and rightly subordinated. Had he pursued this line of work more steadily, and let his anatomical studies and theories go, he might have ranked high among modern sculptors.

The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland. By Eugène Fromentin. Translated by Mrs. Mary C. Robbins. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

THIS translation of Fromentin's 'Les Maîtres d'Autrefois' presents to the English reader a book which contains a good deal of interesting and instructive observation and suggestion. M. Fromentin was himself a painter of distinction, and naturally treated his subject from the painter's point of view, giving the technical part of the art of painting its due importance, and showing the intimate and inseparable connection between it and those states of thought and feeling in the mind of the artist which make the technical processes of the fine arts to differ so widely from those of the mechanic arts in character and significance. This difference is one most important to understand. In the fine arts all technical processes are employed solely to subserve the ends of expression, while in the mechanic arts they subserve merely utilitarian ends. We do not entirely agree with Fromentin's estimate of the Northern masters. It appears to us that he does not sufficiently appreciate the fact that the schools of Belgium and Holland, with all their great merits, are distinctly schools of second rank as compared with those of Italy. We think that a more just appreciation of the superior excellences of Italian painting would qualify, though it need not quench, his admiration for such masters as Rubens and Rembrandt, and would make it impossible for him to say of Rubens that "his studio recalls, with as much renown as any, the finest habits of the Italian schools." It is true that this remark implies some acknowledgment of the higher character of Italian "habits"; but a man who fully felt the great qualities of Italian painting could hardly say that Rubens recalls them.

Nevertheless, Fromentin's remarks on these two masters, as well as what he says of the painters of the North generally, are, in many ways, more discriminating than those of most critics. In the course of a very subtle analysis of Rembrandt's painting, he makes some observations on coloring which are admirably true. He says, page 258:

"A colorist properly so called is a painter who knows how to preserve in the colors of his gamut, whatever it may be, rich or not, broken or not, complicated or reduced, their principle, their fitness, their resonance, and their truth; and that everywhere and always, in the shade, in the half-tint, and even in the most vivid light. It is in this especially that schools and men are distinguished. Take an anonymous painting, examine the quality of its local tone, and what that tone becomes in light, whether it exists in the half-tint, if it exists in the most intense shadow, and you can say with certainty whether or not this painting is the work of a colorist, and to what epoch, what country, and what school it belongs. . . . Every time that color undergoes all the modifications of light and shade without losing anything of its constituent qualities, it is said that the shadow and the light are of the same family—which means that both should preserve, whatever may happen, the relationship, most easy to seize, with the local tone. Ways of understanding color are very different. There are, from Rubens to Giorgione, and from Velasquez to Veronese, varieties which prove the immense elasticity of the art of painting, and the astonishing liberties of method that genius can take without changing its aim; but one law is common to them all, and is observed only by them, whether at Venice, Parma, Madrid, Antwerp, or Haarlem: it is precisely the relationship of shade and light."

We have not seen the essential principle of good coloring so accurately stated by any other writer. Fromentin then goes on to show that Rembrandt's principle of coloring was "exactly the contrary," and he describes with equal clearness what that principle was, and says (p. 260), respecting the famous picture called "The Night Watch": "The tone disappears in the light, as it disappears in the shadow. The shadow is blackish, the light whitish. Everything radiates or is obscured by an alternate effacing of the coloring principle." Nevertheless, he maintains that Rembrandt is in some sense a colorist, which perhaps is true. That is, it is true, as we think, that he possessed the native instincts and capacities for coloring, though his extravagant use of shade prevented the consistent and true expression of his color faculty. But Fromentin does not think that Rembrandt's excessive chiaroscuro is a fault, though he admits that it is wholly untrue. With regard to "The Night Watch," he says: "All results by chance from an effect conceived contrary to probability, pursued in spite of all logic; an effect of small necessity, whose theme was this: to illumine a true

scene by a light which was not true—that is to say, to give to a fact the ideal character of a vision." Now, we do not see upon what principle a system of light and shade which is contrary to all probability and in spite of all logic, can give to a fact any ideal character, or be rightly considered an excellent system, as this one is by our author. We should say, rather, that Rembrandt, whatever his merits may be—and we admit that they are many—is a bad chiaroscurist just because he is an extravagant one. Chiaroscuro is but one of the visual properties of things which, in *balanced* perfection, give to painting its highest technical excellence; and when, in mature art, this balance is disturbed by such undue emphasis upon one of the elements of visual effect as to injure the others, we think the result may be characterized as a reprehensible fault. Such we should call Rembrandt's chiaroscuro. The fact is, as Lanzi well observes, that, under the influence of the late Renaissance in Italy, there arose an "academic rage" for chiaroscuro which led to all manner of extravagances, and carried all the finer qualities of painting before it. Leonardo da Vinci was easily affected by it; even the Venetian masters felt it harmfully; and, later, Rembrandt and his followers in the North carried it to most unjustifiable excesses.

Fromentin has an interesting chapter on the "Origin and Character of the Dutch School," another on "The Subject in Dutch Painting," and a particularly good one on the "Influence of Holland upon French Landscape." This translation has eight heliotype illustrations, and the book is handsomely printed on good paper.

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Fine Arts.

THE MADONNA OF THE CANDELABRA.

THE assertion that the "Madonna of the Candelabra," now on exhibition at the Metropolitan Museum, is worthy the warm discussion excited in regard to its authenticity, will scarcely provoke denial from any one who has seen the picture. It is unquestionably a work of no ordinary degree of merit, and undoubtedly has, in a certain measure, the charm of the flower of the Italian school. All considerations of the picture in its present position must, however, be more or less biassed by the knowledge that its value is placed at the enormous sum of $200,000. Furthermore, it is stated, on the authority of an officer of the Museum, that an attempt will be made to purchase it for the collection. On this account the picture challenges careful criticism.

Remembering the constant opportunities for the purchase of old masters of undoubted genuineness and real merit, both at the frequent auction sales in the European capitals and from private possessors, one naturally asks, first of all, Is it worth while investing so large a sum in any one example of a particular school, unless it happens to be an exceptionally perfect and a thoroughly representative work? Inasmuch as the Metropolitan Museum is established professedly for the education, cultivation, and entertainment of the public, it should be the sole ambition of the managers of the institution to form the collection on the simple broad principles which have been proved, by the experience of the best modern museums, to stimulate most and develop best the public taste of this century. One of these principles is that curiosities of art are of only secondary value.

Is the "Madonna of the Candelabra" a curiosity of art? All pictures by the old masters are curiosities of art which fail to illustrate the style of the painter's work at some period of his life. Direct and minute examination of the picture in question is prevented by the glass over it and by the rail in front of it, the former modifying the color, the latter forbidding near approach. Both are probably necessary to protect the picture from injury. But it can be well enough seen under these circumstances to leave no doubt of its age and source. The composition has the peculiar stamp of that period of the Italian school when the elements of grace and beauty hinted at in the works of such men as Masaccio and Perugino were combined, developed, brought to marvellous perfection in the work of one man, Raphael. At this distance of time it is impossible to estimate the importance of the influence of this painter on the public sentiment and on the art of his time. It is simply unparalleled. His imitators were legion. His methods were repeated, all the superficial elements of his manner were more or less successfully copied. One thing has, however, always defied imitation—the grace of style which belonged to this master alone. On this account it is comparatively easy to distinguish the leader from his followers.

No one but Raphael has ever made a composition of such exquisite grace as the picture under discussion. The design of this work is unquestionably from Raphael's hand. But cases have always been numerous where pictures have been finished after the death of the artist who began them, and, sooner or later, brought forward as the genuine work. In the Museum at Perugia there is, in fact, a painting made by Raphael's pupils on the master's drawing. There are certain points in the execution of the "Madonna of the Candelabra" which warrant the belief that it belongs to this class. A picture so important and so highly finished would, if done by the master's own hand, bear sure proofs of his peculiar method, for an artist's touch is recognizable in the same way that handwriting is. In the execution of the "Madonna of the Candelabra" there is wanting just that completeness of system which is Raphael's own copyright. It is, of course, impossible in the limits of a brief review to explain in accurate detail the method visible in the picture. In general terms it is the accomplishment of an approximate result in execution without the sequence of the intermediate steps. The effect of this method is to produce formality where there should be freedom, stiffness where there should be grace. This analysis is applicable to the color as well as to the modelling. In the period which this picture represents, Raphael gives complete satisfaction, both in the sculpturesque quality of the modelling and in the fulness of the color. To carry the examination still further, it is apparent that the finesse of the master is wanting in the expression of the faces. This is readily ex-

plained by the condition of production suggested above. The sweet maternity of Raphael's Madonnas, and the ideal innocence of his children, are only moderately echoed in this picture.

The "Madonna of the Candelabra" does not, then, illustrate Raphael's best period, as it is alleged to do. Lest it may seem an idle statement that good old masters are still to be bought at comprehensible prices, it is perhaps worth while to call attention to the fact that there is still unsold in Rome Raphael's "Apollo and Marsyas," whose authenticity is unquestioned, and whose perfection is attested by all who have seen it; that at least three Rembrandts are now offered for sale in Paris; that the group of old masters bought at the San Donato sale and exhibited last year in Boston can still be had, and that the whole of these works, all good examples, can be acquired for a less amount than the sum mentioned as the value of the "Madonna of the Candelabra."

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W. T. GALBREATH, Cashier.

Dated Nov. 10, 1882.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 28, 1882.

The Week.

THE pretence of some of the Democrats that they are willing to be "doctrinaire" on matters connected with civil-service reform, was curiously illustrated in Mr. Pugh's amendment to the Pendleton bill which was defeated on Saturday night. He proposed to throw all offices, whether vacant or not, open to competitive examination now, and to apportion them among the States and Territories. Of course, it would be physically impossible to carry out any such scheme without totally disorganizing the administrative machinery of the Government, but many honest Democrats may think that this is the only objection that can be urged against it, even if, as is possible, Mr. Pugh intended it as a jocose absurdity. Competitive examination as a means of admission to the public service is a device of practical men for a practical purpose. It is intended mainly to provide means of obtaining admission to the service which shall be free from favoritism. Its advocates do not say that it is the best mode of recruiting the service; they say it is the best attainable mode. Nor do they say that every man who passes a competitive examination is sure to be fit for the service; they say he is more likely to be a good man to try than a man recommended by a Congressman. Nor do they say that a man who gets higher marks in a competitive examination is sure to be fitter for a place than the man now filling it. What they say is, that there is no proof of a man's fitness for a place so good, or nearly so good, as his having long filled it efficiently. No examination, competitive or pass, can approach this for certainty. Any officer now in the service, therefore, who has for some time discharged his duties faithfully and accurately, has a claim to his place such as no other process devised by man could give him. It would be as silly to give the office to another man who beat him in a competitive examination, as to displace a successful commander for a young man who was better read in strategy or tactics. All this to a practical reformer seems as simple as the alphabet. Mr. Pugh, in his funny way, thinks they do not see it. His joke is that if competitive examination be a good thing, there cannot be too much of it; that everybody would be the better for being competitively examined. Therefore, if you propose that everybody who enters the service hereafter shall pass a competitive examination, it is because you think there is some mysterious virtue in competitive examination which would make any officeholder the better for it, just as if it was a new variety of mineral water, or a new chest-protector.

Senator Mahone has defined his position on the civil-service reform question, and also vindicated himself with regard to the charge that he had levied assessments upon the Federal officeholders in Virginia, and caused the removal, for political reasons, of a number of department clerks. Senator Mahone wants to have it understood that he is no civil-service reformer of the modern kind. He thinks that "the direct accountability of public officers to the people" and "the honorable condition of political parties" will keep the public service straight. Consequently, he is in favor of leaving things as they are, and he opposes especially the appointment of a Civil-Service Commission which is to inquire into the fitness of candidates for place, and thus "interposes itself as an irresponsible agency between the executive head and their responsibility." Senator Mahone knows exactly what he is about. If anybody is to interpose, he wants to do that himself; and when he recommends his political strikers or favorites for office, he does not want a Civil-Service Commission to be about and to inquire into their fitness. Now, as to his having assessed Federal officeholders in Virginia, he insists upon having it understood that he did not assess all of them, and that he did not get money from all of those he did assess. And as to his having caused the removal of department clerks for political reasons, he had only four of them removed, although he frankly admits that he urged a larger number of removals which, however, he did not get. And now there are people who assert that Mr. Mahone assessed officeholders and had clerks removed! How the world is given to lying! Seriously speaking, if the Republican party desires to be trusted as a reform party, the sooner it gets rid of all connection with Mr. Mahone and his kind the better.

Unmerited censure has been visited upon the distilling fraternity because they have sought to have the period within which they must take their whiskey out of bond and pay the excise duty on it extended. The philosophy of the whiskey tax and of all other indirect taxes is that the manufacturer or importer is merely to advance the duty and is allowed to collect it back from the consumer. In other words, taxes of this sort are taxes on consumption, not on production. The whole theory of the system implies that the tax shall be collected at the time when the article is wanted for consumption and not before, or not much before. The law fixes a period within which whiskey may remain in bonded warehouse without payment of tax. That period has elapsed as to some 100,000,000 gallons, and the owners are now required to take it out of bond and pay the tax on it, regardless of the public demand for it, unless they can obtain relief by legislation. There has been overproduction of the article. This is an error and a misfortune to the producers. They must lose in consequence of it, but that is no reason why their losses should be multiplied by requiring them immediately to advance $80,000,000 in money to the Government—money which the Government does not want, but which it will surely ruin them to pay unless the public are prepared to purchase this enormous quantity all at once and at a fair price—as of course they are not. There is no reason why the proposed extension of time should not be granted to the distillers. If this were a "grist tax" instead of a whiskey tax, there would be no opposition to the bill. Yet in the purview of fiscal science there is no difference between flour and whiskey—the one is entitled to the same consideration, regarded as a source of revenue, as the other. The question whether the Government ought not to charge for storage as a warehouseman is a separate question, and is to be answered upon quite other considerations.

Mr. Ingersoll continued his opening speech in the Star-route trial on Friday, and made some points which amused the audience a good deal. He complained of Mr. Bliss's lack of veracity, declared that, as for himself, he would rather steal than endeavor to deprive a man of his liberty by misstating a fact, and added that if he were on the jury he would not believe a word that Mr. Bliss might say, not even as to the time of day, at least "without looking at the clock afterward." This certainly must give the jury a vivid idea of Mr. Ingersoll's confidence in Mr. Bliss's unfailing mendacity, and the audience laughed heartily over it; but they became grave again when he explained to the negro members of the jury the nature of the issue in the case. "It is for you, and for you, and for you," said the gallant Colonel, addressing the three colored jurymen directly, "to say whether a man who fought to take the chains off your body, shall have chains put on his by your prejudice and ignorance." And yet people complain that the Star-route trial is hard to follow and technical.

The question raised in the Winslow extradition case as to the right to try a prisoner for a crime other than the one for which he is extradited, has come up again, this time in California, before Judge Hoffman, of the United States District Court. He has decided that extradition treaties being under the Constitution part of the law of the land, the prisoner is entitled to the benefit of any neglect or violation of their provisions, and that if extradited for a treaty crime he cannot be tried for one outside the treaty. The point as to the legal right of the prisoner to avail himself of the objection in our courts is a technical one, but there can be no question as to the necessity of the treaty exceptions being maintained in some way. If a prisoner can be extradited for murder and tried for treason, the right of asylum is gone, and no free government can afford to tolerate this.

The Richmond (Va.) *State* tries to meet our observations on the effect on foreign capitalists of the failure of the Southern people to enforce their own laws against homicide, by alleging, first, that the capitalist we mentioned who refused a good investment in a Southern city to take one at a lower rate of

interest a short distance away in a Northern State, and gave the "shotgun" as one of his reasons, was an "irresponsible imbecile"; secondly, that capital is not so timid as we make it out to be, for it goes to the mining regions to be invested in mines and railroads, which it protects with armed men. This last is true but does not conflict with our argument. Emigrants with families do not go to the mining regions. Those who go are mostly young single men, who do not mind "dying in their boots." Moreover, capital does not go to the mining regions in loans on farm lands, or loans of any kind. When it goes the owner goes with it, with his shotgun and revolver, and turns it over himself, or else buys mining stock, which is nearly always a gambling venture, hardly ever a real investment properly so called. It would go to the South in the same way if the South had similar prizes to offer. What the South needs is a good market for its lands, and a peaceable population to till them. It does not want and cannot get capitalists surrounded by armed guards. Therefore it should offer secure homes to peaceable men who do not fight, or care for "satisfaction," or "shoot on sight," and to whom money may safely be lent to use on their farms.

The news of the Pennsylvania homicide on Sunday has made some of the apologists of Southern homicide jump for joy, and set them to writing us abusive letters. Up to the present they have been obliged to rely for their counter attacks on the North on the ordinary crimes of the last thirty or forty years—the Webster murder, the daughter-whipping case, the Sickles case; but here is a genuine revolver homicide between two men in respectable positions, and this in a Northern State—that is, the very kind of homicide which we have been calling attention to. It would be exceedingly useful indeed, if we had said that such things never occurred at the North, or if they occurred at the South not more than once in five years, or even once in a year. But unhappily the evil we have been denouncing at the South is too common, and its existence too freely acknowledged, to make it possible to cover it up under a silly *tu quoque*. Moreover, our most serious charge against the South is not that homicide is frequent in that region, but that it is rarely punished.

The detailed account, in the Memphis *Avalanche*, of the killing of Speaker Tyson, of the Mississippi House of Representatives, at Baldwin, the other day, is very interesting. The Speaker, as our readers may remember, brought it on himself by chastising one Sanders for "a domestic trouble," with great severity, he and his brother having suddenly felled Sanders with a blow on the head at a railroad station, and then jumped on his body, he keeping off the Mayor with a cocked revolver until his brother completed the beating. "Threats enough to fill a volume," the *Avalanche* says, were uttered after this—the Speaker probably furnishing at least half of them—but his brother "left on a mule through the country." The Speaker would have been wise had he left on another mule. Sanders was in bed for some time; but on recovering his health, stationed himself on a high platform overlooking the sidewalk, with his shotgun, and waited for the Speaker, who came along in due course and received a plunging fire which finished him on the spot. Let no one suppose, however, that the inhabitants of Baldwin view this tragedy with indifference. On the contrary, the *Avalanche* assures us that it has been "a severe shock to the community, although it was known that a serious difficulty, to which he (the Speaker) was a party, was pending." "The feeling is one of universal regret and profound sympathy with his bereaved family." One of the most striking features of the state of mind of Southern communities about these affairs is that, although it is almost always well known when a "serious difficulty is pending"—that is, when two men are going about on the streets threatening to murder each other — "the shock" is just as "severe," and the "gloom" as great, as if it took the community wholly by surprise, and as if "difficulties" were novel phenomena.

The Albany *Morning Express*, the notorious Stalwart organ, actually came out in a recent number in favor of civil-service reform—not from very high motives, it is true, but in order to prevent Democrats, if possible, from getting the offices. But, no matter what the motives, the phenomenon is an extraordinary one, though not more extraordinary, to be sure, than the advice, delivered in somewhat opprobrious language, to the statesmen of the district associations in this city, by leading Stalwarts, to abandon the pledge to support all "regular" nominations, with which they now guard the entrance to their organizations. This, too, is a marvellous sign of the times. The statesmen in question, however, will not heed it; and from their point of view they would be unwise to heed it. As long as they maintain this pledge they are somebody. If they abandon it, they will be nobody, and suicide is no man's duty.

General Hazen, Chief Signal Officer at Washington, has taken the trouble to refute Wiggins, the new Canadian weather prophet and storm seer; Wiggins having predicted a tempest of such awful power and destructive propensities to sweep over land and sea, on the 11th of March next, that it will be unsafe for any vessel, "whatever her dimensions," to be out of harbor on that day. Vennor had already given his opinion that Wiggins is a humbug. De Voe is yet to be heard from. General Hazen's refutation of Wiggins is more minute and circumstantial than Vennor's, and presumably more so than De Voe's forthcoming one. He shows, for instance, that the track of Wiggins's storm is much more zigzag than any storms ever observed and recorded at the Signal Office, and that the influence of the Rocky Mountains imputed by Wiggins to the rush of winds on the 11th of March is essentially different from anything ever noticed by the scientific world. He also alludes to Wiggins's use of the phrase "planetary force" as something which savors of astrology and mediæval superstition rather than of the Baconian philosophy. The force of the argument, it seems to us, is on Hazen's side, but perhaps we ought not to decide prematurely, but wait until we hear from Wiggins again, and also from De Voe.

Judge Arnoux's decision with regard to the effect of the Sunday law on the Jews shows that the code possesses some curious features not hitherto suspected. The code, it seems, makes no exception in favor of the Jews with regard to trade and business, manufactures or mechanical employments. A Jew who keeps his shop or place of business open on Sunday is guilty of Sabbath-breaking exactly as if he were a Christian, and the fact that he observes Saturday makes no difference. The effect of the code is, therefore, practically to make the Jews stop all work on two days of the week, while Christians are compelled to observe only one Sunday. Judge Arnoux declares that the law is explicit, and applies to everybody alike; but, under it, the Jew will be only able to work on five days in the week, unless, indeed, he succeeds, by means which the law never designs the good citizen to use, in inducing the police captain who is placed over him to wink at a violation of the law. If the law is enforced, the Jew seems, therefore, to be placed at a distinct disadvantage in the community, the Christian being given every week one day's start of him. Of course, in the keen struggle for existence which goes on in a great city, the man who can work six days in the week will always do a little better than the man who can only work five, and in the end the six-day man would exterminate and drive away the five-day man; so that the Sunday law looks as if the object of the code was either to convert all the Jews to Christianity, or to drive them out of the State.

Another clause of the code has been discovered by Judge Arnoux, which looks as if the codifiers had done still more for the Christian religion even than this. Section 264 provides that in one case Jews may do work on Sunday, but that is only when the work is "servile labor." The language of the code is, that "it is a sufficient defence to a prosecution for servile labor on the first day of the week that the defendant uniformly keeps another day of the week as holy time, and does not labor on that day." That the effect of the provision is to enable good Christians to harry the Jews seems clear from Judge Arnoux's decision, that under it a Jew may be arrested, though he cannot be prosecuted. "It must appear, therefore, that the accused uniformly keeps another day holy, and that he does not then labor, and yet this does not protect him from arrest. It can only be shown as a defence to a prosecution." The code as it stands is peculiar, but we were assured when its provisions with regard to Sunday were first discovered, that all that was needed was a little judicial interpretation to make it perfectly intelligible. We cannot say that Judge Arnoux's decision is unintelligible, but it makes the Sunday law more grotesque than ever. To revive an obsolete law against Sabbath-breaking is inconvenient, but to revive it so as to make the Jews keep two Sundays, and enable police captains to arrest

them for performing a particular kind of labor, which may still be pleaded as a defence to a prosecution after an arrest has been made, is a consequence of "interpretation" which the Jews, at any rate, cannot be expected to like. If it is necessary for the interests of the Christian religion that the Jews should be persecuted by the police, the law ought to be passed by the Legislature after a full discussion and with a clear understanding of its effect. In the present state of the law the code is an admirable weapon for a corrupt police captain to extort money with.

The failure of the Coöperative Dress Association in this city, which was announced yesterday, is another illustration of the difficulty of getting the better of the "middlemen" in the work of distribution in this country. In England, coöperative stores for consumers have been a great success, not only among the working, but among the middle classes. In London, the stores started by the members of the civil service are doing such an immense business that at one time there was a movement among the London tradesmen to get the Government to prohibit its employees from carrying them on. In the manufacturing districts of the north, too, although success in coöperative production has been rare, coöperative distribution has been the means not only of giving large bodies of working-class consumers very cheap goods of the best quality, but of distributing considerable dividends among the purchasers. For some reason, however, which we have never seen clearly explained, coöperation does not take the fancy of consumers in the United States. No movement in that direction worth mention has originated among the workingmen. A coöperative store for their benefit was got up here three years ago, existed painfully for a year or two, and then died miserably, exposing the leading projector to much obloquy at the hands of the stockholders and creditors. Its failure was, however, to us certain from the beginning, as it was set on foot by philanthropists and clergymen, because they thought a coöperative store would be good for workingmen, instead of being set on foot by workingmen, with their own money, because they wanted it, and meant to deal at it. As a matter of fact, the workingmen did not support it, and it perished partly from inanition and partly from bad management. The most probable reason of these miscarriages is that workingmen in this country who have the foresight and order of intelligence needed to make undertakings of this sort successful, find they can do better with their savings in enterprises of their own. The chances of becoming a boss which open themselves to a canny American artisan are so numerous that those who are made of the right stuff for corporators prefer to go alone. Then, too, it is not unlikely—though we know of no statistics by which it could be proved—that the working population of this country is more nomadic, or rather less settled, than it is in England. The best of them roam more, in the hope of bettering their condition, and are more apt to try a variety of occupations in new places.

The failure of the Coöperative Dress Association is much more easily explicable. It was not a popular movement, in the first place, and could not therefore rely on small profits from large sales. Its clients were of necessity a somewhat restricted class—the women who want expensive clothes at low rates. This must always be a small and shifting body. Its members are apt not to stay long in the position which makes the coöperative store attractive. They either grow richer, and, throwing economy aside as too troublesome, go to the most expensive dressmaker they can find, or else become poorer, and have all their clothes made at home. Then a store intended to supply swell clothes at low rates through hired management is brought into competition with a branch of private business which probably contains more of whatever dry-goods talent there is in the city than any other. There is probably no business to which so much individual skill, shrewdness, enterprise, and capital, in proportion to sales, is applied as the business of supplying women's dress of the finer and more expensive kind in the United States, and especially in this city. The competition in it is very great, and the profits are probably as low as they can be made. It was very unlikely, therefore, from the beginning that hired managers could be got for any such undertaking who could compete with the partners of the great firms carrying on the same business. Any one capable of making such a business succeed in New York finds no difficulty either in obtaining an enormous salary from private firms, or a partnership which gives him a fortune in a very few years. In fact, we fear it will be a good while before American women will be able to dress well without middlemen. The profits of the middlemen may seem large, but such experiments as the Coöperative Dress Association show that the profits need to be large to secure the peculiar capacity which makes the American "dry-goods man" one of the marvels of modern civilization.

The last scene in the Egyptian drama was enacted on Monday at Cairo, when Arabi and his brother Pashas concerned in the late war were publicly degraded from their military rank, preparatory to their starting for Ceylon, which is to be their place of exile. The exile to that distant region is of itself a terrible penalty, and they doubtless feel that it is simply better than death. The worst of it all for Arabi is that he has not only lost his political but his moral and theological position. His trial on the charge of burning Alexandria was probably abandoned because the proof was defective, and on the charge of rebellion because the evidence would have implicated the Sultan and the Khedive, and because he was willing to plead guilty in order to make sure of saving his neck. But enough was revealed to establish the fact that as a prophet and patriot he was a great humbug; that his mendacity was stupendous, even for an Egyptian, and that in his military and political manœuvres he was from first to last carefully looking after his own interests. Mr. Wilfrid Blunt has, however, stuck to him to the last, with purse and pen, with that amiable enthusiasm which has marked his espousal of Arabi's cause from the beginning, and which probably did so much to lead Arabi astray. The settlement of the future government of the country is still delayed by the English difficulty in coming to terms with France about the part to be played by the latter.

It would seem from the news of yesterday that some progress has been made toward solving the old problem how to establish official communications between the British Government and the Pope without endangering the Protestant religion and the liberties of England. It is now nearly a century since England began to have intercourse with the Pope in a sneaking, underhand way, by means of non-official persons, travelling Catholic gentlemen, and the like, but until now it has never ventured to use a regular accredited envoy, so strong has been the feeling among the English middle classes that such a step would be a recognition in some way of the Pope's spiritual claims. The feeling is a tradition of the Elizabethan and Stuart days, when the Pope's agents in England were supposed to be plotting either for the murder or dethronement of the sovereign, or his conversion to Popery, with all its attendant horrors. The creation of a British Legation to the Vatican will probably now be easy, but it will mean not that the Papacy has grown more powerful in England, but that the Pope is regarded by the British public as a harmless old gentleman, whose aid in keeping the Irish in order may be useful.

M. Bontoux, the President of the collapsed Union Générale, who has just been convicted, along with M. Feder, the Secretary of the Company, of a breach of the law on public securities, has been sentenced to the extraordinarily severe penalty of five years' imprisonment and a fine of $600. When first indicted, he was charged with swindling and embezzlement, but these counts were afterward abandoned by the Public Prosecutor, all the securities deposited with him for safekeeping, or as collaterals, being found intact. All that was left was, therefore, counts for speculating in the securities of his own company and false representations, the former of which, on this side of the water, is hardly considered an offence. The Court ruled that if the speculation were moderate, and in good faith for a rise, it would not be an offence in France either. Bontoux denied, and it appears successfully, that he had speculated in the shares on his personal account, but he admitted having sold out during the decline, and was only able to answer the charge of giving a grossly untrue account of the company's condition by alleging that at the time he honestly believed what he said. The chief bookkeeper, too, gave some very damaging testimony as to his having made up a fictitious balance sheet, showing a profit of about $7,000,000, when there was really a huge deficit, under instructions from M. Feder, the Secretary. Bontoux will probably not undergo his sentence, as he has, as is not unfrequent in France, been tried in his absence, and will probably feel under no obligation to surrender himself for punishment.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 20, to TUESDAY, December 26, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE White House was thrown open to the public on Wednesday for the first time since last August, when it was closed for repairs, and the President received a large number of visitors. He will hold his first public reception of the season on New Year's Day.

A Cabinet meeting was held on Tuesday at which the principal matter discussed is said to have been the case of Sergeant Kelly, of Fort Popham, Me., who is now awaiting trial for murder. The question was whether the United States should yield jurisdiction in the case to the State courts, and thereby establish a precedent with regard to crimes committed on Government reservations. No conclusion was reached.

On Saturday the President approved the act repealing the discriminating duties on goods produced east of the Cape of Good Hope; the act ceding to the First Taxing District of the State of Tennessee a certain lot of land in that district, and the act authorizing the Board of Commissioners of the Soldiers' Home to sell certain property at Harrodsburg, Ky.

The State Department has been officially notified that the Mexican Government, after full consideration of the subject, has decided to appoint commissioners to meet those appointed by the United States for the purpose of negotiating a commercial treaty between the two countries. As one of the commissioners the President of Mexico has selected Señor Romero, formerly Minister to the United States. The first meeting of the Commission will be held early in January.

On Wednesday the Senate passed the Consular and Diplomatic Appropriations Bill, with all but one of the amendments reported by the Committee, and with an amendment, added on motion of Mr. Pendleton, appropriating $5,000 to enable the President to extend diplomatic relations with the Governments of Eastern Asia. The Pendleton bill was then taken up. Mr. Vest made a speech, in which he said he had agreed that the bill should be reported to the Senate, not because he believed its provisions would remedy the evils existing in our civil service, but rather as a means of emphasizing his convictions of the urgent necessity for reform. Mr. Allison and Mr. Dawes made speeches in support of the bill. On Thursday the House resolution for a recess was called up, which furnished a text for eloquence on the question of the records of the respective parties for the last fifty years. The resolution was finally lost by a vote of seventeen to forty-five. The debate on the Pendleton bill was then continued. On Friday the Allison amendment to the bill, reducing the number of Commissioners, was defeated by a tie vote, twenty-three Senators voting on each side. An incident of the debate on that day was an explanation by Senator Mahone in regard to his use of patronage and his levying of political assessments during the recent campaign. He said there had been only four removals upon his representation, except of persons who were unjustly charged to the quota of Virginia, and who were not in any sense residents of the State. In regard to the charge made by Senators Bayard and Beck, that it had been found necessary to prepare blank forms upon which to inform Virginians in the Government service of their dismissal, he pronounced it lacking in every element of truth. On Saturday the Hale amendment to the Pendleton bill, in regard to the selection and location of the local boards of examiners, was carried. An amendment offered by Senator Brown, striking out the paragraph requiring that "promotion shall be from the lower grades to the higher on the basis of merit and competition," was carried. The debate was continued until 12 o'clock at night with much warmth. The Senate then adjourned till Wednesday without reaching any vote on the Pendleton bill.

On Wednesday the House passed the Post-office Appropriation Bill by a vote of 163 to 21. Much of Friday was passed in attempting to obtain a quorum, and on Saturday, there being no quorum, the House was adjourned until Wednesday.

The President has issued an Executive order, setting apart certain lands in Dakota Territory for the use and occupation of the Turtle Mountain band of Chippewas, and such other Indians of the Chippewa tribe as the Secretary of the Interior may see fit to settle thereon.

Advices received at the Interior Department on Wednesday, dated December 4, and coming through the military channels, report that the Milk River country, in northern Montana, is overrun with half-breeds, Crees, and Lame-Brulé bands of hostile Sioux Indians; also that the Yankton Indians and possibly others are obtaining arms, ammunition, and whiskey in unlimited quantities, and that a collision between the troops and these Indians is apprehended. It is stated at the Department that most of these intruders are Canadian Indians, and that steps were taken some time ago, when the Department was first advised of their presence, to prevent them from obtaining arms, ammunition, etc., from the trading posts in that section.

A circular letter has been sent by Indian Commissioner Price to all Indian agents, containing rules for the establishment and guidance at each Indian agency of a "Court of Indian Offences," which is to be composed of three persons, to be nominated by the agent after consultation with the Indians in council, from among the most intelligent of the tribe, and well known and recognized for their good moral character. The court is to have jurisdiction over such questions as may be presented to it by the agent, or by his approval, and over all "Indian offences" which are designated in the circular. All decisions and orders of these courts are to be subject to an appeal and final revision by the Indian Office.

A letter from the Collector of Customs at Sitka, Alaska, submitted to the House on Thursday, in reply to a resolution of Mr. Hewitt concerning the shelling of the Alaska Indians by the revenue cutter *Corwin*, justifies the action of the officers of the cutter.

Forty Chinese women recently arrived at Victoria, B. C., thirty-two of whom had been sold to Chinamen who reside in the United States. Two Chinamen who wanted to secure certain of the women brought them before the courts on a writ of habeas corpus, alleging that they were forcibly detained. The women, however, swore that they were free agents, and the cases were dismissed. In the course of the investigation it was proved that the thirty-two women who went to the United States were disguised as Indian women. It is feared that this traffic will be carried on on a large scale from Victoria during the ensuing year.

A despatch from Lieutenant Harber, dated at Yakutsk, was received by Secretary Chandler on Wednesday. Lieutenant Harber says he has made a thorough search of the coast of the Lena without finding any trace of Lieutenant Chipp's party. He will return to the delta. On Thursday Secretary Chandler received a despatch from Minister Hunt, at St. Petersburg, saying that the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs considered the removal of the bodies of De Long and his men impracticable at present, endangering the dogs and reindeer required, which cannot be replaced if lost.

Mr. John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, delivered an address at the Union League Club, New York, on Thursday evening, on "Illiteracy as shown by the Census of 1880." He said that, according to the last census, there were in the United States over 3,200,000 colored persons, over 2,200,000 native whites, and over 7,000,000 foreign-born whites over ten years of age who could not write. Although this represents relatively a gain of 10 per cent. over 1870 in the number who can write, it is an absolute increase of 581,000 in the number who cannot write. Mr. Eaton gave a mass of figures, from which he drew the conclusion that if the illiterates were all taught to read and write, the value of their labor would be so increased that an increment of wealth amounting to $488,757,000 a year would be added to the whole country. He said that all the present agencies for grappling with the problem of illiteracy were overtaxed, and that only the general Government could meet the greatness of the present emergency by aiding the States in helping and extending established agencies.

An important conviction of a mail robber has been secured in West Virginia. His name is Price, and he was a member of the Redmen's Society, an organization like the Ku-klux, which has created a reign of terror in Barbour County, in that State. The citizens were afraid to testify for fear of the Redmen's revenge. One of Price's companions, however, after Price's conviction, made a confession, giving the secrets of the Redmen. The result is that several persons have been arrested for perjury.

The issue of standard silver dollars from the mints for the week ending December 23 was $776,999, as against $421,490 for the corresponding period of last year.

It is announced that there will soon be established in Washington an institution to be known as the "National Club of American Economists." Its purpose will be to fight the freetraders and revenue-reformers. The President will be First Comptroller Lawrence of the Treasury.

The industrial census of Philadelphia shows a large increase as compared with the census of 1880. There has been an increase of 2,000 establishments and of 50,000 persons employed.

Citizens of Louisville, Ky., have subscribed over $200,000 to the Cotton Exhibition to be held there next year.

Captain A. C. Nutt, Cashier of the Pennsylvania State Treasury, was shot and killed on Sunday morning, at Uniontown, Penn., by N. L. Dukes, a member of the Fayette County bar, and member-elect of the State Legislature. Nothing was developed in the evidence before the coroner's jury to show what led to the encounter, but it was unquestionably a domestic scandal. The affair caused much excitement in Pennsylvania.

The Grand Jury at Louisville, Kentucky, has found nine indictments against the Auditor, Back-Tax Collector, and Clerk of the Assessor's office of the city, charging them with conspiracy to defraud the city and other misdemeanors. The Mayor has declared the offices vacant, and the Council will impeach the delinquents.

It is stated that the Trustees of Trinity College, Hartford, have invited Dr. Potter, President of Union College, Schenectady, N. Y., to become the President of Trinity College, in place of Dr. Pynchon, who has resigned, but who will remain at the College, retaining the Professorship of Moral Philosophy.

FOREIGN.

In the French Senate on Wednesday M. Léon Say concluded his speech on the budget. He dwelt upon the necessity of keeping down

the floating debt, and contended that the best means of continuing the railway enterprises advocated by the Department of Public Works was to treat with the railway companies. At the Cabinet meeting on Thursday, President Grévy assented to the proposal of Admiral Jauréguiberry in regard to the proposed expedition to Tonquin, and the Cabinet decided to despatch the expedition, and will demand a credit of 11,000,000 francs therefor. On Friday, during the discussion of the budget in the Senate, M. Buffet appealed to the Senators in the name of patriotism to rescue the finances of the Government from embarrassment. He said they should bear in mind that the country might one day be called upon to make a supreme effort either for the preservation of order at home or safety abroad. M. Tirard, Minister of Finance, protested against the alarmist campaign which was being prosecuted against the finances of the country.

The Committee for the Promotion of a Treaty of Commerce between France and the United States held a meeting in Paris on Saturday, at which a communication was read stating that, according to the latest news, the American Government and Congress were disposed to effect considerable reductions in the customs tariff. The Committee, in consequence of this information, decided to make representations to the French Government, urging it to watch carefully the interests of French commerce during the discussion in Washington on the tariff question.

M. Bontoux, President, and M. Feder, Manager, of the collapsed Union Générale, were on Wednesday sentenced to five years' imprisonment and to pay a fine of 3,000 francs.

On Friday nine of the rioters of Montceau-les-Mines were sentenced to imprisonment for terms varying from one to five years, with recommendations to mercy. Fourteen others were acquitted.

It is stated that the examination of the papers found in the residence of Prince Krapotkine, who was recently arrested, reveals ugly facts. The papers are said to implicate, among others, a relative of the Czar. The Prince was examined for three hours by a Judge of Instruction on Monday. He answered "No" to every question put to him. He is kept in solitary confinement, not even the police in charge being allowed to speak to him. He and forty-five other Anarchists will be tried at Lyons early in January before the Correctional Tribunal.

M. de Lesseps, presiding at a banquet in Paris given by the Contractors on Public Works, on Sunday, announced that the scheme for the creation of an inland sea in Africa will be resumed by private enterprise.

The hanging of Overdank, at Trieste, caused great excitement in Italy. In the Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, notice was given of an interpellation inquiring whether the Government had interposed with Austria with a view to obtaining Overdank's pardon. On Friday, Signor Depretis stated in the Chamber that the Government declined to reply to the interpellation, as the statements made in connection with it had served as a pretext for disorders which the Government was determined to suppress. On the same day a number of young men made a demonstration in front of the Austrian Embassy in Rome, crying "Down with Austria!" The military was called out to disperse the crowd. Demonstrations were also made at Milan and Turin in protest against the hanging of Overdank. The Italian Government sent severe orders to the prefects to suppress demonstrations. On Sunday the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs called upon the Austrian Ambassador at Rome to express his regret at the display of feeling against Austria made by the Italians engaged in the disorders. On Sunday and Monday it was necessary to surround the Austrian embassy at Turin with troops to protect it from the mob.

On Friday the Italian Chamber of Deputies adopted the Parliamentary Oath Bill introduced by the Government, by a vote of 222 to 45. During the debate on the bill on Wednesday Signor Depretis made an eloquent speech in defence of the bill. He said the oath was simply a mutual agreement between the King and the representatives of the nation. The House of Savoy, he said, had always faithfully kept its promises, and he was convinced it would keep them. On Thursday, a motion expressing confidence in the Government was carried by a vote of 324 to 32.

In his reply to the new-year congratulations of the Cardinals on Sunday, the Pope, in alluding to the Martinucci case recently decided by the Italian Court of Appeals, said: "A fresh attack upon the sovereignty of the Papacy has recently been made. The consideration which was formerly shown for the Holy See, and which was dictated by political prudence and reasons of state, has now been put aside." He added that, despite everything, he would continue to defend the rights and interests of the Church.

A despatch from Sofia, Bulgaria, says that the Chamber of Deputies held its first sitting on Sunday. The state of siege proclaimed in some of the Turkish districts, in consequence of the prevalence of brigandage, has been raised.

King Milan of Servia, replying to an address presented to him by the Skupshtina, said on Tuesday that since 1815 Servia had passed through a gigantic struggle for progress and freedom, and was now assuming an honorable place among the educated races of Europe. The King's speech is reported to have created a favorable impression.

In the Greek Chamber of Deputies on Monday the Opposition protested against a proposal to proceed with the discussion of the budget on the ground of informality, and retired in a body. M. Tricoupis then said that if the Opposition persisted in retiring, the Government would ask the Chamber to proceed to vote the budget without further debate.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Sunday the Ministerial motion declaring against any change in the Constitution of 1876 was adopted by a vote of 221 to 18. The Cortes then adjourned to January 8. Only the Republican members voted against the motion, and the Conservative members of the dynastic Left abstained from voting, being unwilling to show their small numerical strength. The opinion prevails that although the new party obtained greater success in the political debates in the Chamber of Deputies than in the Senate, the Government has not been materially weakened, and therefore no Cabinet changes are expected for the present. On Friday Señor Castelar made a speech in the Chamber which excited much comment. He maintained the superiority of the democratic system of government, and the incompatibility of monarchy with liberty. He declared that he would never alter his views, and would remain a Republican to the day of his death. He said he believed in the ultimate triumph of his cause.

The Khedive's decree degrading Arabi and the other rebel Pashas was published Monday morning. Their public degradation was carried out in the afternoon in the presence of two battalions of the new Egyptian Army. Only a few Europeans and about 100 natives were present. The prisoners have started for Ceylon.

Mr. Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, speaking at a meeting of the National Federation at Ashton-under-Lyne, on Tuesday, the 19th instant, energetically condemned the doctrines of "non-intervention and peace at any price" as ignoble and unworthy of a great nation. England, he said, had great legitimate interests in Egypt which should be guarded by the establishment of stable institutions leading toward self-government, but a protectorate or annexation would be disastrous.

On Monday the London *Daily News* announced that Sir Charles Dilke will enter the Cabinet as President of the Local Government Board, while the Right Hon. George Dodson, the present incumbent of the office, will become Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

The Government has ordered the prosecution of Mr. Harrington, Secretary of the Organizing Committee of the Irish National League, for a speech recently delivered by him, and prosecutions are understood to be pending against the proprietors of various provincial journals for articles published by them inciting to crime.

The Government has determined to prosecute Mr. O'Brien, editor of the *United Ireland*, for seditious libel uttered in an article which appeared in that paper, and which, in referring to the recent executions of Irish murderers, attempted to show that they had been hanged on the principle that somebody must be hanged—the right person if possible, but, at all events, somebody.

A large meeting was held in London on Sunday night, for the purpose of organizing a fund to relieve the distress in Ireland. Many letters and telegrams from clergymen in Ireland were read, describing the outlook as appalling and stating that the people are on the verge of famine. A resolution was passed urging the Government to prevent the people in Ireland from perishing for want of the necessaries of life.

The Secretary of Mr. Tuke's Emigration Fund has issued an appeal for aid to enable distressed people in Ireland to emigrate to Canada and the United States. The local Government Board has applied to Mr. Tuke's Committee for coöperation in furthering the Government's emigration scheme. The districts already intrusted to the Committee contain an aggregate population of more than 30,000. In a speech on Thursday evening Mr. Davitt said that emigration was no cure for the discontent in Ireland. A system of public-works enterprises, he said, would be far more creditable to English statesmen than forcing thousands into workhouses and then forcing them to quit the country. From his knowledge of the new Ireland in America, he said he could tell Lord Derby that English statesmen before long would have to take into account the Irish element in America in the settlement of the Irish question.

All the witnesses summoned in connection with the Phœnix Park murders were brought to Kilmainham Jail, to see if they could identify Westgate, who had accused himself of being one of the assassins. They failed to identify him as one of the murderers, and it has been since found out that Westgate occasionally labors under hallucinations, which probably accounts for his self-inculpation.

The Rev. Dr. Benson has been appointed to and has accepted the Archbishopric of Canterbury.

The peace negotiations between Bolivia and Chili have again been broken off. Bolivia requested the presence of two Peruvian commissioners at a conference to take place at Santiago or Valparaiso, but Chili would not consent. In reply to a speech by General Maney, the new United States Minister to Bolivia, on presenting his credentials, General Salinas, President of Bolivia, said that Bolivia and Peru now understood fully that there was no chance of the United States interfering in their behalf against Chili, and that Bolivia now understood that its future depended on itself

CHRISTMAS.

THE Anglo-Saxon Christmas was, forty years ago, in a somewhat declining condition—that is, considerable weariness of it, or indifference to it, was beginning to show itself—when Dickens restored it by associating it with the spirit of kindliness and good-will to all friends and neighbors which he preached so successfully in his earlier novels. He made it fashionable, as it were, to be unusually affectionate and generous not only to one's own family, but to every one with whom one came in contact about that time of the year. He filled the imagination of the Anglo-Saxon world with pictures of the happiness which could be brought to poor homes by Christmas cheer, in the shape of turkeys and roast beef, and venison and other game, and—which was perhaps more effective—with pictures of the virtues, both social and domestic, which were to be found among the humble and lowly by rich people who went in search of them. The result was a prodigious Christmas renaissance. The illustrated Christmas book began to appear, and the "Christmas number" of the illustrated paper, with Christmas tales and pictures of delightful Christmases in country houses, with girls being kissed under the mistletoe, elderly men dancing country-dances with almost unseemly vivacity, "waits" singing in front of brilliantly-lighted windows, wagons hauling home "yule logs," and young ladies helping the curate to dress the church in Christmas green. The most marked feature of this Dickens revival was the conversion of the elderly people to a liking for Christmas, for it must be admitted that the elderly are the worst enemies of Christmas as the feast of good cheer and good-fellowship. As a general rule, the leading anniversaries of the world have to be kept alive by the young. In most people past middle life they touch sore spots in the memory, and mark with somewhat startling emphasis the flight of time; so that there is apt to be more or less indifference to them, or even positive aversion, on the part of that portion of society which pays the expenses of formal merry-making and remembering. To Dickens belongs the credit of having convinced this class, for a brief period at all events, that Christmas was unlike other fêtes in having a distinct rôle for the elderly—namely, that of being young again. He makes his middle-aged men dance furiously, and laugh immoderately, and eat late suppers, and drink punch, and kiss pretty girls, and gives them a claim to be heard patiently at this one season when giving accounts of their doings, "at your age," as they say to the youths and maidens. He greatly magnified the office, too, of a benefactor of poor relations and dependents, and, in fact, thoroughly popularized Christmas with all classes and ages.

The English Christmas is, however, of late years, not holding its own, in its old form. Dickens's influence has spent its force, and the old agencies which were working for Christmas abasement before his time have begun to reassert themselves. The spread of education, the love of reading, the increasing seriousness and independence of the working classes, the great scattering of families which steam-travelling has brought about, make the old "merry Christmas" no longer possible. The association of happiness, too, with repletion of the stomach, which did so much for Christmas in the olden time, is rapidly disappearing—has, in fact, disappeared among all but the very poor. The huge joint, like "the baron of beef," or the boar's head, or the haunch of venison, which once was the glory of the Christmas dinner, no longer holds its old position. Its attractiveness has been ruined by the growth of French cookery—especially that feature of French cookery, called "little dishes," which torments the imaginations of so many housekeepers—and by an undoubted decline in eating capacity on the part of the modern world. Gluttony, which used to be one of the seven deadly sins, is now an all but unknown vice. Cases of very excessive eating are almost unheard of; and among the well-to-do people of our time the sight of huge joints, or the sound of a table "groaning" under cheer of any kind, instead of stimulating, destroys the appetite. The weakening of the ties of blood also, which has undoubtedly taken place, under the influence of the immense scattering which has been produced by modern improvements in locomotion, has damaged the old-fashioned Christmas. In the days when relatives dwelt rather near together, and kept the sense of relationship alive by frequent intercourse, and when families had heads who were deferred to, the Christmas gathering of the tribe under its largest roof was both pleasant and significant. It strengthened a well-recognized and often very useful bond, and renewed cherished associations. In our time, however, when the cynical press denounces "family gatherings" as an awful infliction, and asks to have a prayer for deliverance from one's relations inserted in the litany, it cannot be denied that its utterances find an echo, about Christmas time, in many not by any means hard or cold hearts. The relation is, in fact, not what he used to be, and the Christmas tradition can do nothing for him. Few people now care much about him as such. He is put in the same category with the rest of the human race, whom we like or dislike not for their fathers or mothers, but for themselves. In fact, many of us feel about him as the gentleman felt who was asked "whether he liked children." "What a question," said he; "you might as well ask me whether I like grown-up people." The relation, in fact, begins to feel more and more that those who do not care to see him on other days will not be beguiled into setting Christmas apart as a day for pretending to enjoy his society.

The general tendency of the Anglo-Saxon Christmas is, therefore, in the German or French direction. The French do not make as much of Christmas as a family fête as of New Year's Day, but their practice, as well as that of the Germans, has always been to celebrate their family fêtes by gifts rather than by eating together. In this country as well as in England, in fact, the present-making German Christmas is rapidly displacing the old Anglo-Saxon eating Christmas, in which present-making (except in the shape of gifts to the poor and tips to servants) had but a small space. In fact, the American Christmas may now be said to be a day of the year when everybody makes a present to everybody of his friends under a certain age whom he thinks it will gratify—children getting most presents, and the old persons but few. Among people of small means, utility is apt to govern the selection of the articles; among the richer, beauty has more to do with it. But the number of things which may be converted into Christmas presents every year increases. There is no store nowadays which does not contain "holiday goods," and the result is to popularize Christmas in a way which probably even Dickens never dreamed of. A present-giving Christmas, with stockings and trees for the children, and packages by express and Christmas cards by mail for the not old, diffuses Christmas feelings over the land in a way which the old eating Christmas never did. This was at best but a day of remembrance for but few. The most generous observer of the day could have but a small number at his board, while the giver of gifts can reach the uttermost ends of the earth with tokens of either affection or good wishes, whichever he feels or cares to show.

The new régime has of course, like all things of the kind, its weak side, in that it tends, like all human expressions of feeling, to become mechanical through long use, and, like all things effected through expenditure of money, to exalt the man with the longest purse, and to impose obligations on those whom obligations make uncomfortable. This is, however, only another way of saying that no human institution is without its drawbacks or imperfections, and that all modes of human expression are liable to abuse. The fact remains that, however celebrated, the devotion of one day in the year to the remembrance of other people; to small attempts to make their lives a little brighter, their future seem a little more hopeful, their journey through the world a little less lonely; to a little closing up of the ranks of those who still survive the ravages that Time every year makes in the column in which each generation marches across the field, is one of the best things the Christian Church has done for the modern world.

ORTHODOX PROTECTIONISTS.

A NEW protectionist association, calling itself the "National Club of American Economists," has been formed at Washington city. This association is apparently based upon the idea that genuine "protection" means the highest rate of duty that anybody wants to have imposed upon anything, and that any other kind of protection is bogus. Its prospectus, as formulated by its President, tells us that "a majority of freetraders have unexpectedly entered Congress"—meaning, we suppose, the next Congress, although nobody can tell at this time what the views of the next Congress may prove to be. We have not the least expectation that the freetraders will have a majority of the next Congress, but we presume that a majority of that body will be at least as far advanced in their ideas

as the "report" of the Tariff Commission appears to be, and will be opposed to duties of 100 per cent. *ad valorem*. It is a fact worthy of note that there are protectionists of considerable reputation who think that the Tariff Commission has betrayed the cause. Mr. Henry Carey Baird is one of this class, if we may credit an interview with him recently published in a Philadelphia newspaper. According to Mr. Baird, the Commissioners, although selected to represent the interests of protection, have yielded supinely to the demands of their opponents, and have put their names to a document containing the worst heresies of free trade. We have no doubt that the National Club of American Economists are substantially in accord with Mr. Baird, and are prepared to take a decided stand against anybody who favors any lower rate of duty than the highest which anybody else wants.

In mentioning the "report" of the Tariff Commission we by no means intend to include the bill which accompanies it. The report is a very good argument for the use of revenue reformers, while the bill is, upon the whole, rather worse than the existing tariff. The following extracts from the report might have been written, with some slight change of phraseology, by David A. Wells, Edward Atkinson, or W. M. Grosvenor. Indeed, Colonel Grosvenor claims that the substance of it was set forth by himself in his work, 'Does Protection Protect?' published in the year 1871. The report says:

"Early in its deliberations the Commission became convinced that a substantial reduction of tariff duties is demanded, not by a mere indiscriminate popular clamor, but by the best conservative opinion of the country, including that which has in former times been most strenuous for the preservation of our national industrial defences. Such a reduction of the existing tariff the Commission regards not only as a due recognition of public sentiment and a measure of justice to consumers, but one conducive to the general industrial prosperity, and which, though it may be temporarily inconvenient, will be ultimately beneficial to the special interest affected by such reduction. No rates of defensive duties, except for the establishment of new industries, which more than equalize the conditions of labor and capital with those of foreign competitors, can be justified. Excessive duties, or those above such standard of equalization, are positively injurious to the interest which they are supposed to benefit. They encourage the investment of capital in manufacturing enterprise by rash and unskilled speculators, to be followed by disasters to the adventurers and their employees, and a plethora of commodities which deranges the operations of skilled and prudent enterprise. It would seem that the rates of duties under the existing tariff—fixed for the most part, during the war, under the evident necessity at that time of stimulating to the utmost all domestic production—might be adapted, through reduction, to the present condition of peace requiring no such extraordinary stimulus. And in the mechanical and manufacturing industries, especially those which have been long established, it would seem that the improvements in machinery and processes made within the last twenty years, and the high scale of productiveness which has become a characteristic of their establishments, would permit our manufacturers to compete with their foreign rivals under a substantial reduction of existing duties."

These words will be pasted in the hats of many stump speakers in the interest of revenue reform a year and a half hence, and the Washington Club of Economists will be kept busy answering them.

The bill reported by the Commission is, however, a delusion and a snare. The average reduction of duties, they tell us, is not less than 20 per cent., and they believe that it will reach 25 per cent. This reduction is reached, if reached at all, by lowering duties which are now prohibitory, but still leaving them prohibitory. Take the precious example of steel rails. The existing duty is $28 per ton. The lowest price in England is $25 per ton, and the price in this country at present is $40. The Commission make a great merit of reducing the duty to $18, which is quite as prohibitory as the present duty, since no rails can be imported under it. The whole bill is made up of subterfuges of this kind, interspersed with additions here and there to the existing scale of duties, as for instance in the cases of earthenware, glass, and tin plates.

Tin plates are the raw material of one of the most extensive branches of our manufacturing industry. There is hardly a village that has not its tinsmith, while the great cities turn out millions of dollars' worth of utensils and tin cans, which become the raw materials and necessary adjuncts of other branches of manufacture even more extensive. Tin plates ought to be put on the free list, as a measure of true protection to American industry. The duty is 1 1-10 cents per pound, and the amount imported is between 200,000,000 and 300,000,000 pounds per annum. The Commission recommend that the duty be increased to 1 9-10 cents a pound—at the instance, it is said, of a Pittsburgh firm who have taken it into their heads to import block tin and make the plates in this country, and who wish to have all the tinshops and canning establishments of the United States, as well as all the consumers of their products, handed over to them as subjects of taxation. What a formidable *octopus* this Pittsburgh tin-plate company would be if it could have its way! Even tin can be produced in this country under a sufficiently high rate of duty. After the Pittsburgh firm get well started the right thing will be to put a duty of 10 cents a pound on block tin to encourage the miners.

It is this sort of protection that the Washington Club of Economists is apparently organized to promote. It was this sort of protection that ruined a flourishing American industry (that of copper smelting) a few years ago, and transferred to English houses the trade in metal sheathing for American ship-bottoms—at the instance of the rich owners of copper mines on Lake Superior. The sublimated and refined variety of protection which now obtains in the orthodox schools holds that foreign trade is essentially infamous, and that any domestic industry (manufacturing or other) which depends upon it ought to be delivered over to some domestic devil-fish to have its blood sucked—as soon as possible.

THE MEANING OF THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT.

THE argument now going on in the Supreme Court, in the Southern Pacific Railroad Company's tax case, over the construction of the Fourteenth Amendment, presents some important points of constitutional law. The suit is brought to recover from the company State and county taxes levied on its property in California. One of the defences of the company is that in the assessment of its property an unlawful discrimination was made between it and the property of individuals, the company not being allowed any deduction from the valuation on account of a mortgage upon it, although such deductions are allowed in the case of individuals; that the defendant had no notice or opportunity to be heard respecting the value of its property, or to correct any errors of the State Board of Equalization. The company contends, too, that the tax thus laid conflicts with the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment —"nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." Passing over the questions of fact and technical points involved, the case brings up the true construction of the Fourteenth Amendment in its relation to the taxing powers of the States.

Ten years ago, in the New Orleans slaughter-house cases, there was a very full argument in the Supreme Court with regard to the general effect of the provisions of this amendment; but the opinions of the judges throw little light upon the disposition likely to be made of the present case. The facts then before the court were that the Legislature of Louisiana had incorporated a company with the exclusive right to carry on the business of slaughtering cattle within a large district embracing the city of New Orleans. The butchers protested against this act as interfering with their trade and in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment. Five judges upheld the act as being an exercise of the police power of the State for the benefit of the public health, and held that the Fourteenth Amendment had no bearing upon the matter.

On the other hand, four judges thought the act created a monopoly, and conflicted with the amendment. The argument chiefly turned, it is true, on the provision in the amendment that "no State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States"; but the other clauses were discussed, and the view of the minority appears to have been that the amendment was designed as a Federal *magna charta*, authorizing the interposition of the United States to protect its citizens against any injustice or oppression on the part of the States; while the majority thought that the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments ought to be construed together, as part of a general scheme designed to free the negroes and to guarantee them civil and political rights. It must be said, however, that the views of the majority as to the effect of the amendment, consisting of Judges Clifford, Miller, Davis, Strong, and Hunt, were by no means as clearly expressed as those of the minority, consisting of Chief-Justice Chase, Judges Swayne, Field, and Bradley. This was but natural, for the majority did not consider the act of the Louisiana Legislature objectionable in itself as creating a monopoly, and therefore were hardly called upon to discuss the amendment at all.

But, besides this, the complete reorganiza-

tion of the court within the last ten years, through the appointment of new judges, is of itself enough to preclude us from drawing any inferences from the slaughter-house cases. Only three members of the court as it then existed—Judges Field, Bradley, and Miller—are now on the bench. The Chief Justice, and Judges Blatchford, Gray, Harlan, Woods, and Matthews—two-thirds of the court—are recent appointments, and are all Republicans, and none of them are likely to prove very strict constructionists. At the same time, the consequences of a liberal construction of the amendment will necessarily be so far-reaching and comprehensive that there is still likely under any circumstances to be a great diversity of opinion among the judges.

We must confess that we see no escape from the dilemma that, if the amendment has anything to do with the taxing powers of the States, in the sense of preventing injustice and discrimination, it must necessitate the supervision by the Supreme Court of the revenue system of the States to a degree hitherto undreamed of. It is hard to believe that the provision with regard to "due process of law" can be construed to give authority for this purpose, for it is a phrase the meaning of which in constitutional law is well settled. It signifies the established principles of the administration of justice as commonly laid down by the courts—the due course and forms of legal proceedings. The power of taxation is a sovereign and arbitrary power, exercised at the discretion of the State. "Due process of law," so far as taking property under the taxing power is concerned, means one thing in one State, and another in another. If the phrase "equal protection of the laws" means any more, it must mean everything more—in other words, that the test of what is a fair and just system of State taxation is the opinion of the Federal judiciary. We do not say that this may not be the meaning of the Fourteenth Amendment. But if it is, certainly the sooner we know it the better.

A REVIEW OF THE RULES OF PROCEDURE.

LONDON, December 7, 1882.

THE special autumnal sittings of the House of Commons have just come to an end, after having lasted a little more than five weeks. Except for a part of four or five evenings, when other subjects were forced on by the extreme method of moving the adjournment of the House, this period has been exclusively devoted to the consideration of the new Rules of Procedure, brought forward by the Government for the purpose of checking obstruction. This may appear an extravagant length of time to give to a matter which lies in so small a compass, and at any former epoch it would doubtless have been so regarded. Twenty, or even ten, or seven, years ago new methods of procedure would have been debated temperately and without party feeling, and a decision on them, whether wise or not, would have been promptly given. Now, however, the spirit of party runs so high, and the two Oppositions, Tory and Irish, are so much disposed to discover a sinister purpose threatening their own several interests in every proposal of the Government, that people are rather thankful that the subject has been got rid of at all than mortified that it should have consumed so much precious time. Nor is it time only that has been consumed, but strength also. The constitutions of our public men are worked so nearly up to breaking point that a slight additional strain tells severely. The Speaker and the Chairman of Committees have both been unwell. Sir Stafford Northcote and Mr. Childers (Secretary of War) have fairly broken down and been sent off for rest and change of scene. Mr. Gladstone himself felt during the last few days the effect of his constant efforts—for the labor of carrying the procedure resolutions has devolved almost entirely upon him—and has on several evenings either not appeared, or retired earlier than his wont.

Readers on your side of the Atlantic would not be interested by an analysis of the new Code of Procedure which these sittings have produced. Most of the details are unintelligible, even to Englishmen, since they relate to small arbitrary rules governing the conduct of parliamentary business. There are, however, several points of more consequence, on each of which some remarks may be desired by those who understand how important even rules of procedure may be when they regulate an assembly which governs an empire.

The first matter of controversy, and the one which roused most feeling, was the proposal to introduce a means of closing debates and coming to a division. Hitherto no such power has existed. Members might talk on as long as their voices could last, and thus delay a division for weeks, the only restriction being that no member could, except in committee, speak more than once to the same question. The new rule, as carried, differs somewhat from the original proposition of the Government. It provides that the Speaker, when he thinks the House generally desires a division, and when he is himself satisfied that the subject has been adequately discussed, may so inform the House. Thereupon any one may move that the main question be forthwith put; and if a motion to that effect is carried, in a House of a certain size, by a majority of specified numbers, the main question shall be so put. This system leaves the initiative to the Speaker; and the Ministry insisted on his intervention as an important safeguard against any abuse of the power. Others, however, thought that it was an injury to the impartiality of his office to bring him in at all, and maintained that if he did use the power he would incur resentment from those he was the means of silencing; while if he did not use it, things would remain as bad as they have latterly been, and the resolution would have been passed in vain. However, the Government carried their point, as they have been able to carry every point they insist on. Strenuous efforts were made to induce them to accept the vote of a majority of two-thirds, instead of a bare majority; but they stood firm, and were deserted on a division by a comparatively small number of their usual supporters.

When the first resolution, creating the closing power, had been carried, it was supposed that the irritation it had produced among the Conservatives would lead to systematic obstruction, directed by them against the remaining rules. Some attempts of the kind were made by that little group of Tory skirmishers which claims the name of the Fourth Party, and makes up by its activity and the strength of its language for its numerical weakness. However, the attendance of members soon began to slacken, and where there are few to listen, and still fewer to applaud, it is hard to be vivacious, or even pertinacious. Thus, although there was a great deal of minute opposition, it was never really formidable, and at last, almost suddenly, collapsed, everybody having grown too tired of the whole affair to wish to keep up the fight. After the first resolution, the proposal on which the Government laid most stress was the appointment of large standing committees, which were, in the case of measures exciting no party feeling, to be substituted for committees of the whole House, and thereby save its time and enable more business to be despatched. They proposed to try the experiment first with two committees only: the one to undertake legal, and the other commercial bills, and urged that by setting these committees to work at hours when the House was not sitting, several topics of great consequence might be despatched which the House has been unable, for some sessions past, to find time for. There has already, of course, been a practice of referring bills of a technical nature to select committees, consisting usually of from fifteen to twenty-three members, but which might consist of any number; but after such a committee has gone through a bill and reported it to the House, it still has to pass through the Committee of the Whole House, the stage in the progress of a bill which consumes most time. Hence the novelty of the present proposal lay not in the appointment of large committees, but in the dispensing, in the case of bills dealt with by them, with the subsequent Committee of the Whole. There were some obvious objections to this plan, and the Government did not venture to go further than recommend it as an experiment which might fairly be tried, and ought to be tried for one session at least. But the Opposition conceived that by packing these committees the Government might smuggle through measures which they disliked, and were not appeased until Mr. Gladstone, somewhat late in the day, announced that the plan was intended for three bills, all of them long, troublesome, technical, all of them delayed for several years, and anxiously awaited—a reform of the patent law, a new law of bankruptcy, and a consolidation into one statute of the criminal law. These are subjects on which, though there is a great deal of controversy, there are no Liberal or Tory proclivities to warp men's minds; and there will, therefore, be no likelihood of any party quarrels over the composition of the committees. Such committees exist in many other countries, and in some—in France, for instance—the bulk of legislative work is done by them. But there will in England be a greater difficulty in managing them, for many of our most useful members are occupied in their own avocations during the day, and could not give up the hours between 11 A. M. and 4 P. M. to sitting at Westminster, when they might be arguing cases, if they are lawyers, or conducting their business, if merchants. Something, however, must be done to help Parliament to clear off the vast arrears of legislation which have been accumulating since 1876, the year when the bitter party conflicts—first about Eastern affairs, then about Ireland—began to absorb the time of the House of Commons; and Mr. Gladstone has found so much difficulty in inducing the House of Commons to shorten its own discussions, that he is naturally anxious to supplement it by such organs as these committees.

A third point, which was lengthily debated, was the punishment to be meted out to members guilty of obstruction. Hitherto the first offence has been punished by the suspension of one night only. This worked badly, because it often cost the House some time to get the member suspended, and then he, coolly walking out, went home to bed, and came back next day as if nothing had happened. In future the suspended member is to be excluded for a week, with longer periods for the second and third offences. The process is for the Speaker to name the member

to the House, which thereupon votes whether he shall be suspended; and upon this another question arose: whether, when several members have together committed the offence to be punished, they can be jointly named and their suspension voted *en bloc*, or whether the suspension of each one must be voted separately. The former was done in 1881, when the great ejection of Irish members took place, and again last summer, when Dr. Playfair named fifteen as guilty of obstruction. It was felt that this was an undesirable plan, because it may well lead to the punishment of the innocent with the guilty, or else to the escape of the guilty because some innocent man has been among them. Hence it is now to be permitted only in one or two extreme cases, and, as a rule, every member's case will be reported and decided separately.

Lastly must be mentioned the discussion of a curious regulation called the Half-Past Twelve o'Clock Rule, which provides that when any member has given notice of his intention to oppose any motion, or any stage of a bill, that motion or bill cannot be brought on after 12:30 night. This was intended to enable members to go home with an easy mind half an hour after midnight, knowing that no opposed business would then be taken. But its operation has been to delay all business seriously. The bills of private members seldom come on before 12:30, because on Mondays and Thursdays the Government has the whole evening, while on Tuesdays and Fridays motions take precedence of orders of the day, and are usually discussed till late. Hence, any one who wants to stop a private bill has only to put down a notice of opposition to it, and in nine cases out of ten its chance of passing is gone. Even the Government have been considerably worried in this way, one Irish member having made a practice of "blocking" (as it is called) nearly all their bills. But as the Government, when they care about a bill, can secure its coming on before 12:30, the hardship to them is less than to private members, whose right of proposing legislation has by this rule been rendered almost nugatory. They accordingly, or rather a few among them who are anxious to pass their own measures, urged the abolition, or at least the modification, of this rule, insisting that the signature of six or twelve or twenty members should be required to make a notice of opposition valid instead of allowing it to emanate from one member only. Neither the Government, however, nor the House would listen to these complaints, for neither really cares about private members' bills. The Government obtained a slight alteration in the rule, which rendered it less annoying to themselves, but they showed no disposition to aid in any legislation but what they themselves bring forward. The House of Commons at large does not much care about legislation. Most of its members never have brought in a bill, and never mean to do so. They are pretty well satisfied with the world as it is, and doubt if more laws would improve it. They prefer animated party debates, or the process of fencing and sparring between Ministers and those active members of the Opposition who question them, which goes on for an hour and a half every evening, to sitting through debates on such social or economical topics as are generally undertaken by private members. And thus it happens that our legislation is now falling almost entirely into the hands of the Government of the day, which of course takes up only questions as to which a pretty lively interest already exists in the country.

Throughout these autumnal sittings, the attitude of Mr. Parnell and his friends has been quiet and guarded. They brought on one discussion on the state of Ireland, and tried to bring on another, but otherwise they have not interrupted the regular progress of business, nor have they ever obstructed in debate. When it has suited them, they have voted with the Tories; and of course it generally does suit them to oppose the Government. But they have sometimes, as on the question whether debates should be closed by a two-thirds majority or by a bare majority, supported Mr. Gladstone. The dissensions said to have existed among them have produced no open outbreak; Mr. Parnell's authority seems as generally recognized as it has ever been before. There is more disorganization in the Conservative camp, for the more ardent spirits murmur at Sir Stafford Northcote's leadership as far too gentle and decorous, desiring some one who will be always ready to lead them to a charge, however strong the enemy's entrenchments. Yet no one appears qualified to replace Sir Stafford: no one with anything like his ability, his tact, his quickness, his experience; so that one may safely predict that, if his health returns, he will remain for long enough to come at the head of his party. Y.

THE FRENCH FINANCES.

PARIS, December 8, 1882.

THE attention of all the political minds in France is at present completely engrossed by the state of the finances. We have been living, since 1871 and the comparatively easy payment of the heavy ransom of five milliards, in a state of absolute optimism with regard to the financial capacities of the country. Year after year, month after month, the receipts of the treasury were augmented; now the current is suddenly reversed, and we have entered on an era of pessimism. The signal of the change in the state of public opinion was given by the highest authority we have at present in matters of finance, M. Léon Say, the eminent economist, who has held several times since the war the post of Minister of Finance. M. Say belongs to the party which calls itself the Left Centre; he accepted the Republic without much enthusiasm, being one of the followers of M. Thiers. He was Minister of Finance in the late Cabinet of M. de Freycinet, and was almost absolute in his department. Everybody was surprised by an article which he published in November in the *Journal des Économistes*. The economists, who have much regard for M. Léon Say, had been surprised before—namely, when they saw him declare himself, two or three years ago, against the conversion of our five per cents, which were issued at 82 after the war, and which rose steadily to 116. This conversion would make for the state a saving of sixty millions a year. But it is evident that in this case M. Léon Say made a sacrifice to his political friends: the Republicans believe, justly or unjustly, that the conversion of the five per cents would be highly unpopular, and they dare not take the responsibility of such a simple and natural measure.

On the question of the public works, and especially of the railways, the policy of M. Léon Say was also faltering and timid at first. He is an economist, and consequently could not but declare himself against the absurd idea of state management of the railroads. There are in France no perpetual concessions, and the state has reserved for itself, under specified conditions, the right to buy in the lines of the six companies, called the great companies—the East, the North, the West, the Paris-Lyons-Marseilles, the Orléans, and the South. The "rachat," as it is called, has been the great ambition of many politicians, because they belong to the school which would place everything in the hands of the state. This *rachat* could only be approached by degrees. First of all, the state constituted, with some small lines put together, a network of state railroads, administered by officials, and even by Deputies and Senators, chosen by the Minister of Public Works. The incongruity of such a combination was obvious; the administrators, not being appointed by any shareholders, were dependents of the Minister: in the morning they were his administrators, his clerks; in the afternoon, in the Senate or in the Chamber, they became legislators, they became his judges.

The second step was what was called the Freycinet network. This able engineer traced new lines all over France in every direction, and it was decided that they should be constructed by the state. Who should work them after they were constructed? This was left in the dark. The enemies of the great companies prophesied that they would be worked either by the state directly or by new farming companies, who would become the rivals of the old lines. All over France the state engineers began their work. It was expected that four milliards of francs would be spent in the construction of the Freycinet network, but every year the Deputies succeeded in adding new lines to it, in order to please their electors. Every farmer, every important man in a department, asks with the greatest composure for the line which is most convenient for him. The question of the railways is still in suspense; immense works are begun everywhere, and nobody knows what will become of the lines which are in construction in all the departments. The experiment of the "state line" has proved a complete failure. The accounts of this line are difficult to establish, as the accountants do not take into consideration the price paid by the state for the acquisition of the various lines which form this network; they simply compare the working expenses and the receipts, without taking into consideration the interest on the capital or the sinking fund, and, even while they omit these items, they cannot help showing a yearly deficit. The state line does not pay; it has cost already forty millions of francs, and people cannot help asking themselves what would become of the dividends of the existing lines not managed by state officials, if they became the property of the state.

It is, of course, not impossible for the state to manage a railway successfully, as it manages the post or the telegraphs. French functionaries, as a whole, are a very intelligent and a very honest body; but state management is not economical, and the pressure of the yearly dividend is not felt in the working of the state railways. The words of M. Say are very severe: "State management is a disaster." In four years, the net earnings of the lines which form what is called the old *réseau* of the state have diminished by 20 per cent. The proportion of the expenses to the receipts rises yearly: from 78.76 per cent., which it was in 1878, it had risen in 1881 to 84.63 per cent. In three years the operating deficit has been 40,000,000 francs. The taxpayers have borne the expense of this experiment; they are out of pocket a large sum, and are liable to pay every year increasing sums to cover the losses.

It was said at first that the state line would be a model; it is clearly not a model. It was said that it would give tariffs which would serve as an ideal—the French are so fond of equality, that they have been enamored with notions of equal tariffs; they have understood the tariff as something equivalent to taxes. The inventors of formulas have not understood what part tariffs take in the expense of production. Why should the state pay the expenses of transportation any more than any other commercial ex-

penses? The price of most things is formed by the addition of expenses of transportation. A ton of coal has no great value in the mine; it becomes more valuable by being first transported horizontally to the pit, then vertically to the surface, then again by rail to the port, to the city, to the engine. It is a perfect absurdity to ask the state to provide the means of transportation, or railways. The state, in a country conducted on sound economical principles, ought to have nothing whatever to do with the tariffs. Therefore it is idle to represent the state railways as a field of experiment for the application of the best tariffs.

The state, nevertheless, is constructing now, as I have said, an immense network of new lines. These lines are not finished, but already it is known that they will be extremely costly. I hear of some lines in the south where the condemnation of the land alone has cost as much as 300,000 francs per kilometre. The plans of M. de Freycinet involved the expenditure of immense sums. M. Say says that "a year ago the budget for this plan of extraordinary works was steadily on the increase; from four milliards we arrived at six milliards, and the public asked itself if we should not soon attain to seven milliards. During the year spent since these prophecies were made, new accounts have been rendered, and now it is no longer a question of seven milliards, but of eight milliards." And what is there to show for all the expense already incurred? "There are not 100 kilometres finished out of the great scheme voted by the Chambers." Everywhere, to be sure, the works are begun; I have it from a good authority that if the works begun were finished, the expense would be four milliards. In that case, we should have to drop half of the Freycinet plan. What is really begun—the lines which have made condemnations, and works of art—cannot be abandoned; we cannot leave the new lines unfinished.

"Pendent opera interrupta."

With the strictest economy, and even if a Chamber were found ready to abandon for the present all the lines which are not fairly begun, we have to face an extraordinary expense of four milliards—an expense almost as large as the ransom of the late war.

This would not be a very alarming future if the receipts kept on the increase, and if there was a strict economy in all the departments of the state. But economy is not the order of the day; the Chamber has a very laudable desire to improve public instruction, but was it necessary to vote nearly a milliard for the construction of new schools, to build in every village a sort of palace, quite out of proportion with the modest houses of the peasantry? M. Say says boldly that he believes the Government will soon be forced by necessity to interrupt all its works.

"Let us have no illusion; we shall be dragged slowly to the suspension of all our works in our ports, on our railways, in our schools, on our district roads, if we do not take vigorous measures and get out of the confusion in which we have lived for several years. If things go to this extremity, we shall fail in all the promises we have made to the people, and shall compromise—perhaps for a long time—the credit of France. It is really a horrible situation for those who love their country and republican government. It is high time that the Chambers should hear the truth."

This is surely strong language; and M. Say ends by advising the Government to sell the state line on the best possible terms, and to treat with the old companies for the construction and working of the new lines which have been found absolutely necessary. The budget of 1882 has a deficit—not a very high one; but M. Say prophesies that we are entering on a period of deficits. He produces some curious statistics on infractions in respect of indirect contributions (wine, brandy, beer, tobacco, custom-house, etc.). In 1876 there were 13,270 infractions of the privilege of transporting wine (*droit de circulation*); in 1881 there were only 6,138. The licensed wine merchants have free play. In 1876 they were convicted of 17,308 infractions; in 1881, of only 9,134. They have not become less desirous to defraud the Treasury, but the officials are now afraid of them, as they are great electoral agents, and they can complain of an unlucky receiver of indirect taxes to their Senator and their Deputy, and have him changed and sent to the other end of France, under the pretext that the official is not sufficiently devoted to republican institutions. "In reality," says M. Say, "there is no longer any repression, and fraud becomes a common right." It is not possible, with this alarming extension of petty frauds, that the public receipts should keep on the increase; and this increase was a necessary item of our budgets. "There is much to do," says M. Say, "in order to save our budget. The difficulties are political, administrative, and financial. Financially, there is nothing to do but to give to private industry all the railways managed or undertaken by the state; politically, we might stop the evil by adjourning all expensive projects and all propositions to diminish taxes."

THE HAMILTON COLLECTION.

BERLIN, November 25, 1882.

THE purchase of the manuscripts of the Hamilton Collection by the Prussian Government still forms the leading topic among our scholars and artists. The more becomes known of these rich treasures the more gratified are the connoisseurs and will be the scholars of all countries. The whole business of their acquisition was carried on with the utmost secrecy, and only leaked out after the arrival of the manuscripts here. All parties interested acted with a wonderful discretion, and deserve the highest praise. Dr. Lippmann, the director of the engraving department in the Royal Museum, secretly went to London and succeeded in carefully examining the single pieces. Mr. Schoene, the chief councillor of the Minister of Public Instruction, to whose department the decision on artistic and literary purchases belongs, agreed at once with Dr. Lippmann, while Minister Gossler endorsed Mr. Schoene's proposals, and Mr. Scholz, the Finance Minister, without a moment's hesitation, furnished the cash. Last, but not least, the Crown Prince obtained his father's consent to spending so large a sum, which the old gentleman ordinarily does not like to part with for such purposes. Besides being an able and successful general, the Crown Prince is a gentleman of great taste and refinement, who fully appreciated the extraordinary value of the collection, and acted accordingly, for without his good offices the purchase would never have been completed. The price paid amounts in all to $750,000 (3,000,000 marks), of which about one-half will be recovered by the resale of a part of the collection, of no moment for scientific purposes, and by the sale of duplicates of other rare, but not so fine, pieces in our libraries and museums.

It is not from an egoistic national, but from a broader scientific, point of view that Prussia glories in the acquisition of these manuscripts, for they now belong to the scholars of all nations, while, for the last thirty years at least, at a castle on the frontier of England and Scotland, they have been inaccessible to all outsiders. It is, in my opinion, a great boon that so many noble and instructive *chefs d'œuvre* had to be sold by a ducal spendthrift. As the ancestors of the present Hamilton were for centuries patrons of fine arts, it may be deplorable in the interest of the family that the young Duke fritters away by his vices a noble inheritance; but it is much better that the finest specimens of old manuscripts, instead of being locked up or spread over one-half of Europe and America, or of adorning the shelves of a modern parvenu, are kept together in Berlin as an undivided treasure. If Prussia, by buying the Hamilton manuscripts, has outflanked England, as the English papers represent, let her take revenge by acquiring other treasures of art or literature, and let her throw them open to the civilized world.

The collection has for the present been deposited on the third floor of the new museum, where, as far as it was possible in the time allowed me, I have carefully examined it. It will take several months before everything will be put in order for general use. Of the 692 manuscripts which form the stock of the collection, the Occidental ones, with a few exceptions, are written on parchment, but the Oriental ones on palmetto leaves and papyrus, while Turkish and Persian manuscripts have softly-toned paper in red and gold. Above all, I would mention several editions of the Koran with alternating red and gold lines, and a variety of prayer-books of which the binding, the nice little chains and reticules, with the girdles in and on which they were worn, exhibit the most exquisite workmanship. Of the authors of antiquity I found three editions of Horace, among them the splendid Neapolitan copy for Ferdinand I., and four editions of Virgil, all belonging to the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Aristotle is represented by several copies written between the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries, while two fine editions of the Justinian Digests are as old as the twelfth century. The richest of all, however, is the clerical literature of the Middle Ages. Among the Biblical copies, the Irish psalter, dating from the middle of the seventh century, is the oldest: it was written by Saint Salaberga for the nuns of her convent. The big initials form the most valuable ornaments of the volume. They represent dragon-heads, and are founded on the old prototypes of Northern wood-cutting. There is another copy of the Gospels, of the seventh century, written on purple parchment with golden letters, and remarkable for its history, for it was a present from Leo X. to Henry VIII. of England, when the latter declared against Luther and obtained as a token of gratitude from the Pope the title of "Defensor fidei." An old Hebrew Bible with rare and remarkable ornaments leads us back to the year 1292. Of English historical works I will only adduce a history of Cnut the Great, written by an Anglo-Saxon in 1036, which, after the death of the King, by order of his widow, Queen Emma, was written for her use, and for centuries had been preserved in the monastery of St. Augustine at Canterbury.

The Italian volumes, which are illustrated under Byzantine influence, form a direct contrast to the above, and offer a very rich store of knowledge for the development of Christian painting. Among the several editions of the Latin Bible, let me call your attention to that written by John of Ravenna in the fourteenth century. The profuseness of artistic motives—of portraits and ornaments—contained in its 279 large compositions and in the numerous initials and borders is unparalleled in a work of that time. The great missal of 1520, owing to the artistic importance of each of its pages, occupies the first rank among the Florentine manuscripts. It is profusely illustrated with ornaments and figures of the Italian Renaissance, and was written by Ludovico Vincentino for the Cardinal Julius Medici, afterward Pope Clement VII. What increases the value of this matchless collection is the vividness of the colors, which have never been renewed. These miniatures are the more

interesting as they were executed at the time when the art was already doomed by the invention of the printing-press. It is as if this noble art, before yielding to a new epoch, strove to show what perfection it could attain. The lower German and Burgundy school and the Augsburg calligraphers, toward the end of the fifteenth century, by works such as the Grimani Breviarium, now in the St. Mark's Library at Venice, or Dietrich Wagner's prayer-books, written for the Emperor Maximilian, and still in the city library of Augsburg, amply corroborate this fact. I can only point out the two gems of the collection. The first is the Beauvais Law-book. It contains the habits, customs, and statutes of the French territory of Beauvais, written in 1283 by the most celebrated French mediæval lawyer, Philip Beaumanoir. It was unknown to Count Beugnot, the last editor of this work, and was, toward the end of the eighteenth century, bought from a French gentleman, M. Bucquet de Brucheux, who had inherited it from the heirs of old Beaumanoir. Being one of the most prominent French illustrated manuscripts of the Middle Ages, it has seventy-one elegantly-finished miniature paintings, which were evidently drawn in the fourteenth century, and, adorning the head of each chapter, are intended to interpret juridical acts and symbolize them. A learned jurist is now comparing this copy with the printed editions of the work, in order to ascertain whether it has any value for comparisons and amendments of the text.

Far above all, however, stands one manuscript, the acquisition of which is sufficient to make an epoch in the history of any museum. It is Dante's 'Divina Comedia,' with not less than eighty-eight drawings by Sandro Botticelli, one of the most remarkable masters of the early Italian Renaissance. The present copy was made in or about the year 1480, and was evidently written for illustration by this artist; sixty-eight folio pages are only written on one side, the other side having been kept open for Botticelli. The parts containing the "Purgatorio" and the "Paradiso" are completed, but some cantos of the "Inferno" are still unfinished. There are two other manuscripts of Dante in the collection, made between 1340 and 1350, which are much more important for the criticism of the poem; but the drawings of Botticelli are a work complete and perfect in itself, unsurpassed by that of any great master of his time. All the drawings are sketched with the pen; some of them are not finished, but fully executed in their outlines, and render all that the artist aimed at with consummate beauty and efficacy. One single leaf is executed in colors—whether by the master himself or by one of his successors, I cannot decide. The book is quite fresh; all the sixty-eight drawings are in the best state of preservation. It alone is worth the money paid for the whole collection. A single leaf from Botticelli's hand would have been a treasure, but the complete work can hardly be valued. Its acquisition is a national conquest much better for ourselves and humanity than a victory in the field.

We Germans have the ambition to make Berlin one of the leading centres of liberal arts, science, and scholarship. For the attainment of this end very large sums are necessary, but they will be spent most cheerfully. Having succeeded in securing the Pergamon marbles, having paid the necessary funds for the excavations in Olympia, made under the direction of our best scholars and antiquarians, and having purchased the Hamilton manuscripts, we all know that this is only the beginning. May the future be as propitious in this respect as the past has been!

† † †

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You will observe that Redfield's statistics are "assailed" in the November number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, in an article entitled "Individualismus in den Vereinigten Staaten." The author has evidently given the subject considerable thought, and these few pages might be read with profit by a large class of intelligent people whose opinions have been formed from the sensational reports of partisan journals. Is not moderation in judgment resulting from freedom from prejudice one of the essentials of the highest civilization? W.

Texarkana, Texas, December 16, 1882.

[We have read the article in the *Rundschau*. The writer of it wholly errs in ascribing anti-Southern feelings to the late Mr. Redfield, and the only point of any consequence he makes against his book does not touch the essential facts which Mr. Redfield gathered with so much labor and presented with so much force. We are persuaded that the circulation of his book at the South as a tract would be productive of enormous good.—Ed. Nation.]

COL. BYRD, OF VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue, of December 14, containing the article on "The Dismal Swamp," occurs the following sentence: "It was a certain Col. Byrd, it seems, to whom was assigned the task of running a survey," etc.

It would appear from this that the writer of the article was not aware of the fact that Col. Byrd was one of the most prominent and distinguished among the colonial gentry of Virginia. The book known as 'Byrd's Survey' is one of the wittiest and raciest of the colonial writings. Prof. Tyler, in his 'History of American Literature,' says:

"Perhaps the most accomplished and the wittiest Virginian of the colonial time was William Byrd, of Westover, a man of princely fortune and princely ways. Educated in England, he was called to the bar in the Middle Temple, studied in the Low Countries, visited the Court of France, and was Fellow of the Royal Society. In England he had the acquaintance of many of the first persons of the age for knowledge, wit, virtue, and high station. Returning to his native land, he entered upon a long career of public and private usefulness. He was receiver-general of the King's revenues, for thirty-seven years member of the Council, and at last its President. His course in private life was brilliant and attractive. On his estate at Westover he lived in great magnificence. He was a student of science, a man of wit, of letters, of elegant tastes, and had the best library in that part of America."

William Byrd kept a journal of his 'Survey,' which, after lying in manuscript for a century, was first published in 1841, under the title, 'The History of the Dividing Line.' Of this little book Tyler says: "It is almost unique in our colonial age; one of the most delightful of the literary legacies which that age has handed down to ours."

The late John R. Thompson thus writes:

"I carried no letter of introduction to Macaulay. Some months before, I had sent him a copy of the Westover MSS. of Col. Wm. Byrd. On receiving my card he bade the servant show me to his sitting-room. I was greeted with a kindly shake of his hand, and with thanks for the volume. He said he had derived great delight from the narrative and the pictures it presented of society in Virginia one hundred and twenty years ago. He commended the style as conformed to the best English standards."

A complete edition of Byrd's writings was published in 1866, edited by T. H. Wynne.

E. H. H.

Augusta, Ky., Dec. 18, 1882.

THE NATURAL METHOD OF TEACHING LATIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me a brief space in your columns for a statement of what we are attempting to do towards instituting a reform in the method of teaching Latin?

I took charge of this institution in September, 1881. The first year I devoted attention to remodelling the work in the training school, and to improving the methods of teaching geography and the English language.

My own unsatisfactory experience in college and a good many years of observation had led me to feel that the ordinary way of teaching Latin and Greek is very unsatisfactory. It is drudging for the teacher, a burden to the student, and yields no results commensurate with the expenditure of time and strength given to it. These facts have been a terrible weapon in the hands of those who have been attempting to supplant the classics by the sciences or by modern languages. By the terms of the contract establishing this normal school, an academic department is to be maintained and boys and girls are to be fitted for college. I am constantly in receipt of applications for teachers who are competent to take charge of union or graded schools, and to teach Latin and Greek. These considerations led me, when a vacancy occurred in the chair of ancient languages, to seek for a teacher fitted to introduce into teaching the ancient languages something of the same spirit of life, enthusiasm, progress that characterizes our teachers in other departments (no word of English is spoken in our class-rooms where French and German are taught).

Prof. E. S. Shumway, A.M., Amherst, who had been teaching Latin with rare success, was invited to take up the work. He entered upon his duties here in September with three classes composed of those who had begun their work under his predecessor, and two classes of about thirty each, of beginners. The first class is composed of boys and girls of from ten to fourteen years of age. In this class no book is used. Constant appeal is made to the eye. Objects, pictures, maps, etc., are exhibited and talked about (in Latin) until the children learn to associate the Latin name with the object as readily as they do English words. Questions are asked and responses given in Latin. Usually little or no English is used by teacher or pupils. The ear as well as the eye is thus trained, and a nicety in pronunciation is secured. The colloquial feature is made so prominent that all must be on the alert, and thus attention is secured. It is quite noticeable with what interest the children take part in the recitation. They are taught fables, which they thoroughly memorize and recite until they become as familiar as a, b, c. These are made the basis of questions, which at first are so formed as to admit of answers in the exact words of the text. After this the questions require answers involving the use of words in new relations, and thus the children become acquainted with inflection and other grammatical points. This way of teaching grammar by leading pupils to observe the necessary changes words undergo in actual use is one of the distinctive features of the method.

The other class of beginners is composed of older pupils, ranging from sixteen to twenty-five years of age. They begin by committing to

memory portions of the first book of Cæsar. This they recite and use as the little ones do the fables and easy Roman history. The meaning of new words is explained to them in Latin by their derivation, or by synonyms or opposites, or by explanations, so that the student is compelled to think in Latin. The exercise in forming answers, at first very simple, soon grows into exercises in prose composition, with this important point in its favor, that the student is talking of that which he knows something about and in which he is very deeply interested, and his language is modelled after the Latin of Cæsar. A series of questions is given to which written answers are required, and simple English sentences based on the Latin text are given which are to be turned into Latin. As soon as the student has progressed far enough to feel the need of it and to be able to do it, he is set to work scheduling the nouns and verbs with which use has made him familiar. Points of syntax and the law of arrangement come into view naturally. As soon as he is prepared for it the student is set to reading at sight easy portions of Cæsar, the difficult places being omitted from the first reading.

These are the essential features of the method. It will be seen that the plan is not wholly novel. Many of its points have been insisted upon by the great educational reformers of the past. It is in some respects the same plan which is employed in teaching modern languages, and in teaching Latin in the various so-called summer schools. It has, however, features of its own, and, so far as I know, this method is not employed anywhere else in this country. It is attracting a great deal of attention. Commendatory letters have been received from many of our most eminent educators. "The Latin Chain"—composed of teachers of Latin in colleges, academies, and normal schools in more than half the States of the Union—comprises many wide-awake, progressive men and women who only want a leader in a great reform. *Latine*, a monthly journal in Latin, is furnished to members of the Chain, and aims to give practical help and suggestions to those who are interested in this method.

This is not a money-making scheme, but is an honest endeavor to make this school helpful in the great work of improving our methods of teaching. Very respectfully,

T. J. Morgan.

Potsdam, N. Y., December 1, 1882.

Notes.

Funk & Wagnalls have arranged with Cassell & Co. to issue from their imported plates a very cheap edition of Canon Farrar's new work, 'The Early Days of Christianity.' There will be no abridgment of the original.

Chatto & Windus, London, have in preparation 'The New Southwest: Travelling Sketches from Kansas, New Mexico, Arizona, and Northern Mexico,' by Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg. It will contain one hundred illustrations and three maps.

We learn from the Boston *Christian Register* that the Rev. James Freeman Clarke intends giving a number of week-day evening talks on "The Anti-Slavery Conflict in the United States." The course will not be free, but the proceeds will be used to meet the expenses of the Sunday-school of the Church of the Disciples. In time these lectures, we suppose, will find their way into print as a book.

The "interview" in which Mr. Herbert Spencer summed up his impressions of this country, and the proceedings at the farewell banquet in his honor, have been printed in pamphlet form by D. Appleton & Co., under the title 'Herbert Spencer on the Americans.'

Harper & Bros. have brought out Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone' in their two-column Franklin Square Library series.

Mr. Robert Grant's metrical "tragedy," 'The Lambs,' which, we believe, first appeared in the *Century*, has been made into a book with paper covers, illustrated, and handsomely printed (Osgood). The lambs themselves can hardly afford to buy it, though it is written for their good. The bulls and bears of our exchanges will therefore have their own way, as usual.

One of the most acceptable books of the season is 'Epics and Romances of the Middle Ages' (Lippincott), "adapted from the work of Dr. W. Wägner by W. W. Macdowell, and edited by W. S. W. Anson." It is a thick octavo of nearly five hundred pages, copiously illustrated, and consists of three parts. The first is "the Amelung and kindred legends," including Dietrich, of Bern. Part II. is the Nibelung group, including Beowulf; Part III., the Carolingian legends—those of King Arthur and Tannhäuser. It would have been well, we think, considering that this is at any rate only a selection, to omit the Arthurian legends, which have been made so familiar of late. The Nibelung song is not so well known but that we are grateful for this part of the work, but it is a real acquisition to have such stories as those of Dietrich and Roland in so convenient and satisfactory a form.

Two new volumes have been added to the "Young Folks' History" series (Estes & Lauriat): 'Mexico,' by Frederick A. Ober, and an abridgment of Mrs. Strickland's 'Queens of England,' by Rosalie Kaufmann. Both are decided acquisitions. We do not know of any other accessible history of Mexico from the earliest times to the present, and Mr. Ober has done his work with great industry and thoroughness. The 'Queens of England,' too, though very agreeable reading, is too voluminous in its entirety, and this abridgment appears to have been made with excellent judgment. Both volumes are copiously illustrated, but with illustrations of very varying merit. The history of Mexico contains numerous good representations of Mexican monuments and antiquities.

Mr. Rossiter Johnson's 'History of the French War ending in the Conquest of Canada' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is hardly to be reckoned a juvenile so much as a brief popular history of the series of events which led to the acquisition of Canada. It covers the whole history of that colony and of the French in America down to the treaty of peace in 1763. It is illustrated with half-a-dozen double-page woodcuts of high merit. This will be found a very serviceable book for those who wish for a short connected account of the relations between the French and the English colonies.

Marcus Ward & Co., 734 Broadway, send us two of their ornamented calendars for 1883—'Day unto Day,' the daily date block containing selections from the Scriptures; and the 'Shakspere Calendar,' correspondingly equipped. Other reminders of the season and of the new year come to us from Raphael Tuck & Sons, London, through their agents, the Forbes Company, Boston. These are illuminated Christmas and New Year's cards, called of the 'Royal Academy,' with reference to the designers of them. The style of a few is sufficiently individual to be noticeable as uncommon, but neither the fancy nor the art is of a very high order.

Vol. viii. of the Proceedings of the Naval Institute at Annapolis contains at least two interesting articles, one, by Lieut. J. B. Murdock, U. S. N., on "The Naval Use of the Dynamo Machine and Electric Light"; the other, by Lieut. W. H. Jaques, U. S. N., on "The Fryer Buoyant Propeller," an amphibious vessel which crawls upon the land or rolls through the sea, the body being entirely lifted above the waves. Diagrams accompany both these articles.

With the December number the *Bibliographer* (London: Elliot Stock; New York: J. W. Bouton) begins its second year and third volume. Mr. Wheatley and his assistants have made a very interesting publication, for which a long life is doubtless in store. It is very neatly printed, but just falls short of being a thing of beauty typographically. The current number corrects Franklin's autobiography by showing that while at the case in London, in 1724–25, he worked not upon the second but the third edition of Wollaston's 'Religion of Nature,' copies of which are common enough.

Our occasional London correspondent, Mr. Albert V. Dicey, has just been appointed Vinerian Professor of English Law, at Oxford.

Apparently it pays to sell libraries at auction rather than at private sale. We mentioned not long since the offer of the Sunderland collection (which has already brought over £46,000) to an American library for £25,000. We have since heard that Quaritch offered £18,000 for it before the sale. He must have already paid almost as much for what he has taken. The O'Callaghan library, sold in this city a fortnight since, was refused by Columbia College at $7,500, and brought over $12,000. The sale of the second portion of the Beckford Library, by the way, was concluded in London on Saturday last.

From J. Rothschild, Paris, we have received Charles Yriarte's 'Un Condottiere au XVe Siècle—Rimini,' which was reviewed at length in our Paris letter last February. It is a beautiful book, rich in some two hundred illustrations, quite equalling in interest those of the same author's 'Venice.' The name of Rimini, says M. Yriarte, "recalls to the majority only a woman's frailty, a husband's fury, and a few verses of an immortal song." He briefly relates the story of Francesca da Rimini in his second chapter, reserving fuller treatment for a separate work, 'Françoise de Rimini dans la légende et dans l'histoire,' which has also been published by M. Rothschild, and of which we shall give some account hereafter.

Mr. S. L. Fleishman, who, in his 'Prose Miscellanies from Heinrich Heine,' had proved his ability to translate into English one of the most untranslatable of German writers, has now published a version of 'The Romantic School' (Henry Holt & Co.). The volume contains, in addition, 'The Suabian Mirror' and the 'Introduction to Don Quixote'—the former a fitting complement to the 'Romantic School,' though not written for the delectation of the French; the latter unquestionably the greatest prefatory luxury which any *édition de luxe* ever offered. Heine will never appear natural in an English garb. He was the most sentimental of Germans in his moods, and the most brilliant of Frenchmen in *esprit*, and thoroughly anti-British in his prejudices. Still, much of his wit and grace is retained in this translation, which is generally smooth and idiomatic. Careful proof-reading, however, would have detected some inelegances and Germanisms, not to speak of the numerous typographical errors, such as "Wittemburg" (p. 19), "Hamelin" (p. 37), "Henirich" (p. 42), "Barnhagen" (p. 66), "Phédra" (p. 90), "at Würtemburg" (p. 130), etc., etc.

According to *Das Magazin*, the "French officer" whose 'Dies Iræ' we briefly mentioned last week, is a young German author, Karl Bleibtreu—a singular name to be associated with such a personification.

B. Westermann & Co. have received Parts 57-60 of the chromo edition of Brehm's 'Thierle-

ben,' which conclude with the Mammals the first volume of this standard natural history. Besides the regular colored plates and the interspersed woodcuts, there is a figured title-page and a full-page portrait of Brehm himself, his gun at his side and note-book in hand. An index completes this portion of the work.

The same firm also send us Parts 7–11 of H. Düntzer's illustrated edition of Goethe's Works (Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt), breaking off amid the "West-östlicher Divan." And while this popular publication is so near its beginning, there comes to hand the long-anticipated second edition of Hempel's pioneer critical text of Goethe's works (Berlin: Gustav Hempel; New York: Westermann). No longer of pocket size, it appears as a broad duodecimo, with clear print, wide margins, and numbered lines, being uniform in these respects with the Hempel 'Faust' of 1879. The revision has been intrusted to that eminent Goethe scholar, Dr. G. von Loeper. In his introduction he explains the arrangement he has adopted for the poems, and otherwise makes known his aim to prepare an edition not scientific, but for the general use of cultivated readers. The notes (*Anmerkungen*) are placed at the end, and contain bibliographical information in regard to the first appearance of the poems, the circumstances that gave rise to them, their various readings, the music composed for them, etc., with a fulness and learning which give a biographic-psychologic character to this edition. Combined with the foregoing is a commentary for the obscurer or more interesting passages. The notes fill the better half of the first part of vol. i. The purchaser of this Loeper-Hempel edition of Goethe will have the most scholarly and accurate yet produced.

The pretended daughter of Alfred de Musset, who bore the anagrammatic name of Norma Tessum-Onda (Dona Musset), and died near Rochelle not long ago, is said now to have been one Joséphine Ménard, who had still another alias—Norma d'Estève de Visconti. The *Bulletin* of the Société des Archives Historiques de la Saintonge et de l'Aunis makes this correction, and adds that the young person in question "était en relations" with Henri Rochefort.

'Le Scandale d'Hier' is the title given to a pretty little pamphlet (Paris: Brunot; New York: F. W. Christern), reproducing the documents in the recent squabble between the *Figaro* and the actors of Paris. The whole affair was highly characteristic, and the pamphlet deserves a place in the collection of every student of Parisian psychology. The *Figaro* article was both brutal in expression and commonplace in theme, and it did not deserve the very keen and clever answer made by M. Coquelin in a letter to the *Temps*, reprinted in this volume. A peculiarity of the make-up of the pamphlet merits notice: it is a "double-ender"—that is to say, the *Figaro* article, with its title-page, is at one end, and the Coquelin letter, with its title-page, but upside down, is at the other.

'Les Célébrités Contemporaines' is M. Quantin's latest venture. It is to be a series of brief biographies of French notabilities published at short intervals, each sketch being accompanied by an etched portrait and a facsimile of the celebrity's signature. The fact that nine of the first twenty notabilities are dramatists shows the importance of the theatre to-day in France. These dramatists are to be touched off by M. Jules Claretie, except M. Zola, who is sketched by his disciple M. Guy de Maupassant, and M. Claretie himself, who falls to the hand of Mme. de Cherville.

—The death of Colonel Chester must have seemed to many American genealogical investigators fatal to their hopes of tracing English connections. But before that untiring searcher passed away, a little volume, published at Salem, Mass., called 'Gleanings from English Records about New England Families,' showed that capable successors could be found. It now appears that they can also be had. At least, of the two compilers of the 'Gleanings,' Messrs. James A. Emmerton and Henry Fitzgilbert Waters, Mr. Waters is ready to continue as a steady avocation what was in 1879 but a holiday pastime, yet a most fruitful one (see the *Nation* for September 30, 1880). The Directors of the New England Historic-Genealogical Society announce that they are ready to begin and maintain, through Mr. Waters, "a thorough and systematic search of the English records for everything which relates to the family history of the first settlers of this country." They add that "a thorough knowledge of the genealogies of New England families, and great experience in making such investigations on both sides of the ocean, are prerequisites," and justly assert that Mr. Waters is preëminently qualified for the work in both these respects. The results of his investigations will be published in the Society's *Register*, or separately; and as they will be impartial and general in their bearing, the number of families interested in this enterprise and likely to profit by it is very great. The Society, therefore, asks for public contributions to a fund in support of it. They may be sent to the librarian, Mr. John Ward Dean, 18 Somerset Street, Boston. We hope the response may be speedy and liberal; no more interesting historical mission has ever been instituted in this country. Mr. Waters will occupy the position of counsel whose services are retained by the Society, while he is at liberty to give some portion of his time to private clients—in this latter particular exactly replacing Colonel Chester.

—The valuable Shakspere library collected by Col. E. H. Thomson, of Flint, Michigan, has recently been purchased for the State University, at Ann Arbor. Mr. Thomson has been engaged in collecting this library for more than thirty years; and, during two periods of residence in London, he was able to take advantage of unusually favorable opportunities for adding to its extent and its value. The library contains nearly five hundred volumes of texts of Shakspere, and about two hundred volumes of Shaksperiana, besides fifty other volumes relating to the English drama in general. The volumes are all bound, many of them in half calf or half morocco, and some in full calf. The earlier folio editions and the quartos are lacking; but, beginning with the fourth folio (1685), all the more important editions down to the present time are included. The texts comprise, among others, the following: Theobald's (1733), seven volumes; Hanmer's quarto (1744), six volumes; Johnson's first and second editions (1765-68), eight volumes each; Capell's (1767), ten volumes; Bell's (1774), nine volumes, and (1788) twenty volumes; Rann's (1786), six volumes; Johnson's and Steevens's (1793), fifteen volumes; Malone's (1794), sixteen volumes; Boydell-Steevens's (1802-3), atlas folio, nine volumes; Manley Wood's (1806), fourteen volumes; Heath's quarto (1807), six volumes; Reed's variorum (1813), twenty-one volumes; Pickering's diamond edition (1825), nine volumes; Knight's pictorial (early copy), eight volumes; Verplanck's (1847), three volumes; Dyce's first and second editions (1857-66), fifteen volumes; Chambers's (1861), ten volumes; White's (1863), twelve volumes; Cowden Clarke's (1864), four volumes; Le Tourneur (Paris, 1776-81), twenty volumes. Of the Shaksperiana the following are more especially worthy of mention: Kemble's 'Macbeth Reconsidered,' with Kemble's autograph; Ireland's Forgeries, original atlas folio; Howard's 'Spirit of Shakespeare's Plays' (1833), five volumes; an elegant set, full and complete, of the Shakespeare Society Publications (1841-53); the Boydell Plates, elephant folio (Philadelphia, 1852). The exact amount paid Mr. Thomson for the library has not been made public; but it is known that Mr. James McMillan, of Detroit, gave to the University the sum of $5,000 with which to make the purchase, and that a part of this sum still remains to be used in supplying, as far as possible, what is still needed to make the library complete in all that pertains to Shakspere and Shakspere's works. This munificent gift from Mr. McMillan is one sign, it is to be hoped, of an increasing disposition among men of wealth to regard educational institutions that are supported largely at public expense as proper recipients of private bounty. And it may be added here, that during the past year the library of the University of Michigan received large gifts of works on international law, classical literature, and philology, from Mr. Philo Parsons, of Detroit, and of mathematical works from Mr. E. C. Hegeler, of La Salle, Ill. Mr. George C. Mahon, of Ann Arbor, has also presented a full set of the proceedings and transactions of the Royal Irish Academy.

—We have received the following communication:

"I trust the late painful information the *Nation* has been giving us on Southern homicides may have a good effect. Facts seem to be on the *Nation's* side, but I think the inference pushed too far when it is made to explain the absence of emigration to the South and of capital invested there. Our own men, brought up on the shotgun system, are going to greener pastures in the West; and until the virgin soil of that region is reduced to the unproductive condition of our own, the tide of emigration must continue to flow there."

—A Southern clergyman, writing us upon another subject, subjoins the following postscript:

"Let me add: What you say about shooting at the South is all *true*. Born and bred in the South, and intensely a Southerner, having lived among *gentlemen* and plain people, and having had charges in different States at the South, I *know* that what you say is *true*. Our conduct in this matter is a disgrace to our civilization."

—The *Atlantic* for January opens with the first part of a dramatic sketch by Longfellow, called "Michael Angelo," in which Vittoria Colonna appears as one of the *dramatis personæ*. The dramatic faculty was never very vivid in Mr. Longfellow, and his characters can hardly be said to live again in his lines. They think, act, and speak with the voice of the author of the "Psalm of Life," and it is almost possible here and there to doubt whether the scene is laid in Italy or in Cambridge, Mass. No poet can resist writing dramas, no matter how little dramatic his genius, and, where so many brilliant minds have failed, it would be hypercritical to say that the attempt should not have been made. Hawthorne reappears, posthumously also, with another instalment of the "Ancestral Footstep," while Dr. Holmes, whose prose contributions have been recently as rare as if he were unwilling to let the public enjoy his survivorship of the old *Atlantic* generation, has "an after-breakfast talk" in which he gives some good advice to that large and importunate class which pesters authors for interviews and autographs. Mr. Whittier has a poem too, while, of the younger race of contributors, Mr. Harrison continues his "Studies in the South," and "H. H." writes in her chatty, feminine way (her way, that is, when she writes prose) of "Chance Days in Oregon." Mr. Harrison gives an entertaining account of an interview with an "outrage" manufacturer in Mis-

sissippi. He was led to make the visit through hearing from Northern men, with regard to a horrible tale of wrong sent to the Northern press during the Hayes campaign, that there was no foundation for it in fact. The author of the despatch, on being asked whether it was true, laughed, and declared that it was "true as to the spirit of the South generally at that time."

"'But why did you say that such and such things happened at a particular place, if they did not?' 'Well, now, you know, it would not be worth while to say, at such a time, that there was lots o' devilish feeling in the South. But it rather wakes people up to tell them that something's been done at a place that they 've heard of.' 'Yet it was not true.' But he thought the use of a fable or parable was justifiable, under the circumstances, because it was the only way to give point or effectiveness to any account of the condition of the South at that time. 'All writers does pretty much the same thing,' he urged; 'they have to.'"

He showed no embarrassment in talking of the affair, and seemed greatly pleased with the recollections it afforded him.

—A look into "Hawthorne's Workshop" in the *Century* contains a number of preliminary notes and studies for "Dr. Grimshawe's Secret," placed in the hands of the editor of the magazine by Mr. Julian Hawthorne. As a literary curiosity these notes, together with those published in the *Atlantic*, occupy a very high rank. They constitute "a full and clear recipe for making a Hawthorne romance"—though one, we may add, which no plagiarist will ever be able to put to use. If we did not know the notes to be authentic, we should suspect them of being a gigantic Hawthornian hoax or burlesque. This is the way, for instance, that he works up one of the characters:

"Something monstrous he must be, yet within nature and romantic probability—hard conditions! A murderer—'twon't do at all. A Mahometan—pish! If I could only hit right here, he would be the centre of interest. . . . What natural horror is there? A monkey? A Frankenstein? A man of straw? A man without a heart, made by machinery?—one who has to wind himself in order to go through the day? Wicked as he must be, there shall still be relations between him and the pauper saint. What? Shall there be an influence in the house which is said to make everybody wicked who inherits it? Nonsense! Remorse it must not be. A resurrection-man? What? what? what? A worshipper of the sun? A cannibal? a ghoul? a vampire? a man who lives by sucking the blood of the young and beautiful? He has something to do with the old Doctor's spider-theory; the great spider has got him into his web. The Doctor, before he left England, had contrived a plot of which this man is the victim. How? He has been poisoned by a Bologna sausage, and is being gnawed away by an atom at a time. He shall need a young life every five years to renew his own, and he shall have fixed upon Elsie for his next victim. Now for it! How? At any rate, he must have dreadful designs on Elsie—dreadful! dreadful! dreadful! May it not be that the revenge of the Doctor has fallen on him? No, no! Let the real difference between him and other people be very small, but pile up upon it! Ye heavens! A man with a mortal disease?—a leprosy?—a eunuch?—a cork leg?—a golden touch?—a dead hand?—a false nose?—a glass eye? The rumors of his devilish attributes may be very great; but the circumstance itself may be comparatively trifling. Some damn'd thing is the matter."

This brings us certainly much nearer the original processes of Hawthorne's mind than we ever before have got. It would be more valuable, from an artistic point of view, if "Dr. Grimshawe's Secret" had ever been artistically completed. As it is, we see the block in the rough, but the final shape which the artist would have given it we do not know. People who are fond of tracing literary relationships may possibly find in these raw notes something which makes the connection between Hawthorne's mind and that of his son plainer than it has hitherto been. The principal illustrated articles are "Hydraulic Mining in California," by Taliesin Evans, and "The Planting of New England," by Edward Eggleston. Mr. Alfred R. Wallace, a most competent critic, writes on "The Debt of Science to Darwin," the frontispiece of the magazine being an excellent portrait from a photograph by his son, Lieutenant Leonard Darwin.

—*Harper's* for January opens with "Artist Strolls in Holland," by George H. Boughton, the illustrations, by Messrs. Boughton and Abbey, being unusually good. The return of Christmas gives Mr. J. T. Trowbridge an opportunity to teach, in characteristic verse, the duty of the rich toward the poor. Mr. Higginson has an historical article on "Old English Seamen," in which he gives some account of the exploits of Drake and Hawkins. Mr. Higginson's style is simple and natural, but his task being to describe the adventures and exploits of men who were half buccaneers, he is not at his best, for he has small sympathy with the savage instincts of the race which still lead it to make heroes of men of blood and iron, rather than of those who advance the arts of peace. Mr. Higginson is evidently puzzled, as Mr. Ruskin is, to account for the admiration that the mere destruction of life and property excites in the midst of a society which is devoted to the arts of peace, and whose first aim seems ordinarily to be the relief rather than the infliction of pain. Charles Reade contributes a literary curiosity, in the shape of a Russian love story. How far "Tit for Tat" is genuinely Russian we will not undertake to say; its authorship could hardly be mistaken, even if it were published in patristic Greek. It is not a very interesting or probable tale. Mr. Curtis discusses Mr. Herbert Spencer's remarks on American civilization, in his usual pleasant vein, in the "Easy Chair," and again introduces "Americus" as objecting to being "lectured" by English observers, however wise and good. Suppose, he says, testily, "that some American guest in England should say to his hosts that he wanted to give them some good advice, and point out to them a few of their defects, and then proceed to pat them on the head with patronizing praise, don't you think there would be a storm?" But Mr. Curtis reminds Americus that we are always asking them "how they like us?" and cannot therefore very well object to their telling us. Much of the criticism, however, is due to the fact that, until within the last ten years, each country has been a stranger to the other, and the process of cementing an international acquaintance and friendship has been full of surprises on both sides. Now that these have worn off, and we have become really familiar with each other's virtues, vices, faults, and foibles, there is getting to be less and less to say about each other, and, as a matter of fact, most of Mr. Spencer's criticism is far from new. The time will probably soon come when the English passion for analyzing the defects of American civilization, as differing from their own, will die out, because everybody will know all that is to be said on the subject.

—An article on church music in *Lippincott's*, by Mr. William F. Biddle, opens with the cautious suggestion that it may be "taken for granted that church music is meant to aid in awakening and expressing devotional feeling in the congregation," and from this Mr. Biddle safely infers that "the presence or absence in music of anything which, when performed, draws attention to the mere performance, is one of the factors governing the absence or presence of religious character in music." But the difficulty of this rule lies in the application of it, and Mr. Biddle would, if we understand him rightly, put it to a somewhat original use in "expurgating" the works of acknowledged masters—Handel, for instance—so as to get out of them what he calls their "absurdities," and leave in them all their really devotional character. No one objects, he says, to expurgated editions of Boccaccio, Chaucer, and Rabelais, so long as their beauties are preserved—an argument which, besides being irrelevant, seems to show that Mr. Biddle is not familiar with the position of modern criticism on the subject of expurgation. The great difficulty in rewriting Handel would be that it would be impossible to reach a common agreement as to the principles on which he ought to be rewritten, or as to what are the "absurdities" that ought to be eliminated, and this Mr. Biddle seems to concede. His rule, however, might safely be observed in the composition of church music, and, in fact, in a modified form, would probably apply to all kinds of art used in aid of religion.

—The *North American* for January contains an article by Mr. Gilbert M. Tucker, in defence of "American English" against the aspersions of Mr. Fitzedward Hall. Mr. Hall, it seems, said not long since in the *Nineteenth Century*—in explanation of what he considered to be the degeneracy of the language as it appeared in the letters of Mr. William Cullen Bryant—that he, Mr. Bryant, lived "among a people among whom our language is daily becoming more and more depraved." This statement in Mr. Tucker's ears is much as if one should say of Shakspere that he wrote bad plays because he lived among a people with whom the drama was going to the dogs; but he philosophically declares that it is not surprising when we reflect that Mr. Hall is "one of those extraordinary Americans of the Henry James, jr., stripe, who seem to regard it rather as matter of regret than otherwise that they were not born in Europe." Mr. Tucker maintains that, on the whole, the language is preserved in greater purity in this country than in England; and if he does not make this out to a certainty, he makes it very clear, at least, that the English themselves are busily engaged in corrupting and depraving the poor old common tongue on their own side. One cause which, we fancy, always makes for the preservation of good English in this country is the extraordinary sensitiveness of the average American as to solecisms in grammar, spelling, or pronunciation. In no country in the world, probably, are there so many dictionaries to the square mile, and such constant consultation of them, and such faith in them when appealed to against tradition or common local use. In this, as in other respects, an American is apt to be more conscious of what he is doing than an Englishman, who talks merely the language to which he has been accustomed from infancy without thinking of it as either right or wrong. The English, for instance, who drop and multiply their h's, or transpose their v's and w's, do it almost by nature. Here the habit is unknown; early education prevents it from growing up. Any American boy in a public school would recognize either trick as a mark of vulgarity or ignorance, much as an English gentleman or lady would. But in this question, as in so many other points at issue between the two countries, the matter is confused by the different structure of society. There is undoubtedly a larger highly educated class in England than in the United States. There are greater numbers of people whom Matthew Arnold would not call Philistines. On the other hand, there is in this country a much larger class of persons of average education. The type of the

"general reader," of whom, according to Mr. Freeman, every American editor stands in such awe, is much more common. Add to this that by the use of slang the highly educated class in England does more to deprave the language in a year than the "general reader" in this country does in ten, and it is evident that the question as to which of the two branches of the race is doing most harm to the common tongue is very complicated and difficult to determine.

—Mr. Henry James, who died in Boston on December 18, had led so retired a life for the last twenty years, and the religious philosophy of which he was the exponent was so recondite, that probably but few of the younger generation know what a striking personality he was, and what wonderful command of English he possessed. Twenty-five years ago, when he lived in New York, and took, if not an active, a sufficiently conspicuous part in the discussions then current on the various social topics of the day, the vigor and originality of his writing made one of the great treats furnished by the newspapers and periodicals. No one who has never read his side of a controversy on a subject which roused him can have an adequate idea of the picturesque vigor of his style. It was full, too, of the most delightful surprises in the way of combination and arrangement, without ever being vague or obscure. A discussion of his with Horace Greeley in the columns of the *Tribune*, about 1859, on the marriage question, apropos of the Sickles case, was a rich entertainment for those who could enjoy masterly declamation, even if they by no means shared his somewhat mystical views of the relation of husband and wife. His books reached but a small audience, and his philosophy might perhaps be best described by calling it eclectic. It had in it a little of the good of all systems and all religions, though Swedenborgian in some of its main features; but it was not a philosophy which any one but the Master could expound, and his diction was not altogether well adapted to be the medium of philosophic teaching. It was more remarkable for force and lucidity than for subtlety, and it had a power and swing which overawed the reader rather than persuaded him. Mr. James, nevertheless, had disciples all over the country. Every State contained some for whom he had solved the problem, or who believed he could solve it, and who looked to him for counsel or elucidation. To such he was an unwearied adviser, whose patience and sympathy were never exhausted. The smallness of the public, too, which read his books never discouraged him. His literary industry was independent of sales, because constant expression was necessary to his mental comfort, and a private fortune made him indifferent to publishers' accounts. Nothing which could be got from his writings, however, gave any adequate idea of the man who stood behind them. His humor was rich and perennial, and his remarkable powers of expression were never so well displayed as in giving vent to it in conversation. There were touches of the grotesque, in his comments on men and events, which gave one a new idea of what the grotesque was capable of as a contribution to social enjoyment. A more delightful companion than he was it would be hard to find. He was running over with sympathy for all sorrow, wrong, and ruth, and running over, too, with admiration for all the good men and good causes of his time. He was gifted with an abounding kindliness and generosity which did much for the amusement of his friends, owing to his occasional attempts to conceal it under a show of grimness, the hollowness of which was always exposed by the unchanging benevolence that beamed from his eyes. He was in all things a gentleman in the best sense and in all senses of the word, a gentleman both of the old and new school, and would have been a gentleman in any society or in any age. His latter years were much cheered by the success of his sons—one the well-known novelist, and the other a professor at Harvard, who has made his mark in psychology and physiology, and is one of the most promising of the younger explorers in the field of philosophy. Neither of them, unfortunately, was with him at his death. The flow of his humor continued to the last, and left no doubt that the end came to him, as for some time past he said it would come, as welcome rest. Mr. James was an early but not a frequent contributor to the *Nation*.

—Considerable interest relative to the antiquity of man on this continent is likely to be awakened by the discovery, announced some little time since, of fossil human footprints (so called) in the rock on which the Nevada State Prison, situated one and one-half miles from Carson City, is built. The prison, which is described as lying in a valley having an elevation of 4,600 feet, with the Sierra Nevada on the west, the Washoe range on the north, and the hills of the Carson desert on the east and south, occupies the crest of a sandstone hill sixty feet in height, the materials of which, extracted through convict labor, have been largely utilized for building purposes. As a result of quarrying operations the rock has been removed from an area covering approximately one and three-quarters acres, and to a depth varying from fifteen to thirty-two feet, the actual depth beneath the surface of the stratum containing the footprints being about fifteen feet. From the presence of fresh-water shells of the genera *Anodonta* and *Physa*, and the general lay of the strata, it would appear not improbable that the locality represents the border of an ancient lake or pond, whose basin had gradually been filled in by the detritus washed off the neighboring mountain slopes.

—The so-called human footprints (and, indeed, an inspection of the outlines furnished by Dr. Harkness would scarcely permit of their being classed as anything other than the footprints of the genus *homo*) are grouped into six series, each series being represented by a number of impressions (from eight to seventeen) in regular order, "and each showing more or less plainly the imprint of a sandal." In no instance is there a *complete* impression of the foot—*i. e.*, toe and heel—but enough remains in most cases to enable a probably correct restoration to be made of the entire outline. In the series of tracks most carefully measured the average stride was found to be two feet and three inches, or very nearly that which is made by the human species at the present day. But, singularly enough, the straddle, or transverse distance between the opposite feet, reckoned from the centres of the impressions, measured fully eighteen inches; and, indeed, the length of the impressions themselves marked eighteen and one-half inches, with a breadth of heel of six inches—proportions very much beyond what we expect to meet with in normal man. These circumstances, taken in connection with the fact that there are no differentiated toe marks—the portion of the tracks corresponding to the front of the foot "being as smooth as the work of a mason for the distance of two or three inches"—have led to the supposition that the feet making the impressions must have been encased in sandals, possibly hollowed out of wood. Associated with these foot-tracks are stated to be those of various birds, the wolf, deer, horse, and mammoth, those of the last-named animal in some instances obliterating the supposed human tracks, and consequently being of later formation. As far as can be determined from the drawings and descriptions furnished by Dr. Harkness ("Footprints found at the Carson State Prison"), there would appear to be but little if any ground for doubting that the prints in question were produced by an animal closely allied to, if not identical with, *homo*. The absence of overlapping in the impressions, such as would be brought about by the treads of the hind foot on (or near) to the mark of the fore foot, almost positively precludes the possibility of the organism having been a quadruped, such as a bear or one of the extinct megatherioids, as has been hinted at by some authorities. Again, the uniform outline of the inner border of the foot in the region of the big toe, showing no trace of opposition, would debar the claims of the anthropoid apes. No satisfactory stratigraphical evidence has thus far been submitted tending to prove, as has been maintained by some, that the rock formation containing the impressions is of older date (Pliocene) than the Post-Pliocene or Quaternary period, nor is there anything in the associated fossil remains to indicate this greater antiquity. The contemporaneity of man and the mammoth has long since been established, but it is interesting to prove that a similar contemporaneity on this continent existed between man and the indigenous horse.

—It is well known that for some years the relations between Björnson and King Oscar II. have been extremely unfriendly. Indeed, the King has been suspected of stooping to undignified attacks upon Björnson's character. Björnson is a poet, and his Majesty King Oscar is also known to be a friend to the muses. From time to time he has published translations from Goethe and other standard poets, and he has also now and then produced original poems. The latter were recently published in a German translation by Emil Jonas. For this the translator received from the author a medal "pro litteris et artibus," and he has since received other decorations from the same source Last summer, by royal invitation, he accompanied the King on a visit to Norway. Still more recently a cyclopædia has been published at Oberhausen by A. Spaarmann, entitled 'Pierer's Konversations-Lexikon,' and among the articles relating to Norway are found an exceedingly abusive one on Björnson and a highly laudatory one on King Oscar. Of Björnson it is said that "his talents are damaged by an assumed, affected Norse air—in short, by an affectation in which he is surpassed only by his competitor Ibsen. The mannerism (*Manirirtheit*) and unnaturalness of both are particularly offensive in their language, style," and so on in a long tirade without one word of praise. Of King Oscar we read that he is a poet of the highest rank; the particular excellences of his verse are all enumerated, and it is stated that there is a "perfectly masterly metric translation into German by Emil Jonas." A Norwegian residing in Saxony was struck with the strange character of these and other articles, and accordingly wrote to the publisher for information in regard to their authorship. The answer revealed the facts, (1) that Emil Jonas was the author of the articles, including the one on Oscar II., with its "eine ganz meisterhafte Uebersetzung"; (2) that the articles had been submitted to his Majesty before they were printed, and that he had read and approved them; and (3) that King Oscar had decorated the publisher, Mr. Spaarmann, with the Vasa order, in recognition of the excellent manner in which the Norwegian and Swedish portions had been cared for. These facts need no comment. Mr. Spaarmann's letter was written simply with a view to emphasizing the value of the work in regard to Norway, for he himself had no suspicion of the bias of his Scandinavian editor.

SYMONDS'S RENAISSANCE IN ITALY.

Renaissance in Italy. Italian Literature. By John Addington Symonds. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 2 vols., 8vo.

INSTEAD of the quotation from Machiavelli's 'Art of War,' "Questa provincia pare nata per risuscitare le cose morte, come si è visto della Poesia, della Pittura, e della Scultura," Mr. Symonds should have taken as a text a passage in Taine's Introduction to his 'History of English Literature': "The more a book represents important *sentiments*, the more it is the work of literature; for the proper office of literature is to take notice of *sentiments*." He is in full accord with the above maxim, and, imitating and following Taine's practices and ideas, he has dragged to light all the low, deservedly forgotten writings of the period of the Renaissance in Italy, provided they expressed sentiment of some sort—good, bad, indifferent, crazy, childish, and above all licentious—and displayed them for the admiration of refined modern readers. In this, therefore, he cannot claim the merit of originality, as any one may see by comparing Taine's chapter ii. on the English Theatre of the days of Beaumont and Fletcher with Mr. Symonds's reviews of the 'Mandragola,' 'Clizia,' 'Cortigiana' of the days of Aretino.

After a preliminary exposition of the three periods of growth, Mr. Symonds discusses the origin and formation of the Italian language. In this inquiry he adheres closely to his Italian authorities; but we are sorry to notice that he also follows them, and with a great deal of partisan spirit, into that bitter and wearisome contest about the Sicilian or Tuscan origin of the language, and whether as late as the Renaissance it should be called Tuscan or Italian, taking sides decidedly with the *Toscaneggianti*. We have neither space nor desire to enter into this discussion, noting only that the author takes issue even with the authority of Dante himself in this petty war that disgraced Italian literature for centuries, stating in reference to the origin of the Italian form of poetry in Sicily that "there is reason to believe that when Dante treated of the courtly Sicilian poets in his essay 'De Vulgari Eloquio,' he knew their writings in a form already *Tuscanized*." That Dante, writing a few years after these Sicilian poets had sung, should have known less about their poems than we do, and given credit for creating this new form of language to the court of Frederick II. in Sicily rather than to his beloved native Tuscany, is a statement which we cannot accept.

In the second chapter, which the author entitles "The Triumvirate," he treats of the three fathers of Italian literature—Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, with the addition of some of their contemporaries. But he is altogether too diffuse in his exposition, and seems to attach as much importance to the lesser as to the greater poets. Speaking of Dante's 'Commedia,' he says:

"We may, perhaps, feel a certain confusion between the personalities of Virgil and Beatrice and the thoughts they represent, which chills our sympathy, raising a feeling of indignation when Virgil returns *unwept* to Hell, and removing Beatrice into a world of intangible ideas" (p. 81).

"Unwept" is a very ill-considered expression, and the celebrity of the passage in the "Purgatorio" makes it seem all the more strange. In fact, the very first commentator we chanced to consult calls special attention: "all' arte del poeta in questa scena, e all' affeto che spirano tutti i suoi versi." Let us produce the passage. Dante has just beheld Beatrice in person, and at this point Virgil vanishes:

"I would have said (the words to my lips came),
'No dram of blood that in my heart is left
Trembles not now—I feel that old-time flame,'
But of his guidance Virgil had bereft
Both me and Statius, Virgil my control—
Virgil, my Father, whom as loved the most
For my salvation I had given my soul:
Nor all the joys our ancient Mother lost
Could save the cheeks he late had cleansed with dew
From turning back to darkness and to *tears*.
Dante! *weep* not that Virgil parts from you,
Weep thou not yet; however deep appears
This wound, a sharper sword must pierce thee through.'"

(T. W. Parsons's translation.)

It is needless to repeat, after this quotation, that Virgil does not go back to the Limbo of the Poets unregretted or "unwept."

We doubt in this respect whether the author is fully capable of appreciating the greatness of Dante; for, though he dares not openly to avow it, yet he seems to lean more toward Petrarch. He makes "Petrarch the first Italian, while Dante remained a Florentine," saying that "from his [Petrarch's] lips was for the first time heard the passionate cry of *Italia mia*" (p. 87). Has Mr. Symonds wholly forgotten the meeting with Sordello, and Dante's indignant outburst of mingled bitterness and tenderness, so replete with the loftiest Italian patriotism, so steeped and throbbing with "la carità del natio loco"—

"Ahi serva Italia! di dolore ostello!
Nave senza nocchier in gran tempesta"?

In his endeavor to make out Dante a Florentine and Petrarch an Italian patriot, Mr. Symonds states that: "He [Dante] *refused* the poet's crown unless it could be taken by the font of baptism upon the square of Florence." And further on, repeating the statement, which the reader may suppose to be an historical fact, he deduces from it what follows:

"Thus, while Dante remained a Florentine, Petrarch was the first Italian. Nor is it insignificant that whereas Dante *refused* the poet's crown unless he could place the laurels on his head in Florence, Petrarch ascended the Capitol among the plaudits of the Romans, and, in the absence of Pope and Emperor, received the wreath from the Senator Romanus. Dante's renunciation and Petrarch's acceptance of this honor were equally appropriate" (p. 88).

When was Dante offered a poet's crown, and when did he renounce it? The only hint at such an honor is a desire of an obscure Latin poet, Giovanni del Virgilio, who in some of his Eclogues invited Dante to come to Bologna and take the laurel crown. It was not even the University of Bologna, but the wish of a private person. Is it wonderful that Dante should refuse; and is such a refusal of sufficient importance to base upon it the provincialism of Dante? The only allusion to a wish for the laurel crown is in the twenty-fifth canto of the "Paradiso," in which Dante, "knowing partly," as Carlyle says, or, as Mr. Lowell says, fully, "that his work was the great, the greatest a man could do," felt convinced that after its publication it would mollify his fellow-citizens, and that, recalling him from his unjust exile, they would crown him with laurels in his "bel San Giovanni." But he died before his work was fully published, and his wish remained only a poet's prophetic vision.

Mr. Symond's treats of Boccaccio with a prolixity absolutely wearisome, dilating upon his every work with what may be called indecent minuteness. We find in this respect a most reprehensible tendency to sift out the most obscene specimens of the writings of that corrupt age, even from authors who do not deserve mention either for eminence, talent, or style. All but one or two of the authors in the third chapter, for instance, interesting as they may be to Italian scholars in the study of that epoch of transition in their literature, are of no value whatever to an English student, and worthy only to be left under the dust of the libraries where the Italians themselves have buried them. Why should we quote Alberti's disgusting 'Novelle' *usque ad nauseam*? his 'Ecatomfila' and 'Amiria'; and notice that "Heliogabalus might have used her precepts in his 'Concio ad Meretrices,'" even quoting in a note (in the original) filthy passages, as if the Italian were a dead language that only one in a million understood? Was Alberti of such importance to the history of Italian literature? We never heard that he was a genius, nor has he ever been thought so, except by the fanatical worshippers of the *Cinquecento*. At the end of this chapter the author, with his wonted inclination for what is sensual, devotes fourteen pages to a disgusting effusion of a distempered brain, the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili' of Francesco Colonna, a vile monk. What has that to do with Italian literature, since it is written in a maccaronic Italo-Latin jargon?

The chapter on "Popular Secular Poetry" is a fair exposition of the popular literature of the *Quattrocento*, demonstrating that, while the upper classes used a bad Latinism, the people of all Italy kept up the Italian language. Though, with his Tuscan bias, in one place Mr. Symonds says "that the music of these lyrics still lingers about in the Tuscan highlands and the shores of Sicily," he then speaks of "the romances of Charlemagne and Arthur being translated into Tuscan," and further on calls Tuscan the *Rispetti, Stornelli, Ciuri*, which are of Southern origin. Why should they be called Tuscan and not Italian? This study of popular songs, or folklore, lately illustrated by such eminent writers as Professor D'Ancona, Carducci, Pitrè, and others, is exceedingly interesting, and the author has made a good use of their works.

In continuation of this study Mr. Symonds dedicates a full chapter of eighty pages and an appendix of eleven more to "Popular Religious Poetry." But where is the poetry in all the doggerel and worse of the 'Sacred Representations' of that period of decadence? As an example of this, after a description of the religious fanatics called *Flagellanti*—crazy people who went about half naked scourging themselves to death—he enumerates a long string of forgotten authors of what he calls religious poetry, beginning with Jacopone da Todi, in this wise:

"From the *Laudesi* [hymn-writers] of the fourteenth century rose one great lyric poet, Jacopone da Todi, whose hymns embrace the whole gamut of religious passion, from tender emotions of love to sombre anticipations of death and thrilling visions of judgment. Reading him we listen to the true lyrical cry of the people's heart in its intolerance of self-restraint, blending the language of erotic ecstasy with sobs and sighs of soul-consuming devotion, aspiring to heaven on wings sped by the energy of human desire. The flight of his inebriated piety transcends and outsoars the strongest pinion of ecclesiastic hymnology. Such lines as—

Fac me plagis vulnerari
Cruce hac inebriari
Ob amorem filii—

do but supply the theme for Jacopone's descant. Violently discordant notes clash and mingle in his chords, and are resolved in bursts of ardor bordering on delirium. He leaps from the grotesque of plebeian imagery to pictures of sublime pathos, from incoherent gaspings to sentences pregnant with shrewd knowledge of the heart, by sudden and spontaneous transitions which reveal the religious sentiment in its simplest form, unspoiled by dogma, unstiffened by scholasticism. None, for example, but a true child of the people could have found the following expression of a desire to suffer with Christ:

O Signor per cortesia
Mandame la malsania.

A me la freve quartana
la contina e la terzana
la doppia cottidiana
Colla grande ydropisia.

A me venga il mal de dente
Mal de capo e mal de ventre
a lo stomaco dolor pungente
en canna l' asquinantia.

Mal de occhi e doglia de fianco
e la postema al lato manco
tysico me longa enalco
e omne tempo la frenesia.

Agia el fegato rescaldato
la milza grossa el ventre enfiato,
lo polmone sia piagato
con gran tosse e parlasia" (p. 283).

Is the author serious, or making fun of his readers? Paolo Emiliani-Giudici, in his 'History of Italian Literature,' Lesson Third, says:

"Since I have mentioned religious poetry, the subject leads me naturally to speak of two authors [Jacopone da Todi and Guido d'Arezzo] whom nobody now reads in Italy, and, nevertheless, especially of one of them, they rave about (*si farnetica*) out of Italy in the most incredible manner.

"The eloquent Villemain, fourteen years ago, portrayed before an elegant assemblage in Paris the aspect of European literature in the Middle Ages, with that refined and brilliant art, that charming brightness, that distinguishes the French. Returning home after having delivered the twelfth lesson of his literary course, he found a letter in which he was bitterly reproached for not having spoken of a certain monk, Jacopone da Todi, from whose poems Dante had derived his inspiration. Let those who know the fantastic brains of that illustrious country imagine the case of the good Villemain, who, until that day, had never heard of the wonderful Jacopone. He immediately procured a copy of his works, and began to peruse them with surprising patience. He read, reread, searched, scrutinized, and then he returned to read, to search, to scrutinize, to investigate, here, there, up and down, with the passion and good-faith of an antiquary who examines the ruins of an ancient edifice, but the looked-for inspiration did not appear. Accordingly, trusting in the honesty of his own convictions, in the full expectation of being hissed by those who sent him the letter, he presented himself to the assemblage, and, after a short but exquisite apology, he announced candidly that Dante, like himself, had absolutely ignored the works of the monk, and that he was the clown of that mystic style of which Dante was the poet: 'C'était, si vous le voulez, le bouffon du genre dont le Dante était le poète'"

It is noteworthy that, after the extravagant praises given to Jacopone and his contemporaries, Mr. Symonds concludes his long chapter in these terms:

"As an apology for the space here devoted to the analysis of plays childish in their subject-matter, prosaic in their treatment, and fruitless of results, it may be urged that in the 'Sacre Rappresentazioni' better than elsewhere we can study the limitations of the popular Italian genius at the moment when the junction was effected between humanism and the spirit of the people."

And to show these "limitations" the author has thought it necessary to fill nearly one hundred pages with trash, for which four pages would have been all-sufficient.

We have no space to follow our author in the portrayal of the Italian epic literature of the Renaissance, noting only that, though it was a revival of letters, the subject-matter was not of Italian origin, not Dantesque, but foreign, derived from the stories of Charlemagne and the Paladins of the Round Table, which pleased the despots of the period, who endeavored thus to revive the feudalism of the Middle Ages. All the poets of this literature were servants in their courts, and wrote to please and flatter them, and not to instruct the people, which is the true aim of literature, in spite of Mr. Taine and the school of sentimentalists. It was, therefore, destined to decay and expire, as it did, in the vast sheepfold of Arcadianism, feebly piping and bleating itself to death. The true Italian genius revived only in the present century from the pure Italian sources of the *Trecento*.

In the second volume Mr. Symonds continues his upturning of obscure Italian names, of no consequence whatever in literature, and only interesting to antiquarians, or people who morbidly gloat over debasing reading. He himself acknowledges this after a long review of the 'Novelle' of Bandello, saying: "But the majority of these tales are simply obscene, with no point but a coarse picture or a shockingly painful climax." Why mention them at all, then, if they had neither literary merit nor influence in literature? Yet, for page after page, he rakes the gutters for the unread and forgotten Italian scribblers of the period, among others, the "indescribable licentious novelists of Siena," the forgotten Sermini and Fortini, "whose best passages from the *Ars Amandi* admit of no quotations"; the Lombard Cornazano, whose "carefully-wrought sixteen stories are very droll, but very dirty." Then he continues with a chapter on the Drama, still preferring the *Cinquecento* filth—the 'Talanta,' the 'Clizia,' the 'Mandragola,' the 'Calandra,' the 'Cortigiana,' quoting in the original Italian some of their indecencies, and taking more pains about Aretino's disgusting comedies than about the 'Aminta' of Tasso. Even in the next chapter, treating of "Pastoral and Didactic Poetry," he quotes Pontano's lascivious Latin works, the 'Fannia,' 'Focilla,' 'Ariadne,' the three books 'De Amore Conjugali,' etc., of which we do not see the slightest relation to Italian literature.

In chapter xiii., on the Purists, we feared that Mr. Symonds would resuscitate the old pedantic war on style and words that stifled the true literature of that period; but, fortunately for the reader, he stops short, acknowledging that "to stir the dust of those obsolete controversies on the language of Italy is no part of his present purpose." He enumerates a long string of poetasters, male and female, who, with one or two exceptions, deserve the oblivion to which they have been relegated. Why even mention the courtesan Tullia d'Aragona, who, he says, "ruled society in Rome, and lived in infamy in Venice"? What society did she rule in Rome, except that of the *demi-monde* and the *roués*? And what verses did she write worthy to be recorded even among the poetasters? There is only one deserving of mention among the women, Vittoria Colonna, and though Mr. Symonds does her justice, yet we regret that, having filled his two bulky volumes with worthless quotations, he should not have given us some of her charming sonnets.

In the chapter on burlesque poetry and satire, reviewing Berni only briefly toward the end, scarcely mentioning Tassoni, and leaving out Redi entirely, the only three poets worthy of note, Mr. Symonds fills the whole chapter with the licentious filth of the maccaronic poet, Girolamo Folengo, and lesser ones of the same tribe, as if it was his intention to show to what depths of degradation the Italo-Latin muse had sunk in the hands of these dissolute verse-makers. He even seems to regret that modern decency does not allow him to quote more of this stuff, for he says on page 330: "It is *unfortunately* impossible to bring either the cook-shop-keeper or his female servant, the mountebank or the glutton, before modern readers. These pictures are too Rabelaisian."

In the same spirit Mr. Symonds quotes, of all the charming satires of Berni, the most scurrilous one, which he addressed to the foul-mouthed Aretino, whom, in turn, Mr. Symonds has considered worthy of a full chapter of forty-five pages, which he has not allowed to any other author of the Renaissance, detailing his life, his habits, his poems, his blackmailings, even his traditional death in "a house of ill fame, kept by his two sisters" at Venice. It is surprising that in a book which treats of literature of the period of Ariosto, Tasso, Guarini, Bojardo, Bembo, Castiglione, Trissino, Michelangelo and Vittoria Colonna, Aretino should occupy so much space. The effect is as if we should be suddenly and unexpectedly transported from the classical picture gallery of the Neapolitan Museum to the Pompeiian *Gabinetto Osceno*. What most astonishes us is that the author acknowledges that "Aretino contrived to render himself formidable by reckless evil-speaking; and, while he had no learning and no style, he managed to pass for a writer of distinction."

The volumes end with a chapter on "History and Philosophy," and another, a "Retrospect of the Renaissance Literature." They are the best in the whole work, the first especially, showing that the author has made good use of the exhaustive study of Machiavelli, by Prof. Villari, the 'History of Italian Literature,' by De Sanctis, and the Italian authors mentioned in the preface. In conclusion, let us say that the two bulky volumes contain a mass of heterogeneous information which, if sifted, purified, and reduced in amount to 400 pages, might be very instructive; for Mr. Symonds is a most learned scholar and delightful writer, his industry is marvellous, and the patience with which he has dived into the most hidden recesses of history very praiseworthy. But his discrimination is faulty, and the proclivity to what is indelicate absolutely reprehensible.

Corea: The Hermit Nation. By W. E. Griffis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Even the enthusiastic inquirer into the history and ways of any nation of the Far East takes up a book of comprehensive information with the feeling that he has a weary road to travel before he has ploughed through the dry-as-dust details of religion and morals, dress and demeanor, habits and customs, traditions and history. Here, for once, he need not fear. This author should be engaged by some benevolent lover of students to make such learning a pastime and not a task, by writing a text-book for each one of the Asiatic nations. His sense of humor—not too broad—his power of condensation without loss of interest, his judgment in enlarging, his apt and complete metaphors, make him the most pleasing of guides in a strange land. In writing of Corea he had, to be sure, the peculiar advantage of a complete knowledge of Japanese affairs, and in fact is so much identified in feeling with that country that as one reads he sometimes feels as if it were a "Jap" that was speaking. But there is sufficient Western individuality to show that he could make himself competent to discourse of other portions of the Far East with nearly equal success. Corea, in itself, though interesting, is not peculiarly so, either from its history or the character of its people. It owes the retention of its nationality through so long a period mainly to its peculiar situation on an isolated peninsula, partly to the indifference of China, which preferred to leave it independent as a buffer against Japan, and in a less degree to a quality of patient endurance in its people, rather than active courage, which saved it at various epochs from the attacks of the fierce warriors of Japan. The principal invasion from that country, however, which happened in 1592-1598, and which reminds one in many of its details of the invasion of Mexico by Cortes, would probably have been successful but for the help given by China. One singular circumstance connected with that expedition is that one of its two leaders was a Christian, and an ardent one at that, much given to proselytizing; and as the other was an equally ardent Buddhist, there was no love lost between them, and to their mutual ill-will are ascribed many of the misfortunes which befell the Japanese. One learns with some surprise that Corea was the nursery of Japan in the arts and sciences and in religion, in such early times as the ninth century, conveying the learning of India and China across the narrow seas to her then more barbarous neighbor.

Coming down to present times, Mr. Griffis tells well the story of the French expedition, and almost piratical foray, as well as of "our little war with the heathen," being the history of the gallant but unjustifiable retribution inflicted on the Coreans because of the burning of the American schooner *General Sherman*. There was, to be

sure, the excuse of a misunderstanding, but, viewed from Mr. Griffis's standard of international ethics, an inexcusable excuse. Mr. Griffis considers the country ripe for change. The King and the nobles are all in all, while the people are nothing, and even the King's authority has suffered by the encroachment of the feudal power. He says a native caricature thus depicts the situation:

"Chōsen (Corea) is represented as a human being of whom the King is the head, the nobles the body, and the people the legs and feet. The breast and belly are full, while both head and lower limbs are gaunt and shrunken. The nobles not only drain the life-blood of the people by their rapacity, but they curtail the royal prerogative."

He sums up the state of education as follows:

"The present position of Chōsen is that of Europe in the Middle Ages. The Confucian temples and halls of scholars, the memorial stones and walls inscribed with historical tablets and moral maxims, the lectures and discussions of literary coteries, and the poetry parties, concentrate learning rather than diffuse it. Nothing like the number of bookstores, circulating libraries, private schools, or ordinary means of diffusing intelligence, common in China and Japan, exists in Corea. Science and the press, newspapers and hospitals, clocks and petroleum, and, more than all, churches and school-houses have yet a mighty work to do in the land of morning calm."

In 1876 the Japanese exacted a treaty of friendship and commerce, and the port of Fusan, at the southeastern corner of the peninsula, was opened to them to be followed by Gensan on the east coast, in 1880, and Inchiun, on the west coast, and twenty-five miles from the capital, at the end of the same year. The Chinese and Americans followed suit in this present year, and the nations of Europe will be included before it expires. With such elements of change from the outside world and disaffection within, it needs no prophet to foretell revolution within a limited period of time; and as those who are to be overthrown have lived by the sword, it is likely that it will be by the sword that they will perish. As respects her future connection with the world at large we think Mr. Griffis overvalues Corea's position in the East. He thinks that "on her soil will be decided the problem of supremacy by the jealous rivals, China, Japan, and Russia." If ever appropriated by either, we think it is likely it will be done by whichever Power has already, on other fields, attained that supremacy. There is good chance, however, that neither rival will so far overcome one of the others as to leave it free to act with the Corean peninsula without regard to the views of the third and that between them Corean independence has a long existence before it.

The Mississippi. By Lieut. F. V. Greene, U. S. A. [Vol. VIII. of the Campaigns of the Civil War.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

In the new realms of space in four dimensions there may be vast possibilities for military genius, but Vicksburg belongs to the commonplace, and offers access from the customary points of the compass. If, then, west, north, and east had been tried unsuccessfully, it would seem that a resort to the south was not so much the choice of a general as a necessity of geography. Hence the establishment of a base of operations at Grand Gulf. Finally, the race experience, left to clarify through the slow years, deposits a proverbial sediment such as, "the longest way round is the shortest way home," in instinctive deference to which the Union troops, instead of taking a bee-line direct for Vicksburg across the Big Black Valley, go round *via* Jackson, using the various means of communication thence to their objective point, and then leaving these wholly unavailable by the enemy gathering in their rear.

All this was very cleverly done and is quite plainly described by Lieut. Greene. It does not seem probable that the Union troops could have manœuvred better, or the Confederates have been handled worse. The result was the surrender of Vicksburg in due process of time, as well as Port Hudson. As these things were certain to follow, unless the Confederate Government previously accumulated an adequate relieving force, a tender economist of human life might have been tempted to wish that a sociable blockade could have been agreed upon, with the understanding that in the usual forty days, unless interfered with by outsiders, or that when the party of the one part had starved long enough, the party of the other part quietly holding its own, the inevitable surrender should follow with all proper form. This would have saved a heartache or two, but the roses of garlands earned in war must always be red.

Port Hudson was bound up in the fortunes of Vicksburg, of course, and also contributed largely to the surgical education of the country, being mainly another siege in which the assaulting troops reached the ditch promptly enough, but never got any further, unless a peep over (as at Corinth or Manassas) revealed the enemy's absence. True, there are some exceptions. Terry's brigadiers carry the proofs thereof with them to this day.

The maps of this volume are not particularly better than those of its predecessors. Their information is much like that of a wrecked guideboard. As to the text generally, we should say it lacks exactly that which is to be found very frequently, and always most happily, in the author's 'Army Life in Russia'—touches of local color, namely, that make the narrative more of a picture and less of a directory. There are two kinds of detail: the dry, arithmetical sort, and the detail which links you to the history so closely that its characters seem part and parcel of your own experience, and it is you yourself who storm Badajos with Napier, or drive back the Russians at Inkerman with Kinglake, or press toward the Sadowa bridge with Prince Frederick Charles and Hozier. This latter is the sort of detail of which there is none too much in any of the Scribner series. 'The Mississippi,' however, does not profess to be other than a compilation of facts and the interpretation of them. For the former the official archives are responsible, and only they who have undertaken the labor of reference and verification know anything of the drudgery involved. The task in this instance has certainly fallen into careful, and the interpretation into competent, hands, and if the description lacks somewhat of the glow of the forge, it is marked by the accuracy of the cabinet.

In the issues of Vicksburg siege, Port Hudson may have been a mere episode, but there was plenty of material for dramatic treatment. In some respects its history was a curious parallel to that of Vicksburg, and the points of difference are quite worthy of consideration. General Grant passed the Mississippi to the south, and moved east to Jackson, returning thence to the river. General Banks for like reasons went west to Alexandria, and then, falling back, crossed the Mississippi to the north and closed in on Port Hudson. But General Grant penned up the Confederates in Vicksburg, after hammering them soundly, as was his wont, while General Banks only elbowed them out of his way. Introducing himself direct to the enemy at Bisland, he sent the Fourth Division round by Grand Lake on the right to disembark at Indian Bend on the Teche Bayou, up which lay General Taylor's only line of retreat. The Teche at this points presents to the landing a V with impassable swamps for the background. The Fourth Division moved down the left arm towards the lower extremity of which Taylor was met, hurriedly retiring before the main body of the Federals. With some friction he rubbed by straight across the angle and went thankfully on his way, soon, however, to return. Had the Fourth Division taken the other horn of the dilemma, the subsequent reconstruction of General Taylor might have been a matter of more difficulty.

But New Orleans, with a population of some 200,000 hostiles—women and children worse than the men—gave to the situation before General Banks elements of very serious perplexity that were absent from the Vicksburg complication. Fortunately, General Butler had preceded General Banks, and New Orleans was still torpid from the vigorous throttling administered by the former commander. That problem of New Orleans, and how it was solved by the present Governor-elect of Massachusetts, deserves close study, but lies outside of our limits, except to note that the tranquillity of this city, which helped things along mightily for General Banks, was not so much his achievement as the legacy of his astute predecessor.

Some 24,000 men were gathered about Port Hudson in May. There were some 8,000 fit for duty when that place surrendered in July. The rest were scattered through graveyards and hospitals, not altogether the victims of bullet and shell, but rather the prey of disease incident to climate and exposure. The men from Arkansas and Missouri got through a troglodyte existence very comfortably in the burrows of the ravines with their daily handful of ears of corn, but the young pilgrim from New England missed the snug comfort and plenty of the old farmhouse. The transition to camp life and cookery was much less of a shock to Pike County than to Berkshire, and it told accordingly. The Arkansas Traveller was more at home in mud and rain than Sam Lawson.

Jewish and Christian History. Vols. i. and ii.: Bible Narrative and Jewish History; vol. iii.: the Gospel Story and Christian History. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

We are not surprised that there is in this book no indication whatever of its author or authors. It is all the work of scissors, excepting a few lines of introduction, the headings, and possibly a little more in the third volume, to which we confess we have not extended our examination. "No originality is claimed" for the scissors in the Introduction, but considerable familiarity with "authorities for the Old-Testament volumes," including "Xenophon, Grote, 'Bampton Lectures,' Plumptre, Book of Enoch, Milman, Brugsch's 'Egypt,' . . . Kuenen, Conant, Raymond's 'Job,' Stanley, Ewald, Westcott, Noyes, Thalheimer." The scissors' familiarity with such authorities as Xenophon or Kuenen seems to be infinitesimal: from Kuenen three lines have been taken, we believe; but Stanley's works, Smith's 'Old-Testament History,' 'Bible Educator,' and 'Encyclopædia' (which, whose, or what kind we are not told) have been mercilessly cut up, at random, for notes. Miss Thalheimer, who is ranged as an authority between Noyes and Sears, has been made to contribute some pages on Simon, Hyrcanus, Aristobulus, etc., and Herod and his family, introduced thus: "The remainder of the Book of Maccabees is taken from Thalheimer's Ancient History"—the scissors having confounded the Book (*sic*) of Maccabees with Josephus's narratives on the later history of that house and its exterminator.

The scissors and the heading-writer together have confounded less congruous things than those. Thus, chapter xxiii. is devoted to "Zechariah, the Favorite Prophet of King Uzziah in his

Prosperous Days," and consists entirely of pieces cut out of the book of Zechariah—like all other cuttings, pell-mell, without reference to verse, chapter, or book—and beginning thus: "Upon the four and twentieth day of the eleventh month, which is the month Sebat, in the second year of Darius, came the word of the Lord unto Zechariah," etc. Now, "the second year of Darius" was 520 B. C., and King Uzziah, whose favorite prophet Zechariah is here said to have been, died in "B. C. 758," as a little cutting from Smith's Bible Dictionary correctly informs us at the beginning of the following chapter. Whence this confusion? Critics have established the fact that there was more than one prophet Zechariah, and that one was a contemporary of King Uzziah, and our heading-writer, finding a sensational sentence referring to this one, placed it over the cutting from the Zechariah who prophesied two hundred and forty years later. Things referring to two Assyrian kings are equally mixed up in the chapter headed, "The Expedition of Sargon; the Invasion of Sennacherib," etc.—a confusion not remedied by the quotation from Smith, whose remark caused it. All the pieces taken from Isaiah, in the chapter devoted to him, are from those portions of the book of that name which all but universal critical opinion ascribes to much later authorship.

On a level with the chronological sense which determined the order of the pieces is the taste which dictated the selections. We have two pages (one in a supplement) from Isaiah, and the apocryphal "Prayer of Manasseh" in its full dreary length; the noblest and most lucid sentences of Micah are left out, and the following given, without a word of explanation: "Now gather thyself in troops, O daughter of troops; he hath laid siege against us; they shall smite the judge of Israel with a rod upon the cheek." The book is for "the young," but while no note, under "Nahum," tells them what Elkoshite means, or Put, or Lubim, they are informed in a cutting, in connection with the Wisdom of Solomon, of "Vach, or Sarasvati, the goddess of speech, the Sakti, or female form of Brahma, . . . corresponding to the Avalokitesvara, or Kwan Yin, the Sakti of Amitabha, of the later Buddhists—'the manifested voice (of the Deity),'" etc, etc. The quotation may possibly be correct, though the only two quotations which we have compared with the source—those from Stanley, in the chapter on Micah—are disfigured by misconnection and by verbal additions equally useless and tasteless.

Art and Nature in Italy. By Eugene Benson. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1882.

MR. BENSON'S little book is an appreciative and discriminating record of impressions and reflections on Art and Nature in Italy. The surpassing beauty of the country, together with its touching and significant historic associations, its pathetic and noble monuments, and its interesting conditions of human life—especially in the rural districts—do not appeal in vain to his sympathetic and discerning mind. His language is expressive and often forcible, and in his descriptive passages, which are numerous, the word-painting is clear and beautiful. Mr. Benson's observations on art and artists are generally suggestive and just, especially those concerning Giorgione, Carpaccio, and Titian. His estimate of the character and influence of the art of Fortuny is also remarkably clear-sighted, and we think it will be especially helpful at the present time, when the bizarre, extravagant, and tasteless impulse derived from that and kindred sources is telling so harmfully on our modern arts. There are some minor points in which Mr. Benson seems less clear-sighted, as where, in his fondness for tracing a painter's antecedents, he fancies he finds the prototypes of Raphael's "thin trees" at Urbino, his birthplace. Raphael really got his thin trees from his master Perugino. The book is not profound, but it is true in spirit, and very pleasant to read.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anson, Sir W. R. Principles of the English Law of Contract and of Agency in its Relation to Contract. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Armsby-Jenkins. The Farmer's Annual Hand-book for 1883. D. Appleton & Co.
Arnold, E. Pearls of the Faith; or, Islam's Rosary. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 57-60. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon. Parts 24-41 (end of Vol. iii.). Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Coxhead, Ethel. Birds and Babies. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Geer, G. P. Analysis of the Science of Accounts. Holyoke, Mass.: Clark W. Bryan & Co.
Gibbon, C. The Golden Shaft. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Gray, Barry. His Works, in five volumes. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Holland, T. E. The Elements of Jurisprudence. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Lee, Margaret. Divorce. J. W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
M. C. S. Hymns, Home, Harvard. "Farewell." Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Meghadûta, the Cloud Messenger. Poem of Kâlidâsa. London: Trübner & Co.
Minchin, G. M. Uniplanar Kinematics of Solids and Fluids. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Minton, M. M. The List: A Visiting and Shopping Directory for 1883. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Monro, D. B. A Grammar of the Homeric Dialect. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Rideing, W. H. Boys in the Mountains and on the Plains. D. Appleton & Co. $2 50.
Rollin, M. The Ancient History of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Medes and Persians, Grecians and Macedonians. Complete in 1 vol. Ward, Lock & Co. $3 50.
Sachs, J. Text-Book of Botany, Morphological and Physiological. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Saintsbury, G. Corneille's Horace. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Sand, George. Consuelo. Translated by Fayette Robinson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.
Savage, M. J. Poems. Boston: George H. Ellis. $1 50.
Schiller's Song of the Bell. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 50.
Scott, Walter. Lay of the Last Minstrel. Introduction and Canto I. Edited by W. Minto. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Seiss, J. A. The Golden Altar: Forms of Living Faith. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 75 cents.
Seyppel, C. M. Schlau, Schläuer, am Schläusten. Aegyptische Humoreske. B. Westermann & Co. $1 50.
Shakspere's Works. Parchment Series. Vol. ii. D. Appleton & Co.
Shaw, Flora L. Phyllis Browne. With illustrations. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Shurtleff, E. W. Poems. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Shute, R. Anecdota Oxoniensia: Chiefly from Manuscripts in the Bodleian and other Oxford Libraries. Classical Series. Vol. i., part 3. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Simmons, H. M. The Unending Genesis; or, Creation Ever Present. Chicago: The Colegrove Book Co.
Sizer, N. Forty Years in Phrenology. Fowler & Wells. $1 50.
Skeat, Rev. W. W. The Gospel of St. Mark in Gothic. According to the Translation made by Wulfila in the Fourth Century. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Southworth, Mrs. Emma D. E. N. Self-Made; or, Out of the Depths. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Peterson. $3 50.
The Gospel by Mark, according to the Authorized Version, in Phonetic Spelling. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cts.
The Standard Series of New Testament Helps. No. 73. Funk & Wagnalls. 20 cents.
The Musical Favorite: A New Collection of Music for the Piano-Forte. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Waddington, S. Arthur Hugh Clough. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Wägner-Macdowall. Epics and Romances of the Middle Ages. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $3.
Zola, E. In the Whirlpool. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

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ERRATA.

Page 111, col. i, line 2. For "Parsch" read "Parseh."

Page 124, col. ii, lines 18, 19 from bottom. For "advocated" read "opposed."

Page 153, col. ii, line 28 from bottom. For "natural" read "maternal."

Page 154, col. i, line 35. For "word" read "line."

Page 213, col. iii, fourth paragraph. For "Earl Grey" read "Sir George Grey," and dele the biographical particulars.

Page 288, col. i, line 37 from bottom. For "Chanteraine" read "Chantereine."

Page 337, col. ii. In the first table, the figures are in thousands, not in "hundred thousands."

Page 426, col. iii, line 3. For "O. B. Potter" read "O. W. Potter."